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## Examining the Relationship Between Employees' Perceptions of and Attitudes Toward Corporate Social Responsibility and Organizational Identification

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THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF AND  
ATTITUDES TOWARD CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND  
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

By

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	ix
ABSTRACT .....	x
CHAPTER 1 .....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 Overview of the Problem .....	1
1.3 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions .....	3
1.4 Significance of the study .....	5
1.5 Theoretical Framework .....	6
1.5.1 Corporate Social Responsibility .....	6
1.5.2 Organizational Identification .....	8
1.5.3 Organizational Commitment .....	9
1.5.4 Conceptual Model.....	10
1.6 Definition of Terms.....	16
1.7 Overview of Chapters.....	17
CHAPTER 2 .....	18
2.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	18
2.2 Business Social Responsibility —Premise of CSR .....	18
2.3 CSR—Definition and Conceptualization .....	22
2.4 Corporate Social Responsibility—Other Theoretical Approaches.....	25
2.5 CSR and Employees’ Perceptions .....	27
2.5.1 CSR Awareness .....	28
2.5.2 Perceived CSR Motivation .....	29
2.5.3 Perceived CSR Fit.....	30

2.5.4 Perceived CSR Investment .....	31
2.6 Relevant CSR Research.....	32
2.7 Organizational Identification.....	35
2.7.1 Identity .....	37
2.7.2 Organizational Identification: One construct, many conceptualizations .....	37
2.7.3 Social Identity Theory.....	40
2.7.4 Social Identity Theory and Organizational Identification .....	42
2.7.5 Measuring Organizational Identification .....	43
2.8 Employees' Attitudes toward CSR.....	46
2.8.1 Attitudes.....	47
2.8.2 Measuring Attitudes.....	48
2.8.3 Indirect Measures of Attitudes.....	48
2.8.4 Direct Measures of Attitudes .....	50
2.9 Summary of the Literature Review and Research Hypotheses .....	52
2.9.1 Employees' Perceptions of CSR and Organizational Identification.....	52
2.9.2 Moderating Effect of Employees' Attitudes toward CSR .....	55
2.9.3 Organizational Identification and Behavioral Outcomes.....	56
CHAPTER 3 .....	58
3.1 METHODS.....	58
3.2 Research Design .....	58
3.3 Sampling.....	59
3.4 Data Collection Procedures .....	60
3.5 Instrument.....	61
3.5.1 Awareness.....	61
3.5.2 Perceived CSR Motivation .....	62

3.5.3 Perceived CSR Fit.....	64
3.5.4 Perceived CSR Investment .....	65
3.5.5 Organizational Identification .....	66
3.5.6 Employees' Attitudes toward CSR.....	69
3.5.7 Outcome Variables.....	71
3.6 Data Analysis.....	73
3.6.1 Preliminary Steps .....	74
3.6.2 Difference Test.....	75
3.6.3 Reliability and Validity.....	75
3.6.4 Structural Equation Modeling.....	78
3.7 Chapter Summary .....	79
CHAPTER 4 .....	81
4.1 RESULTS.....	81
4.2 Pilot Study .....	81
4.2.1 Procedure .....	81
4.2.2 Results of the Pilot Study.....	82
4.3 Main Study .....	87
4.3.1 Procedure .....	87
4.3.2 Participants.....	88
4.3.3 Test of Univariate and Multivariate Normality .....	91
4.3.4 Mean Difference Tests.....	92
4.3.5 Reliability and Validity.....	94
4.4. Hypothesis Testing .....	104
4.4.1 Assessment of the Structural Model .....	104
4.4.2. Moderation Effect .....	107

4.5 Summary of the Results.....	109
CHAPTER 5 .....	112
5.1 Discussion .....	112
5.2 Discussion of the Pilot Study Results.....	112
5.3.1 Discussion of the Main Study Results .....	114
5.3.1 Mean Difference Tests .....	114
5.3.2 Measurement Model .....	115
5.3.3 Structural Model .....	120
5.3.4. Moderation Effect .....	124
5.4 Contributions of the Study .....	125
5.5 Limitations of the Study .....	126
5.6 Recommendations for Future Research .....	127
5.7 Conclusion.....	129
APPENDIX A.....	131
APPENDIX B .....	133
APPENDIX C .....	135
REFERENCES .....	140
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH .....	158

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Awareness item.....	61
Table 3.2 Speed and Thompson’s (2000) perceived sincerity (original items) .....	63
Table 3.3 Perceived CSR motivation items .....	63
Table 3.4 Speed and Thompson’s (2000) perceived sponsor-event fit (original items).....	64
Table 3.5 Perceived CSR fit items .....	65
Table 3.6 Schlosser et al.’s (2006) original items.....	66
Table 3.7 Perceived CSR investment items .....	66
Table 3.8 Organizational identification items (Adapted from Heere & James, 2007) .....	68
Table 3.9 Employees’ attitudes toward CSR items .....	70
Table 3.10 Employees’ attitudes toward CSR items .....	71
Table 3.11 OCBs and PSA (original items).....	72
Table 3.12 OCBs and PSA items .....	73
Table 3.13 Model fit indices .....	78
Table 4.1 Scale statistics .....	83
Table 4.2 Interconnection to self items.....	86
Table 4.3 PSA items .....	86
Table 4.4 Demographic characteristics of the sample .....	89
Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics.....	91
Table 4.6 Mean difference tests .....	93
Table 4.7 Scale statistics (Original Model).....	98
Table 4.8 Scale statistics (Revised Model).....	101
Table 4.9 Correlation matrix.....	103
Table 4.10 Measurement model.....	103
Table 4.11 Employees’ perceptions of CSR correlation matrix .....	106



Table 4.12 Moderation effect.....	109
Table 4.13 Results of hypothesis testing.....	110

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Proposed conceptual model.....	4
Figure 1.2 Research model .....	16
Figure 2.1 Kim et al.'s (2010) model.....	35
Figure 2.2 Hypothesized relationships.....	57
Figure 4.1 Structural model. ....	107

## **ABSTRACT**

There was a time when the most powerful organizations were those linked to religion. Then that power shifted toward governmental institutions. Today, some of the most powerful entities are businesses (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997), but with power comes responsibility. According to Davis (1973), organizations that do not use power in ways that society considers responsible will tend to lose it. Hence, it is not uncommon for organizations to integrate social initiatives that attend to society's needs and demands into their operations. Taking on social initiatives is referred to as corporate social responsibility (CSR). The importance of CSR has been documented (e.g., Carroll, 1979; Turban & Greening, 1996). From a marketing perspective, CSR activities have been found to have a positive influence on consumers' patronage intentions. From a management perspective, CSR initiatives have been found to influence organizational attractiveness, organizational citizenship behaviors, and employees' attitudes. However, most scholarly work in the area of management has been of a conceptual nature and has not analyzed in depth the extent to which employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives influence important attitude-related outcomes such as organizational identification. Therefore, the researcher conducted a study that attempted to fill in this gap. Specifically, the researcher developed and empirically tested a model that examined the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives, organizational identification, employees' attitudes toward CSR, and two behavioral variables.

The study was composed of a pilot study and a main study. The results of the pilot study demonstrated that some changes needed to be made to the scale in order to improve its psychometric properties. The changes consisted of adding items and changing the wording of other items. All changes were made before the main study was conducted.

Two samples were collected for the main study. The idea behind collecting two samples (sport and non-sport) was to test if the results varied by organizational context. The results led the researcher to conclude there were no significant differences among employees working for sport organizations and non-sport organizations. Regarding hypothesis testing, the results were mixed. Although the structural model provided an acceptable fit to the data, several of the hypotheses were not supported. The hypotheses that were supported provided evidence that employees' perceptions of CSR motivation have a positive impact on their organizational

identification. Furthermore, organizational identification was found to be a positive predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors and personal social action.

This study is an initial attempt to test the model proposed by the researcher. This study contributes to the advancement of the study of CSR and its impact on employees. Furthermore, because organizational studies are very limited within the field of sport management (Wolfe, Weick, Usher, Terborg, Poppo, Murrell, Dukerich, Crown Core, Dickson, & Jourdan, 2005), it also contributes to the advancement of such type of studies within the sport realm.

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has become a prominent area of study in organizational research and has assumed importance as organizations engage in socially responsible initiatives beyond those required by law (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). These initiatives may lead to positive social change (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007), positive personal social action (Ellis, 2008), as well as to an improvement in the quality of life for stakeholders (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997).

Cohen and Greenfield (1997) and Bhattacharya, Sen, and Korschun (2008) suggested that employees find CSR initiatives emotionally rewarding. For this reason, individuals may be more inclined to work for socially responsible organizations than for organizations that do not integrate CSR initiatives into their operations (Cohen & Greenfield). Furthermore, Bhattacharya et al. asserted that when CSR initiatives are planned strategically they will positively influence the relationship between the organization and its stakeholders, including employees. Through the present study, the author examined the impact of CSR initiatives on a specific group of stakeholders, employees.

The researcher attempted to assess the influence of employees' perceptions of and attitudes toward CSR on organizational identification. Organizational identification is considered an important subject of study because once employees identify with their employing organization they are more likely to develop a sentimental bond with it and are more likely to remain in their current work place. Moreover, identification is linked to employees' behaviors and withdrawal cognitions, such as organizational citizenship behaviors and turnover.

### **1.2 Overview of the Problem**

Organizations such as Ben & Jerry's, Starbucks, and Bank of America are involved in environmentally responsible initiatives, activities directed at fighting poverty in their local communities, and efforts to improve their employees' well-being. Cohen and Greenfield (1997) asserted that when an organization is socially responsible "people want to buy from you. They want to work for you. They want to be associated with you. They feel invested in your success" (p. 29). Walker and Kent (2009) and Peterson (2004) also purport that CSR initiatives may serve to strengthen consumers and employees' loyalty to an organization.

Sport organizations also engage in CSR programs. For example, the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) is well-known for implementing CSR programs in different areas such as youth education, anti-racism, peace-building, health education, and economic development. The majority of articles written about CSR in the sport management field, however, have focused on the influence of CSR initiatives on consumers' perceptions, behaviors, and intentions (e.g., Walker & Kent, 2009). There is a lack of research examining the influence of CSR initiatives on employees' perceptions, behaviors, and intentions. For example, sport management researchers have yet to examine the impact that such initiatives have on employees' identification and commitment. Examining the impact of CSR on employees' perceptions, behaviors, and intentions can benefit organizations because they can utilize CSR as a way of building identification, commitment, and other important attitudes that positively influence the work environment and overall organizational functioning.

In the broader management field, organizational identification and commitment are considered important because both have been found to correlate with employees' turnover intentions (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1991), organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Peterson, 2004), performance (e.g., Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), attendance (e.g., Steers, 1977), and other factors that impact organizational functioning. In the sport management field there are numerous studies dealing with identification, but from a marketing perspective (i.e., consumers' identification with sports teams). On the other hand, commitment is one of the least studied subjects in this field (Doherty, 1998). Of the few studies found, the majority have concentrated on consumers' commitment and the commitment of college coaches (e.g., Cunningham & Sagas, 2004; Kent & Sullivan, 2003; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Thus, because of the importance of identification and commitment in relation to organizational functioning, there is a need to expand the study of these subjects utilizing samples composed of employees occupying other positions within sport organizations.

Regardless of the number of studies dealing with organizational identification and organizational commitment, there is no agreement among scholars about the proceeding order of the two constructs, nor about the differences and similarities between them. For example, Sass and Canary (1991) argued that organizational identification precedes organizational commitment whereas other authors (e.g., O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) argued the contrary. Such disagreement has resulted in a "conceptual battle" in which authors have attempted to differentiate these two

constructs. The relationship between organizational identification and commitment warrants further analysis.

With the purpose of addressing the weaknesses and filling in the gaps of the aforementioned research, the author developed a conceptual model (see Figure 1.1) in which several relationships are proposed. First, a positive relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational commitment is proposed. This relationship is said to be potentially mediated by organizational identification. The proposed model also depicts a moderating effect of employees' attitudes toward CSR in the perceptions and identification relationship. Finally, the relationship between organizational commitment and two potential employees' behaviors is addressed. The proposed study was an initial attempt to measure some of the relationships depicted in the conceptual model. Specifically, the researcher examined the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification as well as the relationship between those two variables and employees' attitudes toward CSR (see Figure 1.2).

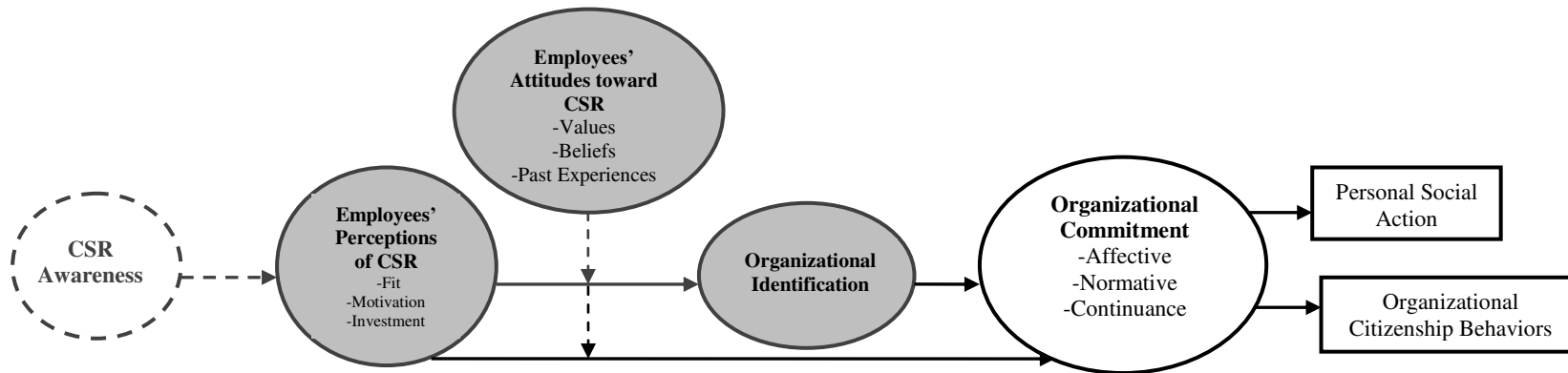
### **1.3 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions**

The purpose of the proposed study was twofold. First, to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification. Second, to assess the potential moderating role of employees' attitudes toward CSR in the aforementioned relationship.

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification?
2. Do employees' attitudes influence the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification?

Figure 1.1 depicts the proposed relationships between the aforementioned constructs.



**Figure 1.1** Proposed conceptual model. *\*\*Note:* Only the relationships between the shaded variables and the outcomes variables were examined in this dissertation. Therefore, the research model was different from the proposed conceptual model depicted here.



#### **1.4 Significance of the study**

Although organizations are now developing more CSR programs in which employees are encouraged to participate, only a few studies—at least in the sport management field—have examined the impact that such programs have on employees’ organizational identification and organizational commitment (e.g., Kim, Lee, Lee, & Kim, 2010; Peterson, 2004). The researcher sought to provide information to fill in this gap. Specifically, the researcher proposed that CSR initiatives can have a positive impact on employees’ identification and commitment when employees are aware of CSR initiatives. Employees may perceive the initiatives as legitimate efforts to benefit society, and perceive them as congruent with an organization’s image, mission, and values. This relationship, however, is also likely moderated by the employees’ attitude toward CSR initiatives. For example, when employees do not value or believe in CSR, they may consider it a waste of organizational resources (e.g., time and money). With the proposed conceptual model, the researcher also sought to resolve some of the confusion generated by several studies about the relationship between organizational identification and organizational commitment. The researcher proposed that identification precedes commitment and that identification mediates the relationship between employees’ perceptions of CSR and organizational commitment.

The proposed study is also expected to advance our understanding of the relationship between organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and personal social action (PSA). It is essential to understand the relationship between commitment and OCBs because even though OCBs are discretionary and not explicitly rewarded, they are relevant to the efficient and effective functioning of organizations (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). In addition, employees’ PSA is important because these behaviors can contribute to the success of social initiatives sponsored by the organization (Ellis, 2008).

In order to address the research questions, two samples were collected. One sample was composed of individuals working for sport organizations. The second sample included individuals working for non-sport organizations. The main purpose of collecting two samples was to test if the results vary depending on the type of organization that individuals work for. For instance, CSR initiatives conducted by sport organizations seem to receive greater attention by the media and general public, consequently, CSR may be a stronger predictor of organizational identification among individuals working for sport organizations than individuals working in

other type of industries. Furthermore, Hantrais (1995) suggested that conducting such comparisons among samples will establish empirical evidence supporting whether organizational phenomena can be explained by the same causes or if it varies by organizational context. Lastly, it was suggested by Wolfe and his colleagues (Wolfe et al., 2005) that sport organizations offer an excellent context for organizational research, however, researchers have yet to realize this potential. Thus, this study is also significant because it advances the subject of organizational studies within the sport management realm.

## **1.5 Theoretical Framework**

In this section the researcher provides an explanation of the theoretical foundations of the proposed model (see Figure 1.1). First, the theoretical foundations of CSR are addressed followed by an explanation of the foundations of organizational identification, and finally, the theoretical foundations of organizational commitment are discussed.

### **1.5.1 Corporate Social Responsibility**

The majority of CSR studies have centered on the relationship between CSR initiatives and organizational (financial) performance, the impact of CSR on consumers, and/or the factors that influence CSR (c.f., Ellis, 2008; Walker & Kent, 2009). Few studies have examined the impact of CSR on employees (notable exceptions include Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007; Ellis, 2008; Peterson, 2004; Turban & Greening, 1996). Ellis (2008) highlighted the importance of employees as stakeholders as well as the importance that organizations now grant to CSR initiatives. She proposed furthering the theoretical and empirical examination of the relationship between CSR initiatives and employees' behaviors (e.g. OCBs), attitudes (e.g. commitment, identification), and perceptions of corporate image.

The theory most often associated with CSR is stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). Freeman (1984) defined a stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (p. 46). Carroll (1991) suggested a natural fit between CSR ideals and an organization's stakeholders, as the stakeholder concept delineates the specific groups that organizations should consider when implementing CSR initiatives (Quinn, 2002).

Based on Freeman's (1984) definition, Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) presented a stakeholder identification theory with three attributes: legitimacy, urgency, and power. Mitchell and colleagues theorized that these attributes affect the degree to which managers prioritize

stakeholders' needs and interests. However, according to institutional theory, the degree of priority that managers assign to different stakeholders also depends on how other organizations in the same industry operate in relation to these groups (Campbell, 2007). Though CSR initiatives became popular when they were mainly directed toward consumers, organizations have learned that these initiatives can also have a positive impact on other stakeholders, such as employees. For this reason, organizations such as Ben & Jerry's, Starbucks, and the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) implement CSR initiatives in which their employees are more actively involved (e.g., volunteer days and/or donations to non-profit organizations such as United Way).

CSR can be defined as a "process by which an organization expresses and develops its 'corporate culture' and social consciousness" (Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006, p. 537). This social consciousness appears when organizations engage in social activities that go beyond their financial interests and what is required by law (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Rupp et al. suggested that organizational acts of responsibility or irresponsibility impact employees' attitudes and behaviors. Consequently, they added, "employees' perceptions of CSR will trigger emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral responses" (p. 539).

Different American organizations such as Starbucks and Ben & Jerry's have incorporated CSR initiatives into their mission statements. Internationally, FIFA is well-known for implementing CSR programs in different areas. Even banks have joined this trend. Consider for example, the partnership between Chivas USA (a soccer team located in California) and Bank of America. Together these organizations created the program "Educate to Activate" which provides free financial education to the Californian Latino community ("Bank of America partners with Chivas USA and a leading financial expert to launch financial fitness campaign in Los Angeles", 2005).

CSR initiatives can positively impact stakeholders' perceptions of the organization as they can generate a positive effect on consumers' commitment to different products or services (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997). For instance, individuals might be more likely to commit to buy products from companies that implement environmental-friendly policies than from others that do not. Furthermore, CSR initiatives can also have a positive influence on employees' perceptions of the organization, which can lead to organizational identification (Turker, 2009) as well as organizational commitment (Peterson, 2004).

### **1.5.2 Organizational Identification**

Organizational identification has an important place in the study of organizational behavior because researchers have found that employees' identification levels impact overall organizational effectiveness (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). However, until the late 1980s, organizational identification was not fully understood and researchers confused this construct with other related subjects such as organizational commitment (Ashforth & Mael).

Ashforth and Mael (1989) undertook the task of re-conceptualizing the construct and explained that social identity theory (SIT) could easily restore the coherence of organizational identification and its applications to organizational behavior. SIT posits that individuals tend to classify themselves into various social categories such as religious affiliation, gender, and/or sport teams (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Based on this assumption, Ashforth and Mael suggested that organizational identification "is a specific form of social identification where the individual defines him or herself in terms of their membership in a particular organization" (p. 105). The organizational identification framework developed by them is now widely accepted. By using SIT as a premise for organizational identification, Ashforth and Mael were able to provide a concise definition and clarify the applicability of this construct.

A number of studies of organizational commitment and organizational identification have attempted to establish differences between the two. Although these constructs have been defined differently, many researchers such as Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), Cheney (1983), and Gautam, VanDICK, and Wagner (2004), and Fuller, Barnett, Hester, and Relyea (2003) believe they are related. However, some researchers have proposed that organizational identification precedes organizational commitment, while others have argued the contrary. For instance, Fuller et al. suggested that only employees who identify with the organization are committed to it. Allen and Meyer (1990) added that if a person feels that other organizations provide similar work experiences, their current work experiences may have little or no impact on organizational commitment, especially on affective commitment. Mir, Mir, and Mosca (2002) suggested that organizations should utilize human resources practices that may lead to identification because only through identification employees will become committed to their jobs.

The present study builds on the literature reviewed above and it is proposed that employees may exhibit different levels of psychological connection to the organization. These levels of connection are characterized by a level of identification (or lack thereof). An employee

is said to be identified with an organization when she/he believes that his/her values and goals are similar to those of the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Kelman, 1958; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Employees who identify with the organization develop an emotional bond with it. As this bond becomes stronger, the employee internalizes organizational goals and values, and defines him/herself in terms of the organization. The researcher proposes that the different levels of organizational identification are related to the different types of organizational commitment proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990): affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

### **1.5.3 Organizational Commitment**

The study of organizational commitment is filled with contradictory perspectives. For instance, Kanter (1968) was the first to propose different dimensions of organizational commitment: a) continuance commitment—commitment based on opportunity cost of leaving the organization, b) cohesion commitment—person's attachment to the social relationships at work, and c) control commitment—attachment to norms and self-conceptions of system values. Porter, Steers, and Mowday (1974) disagreed with Kanter and stated that organizational commitment is a unidimensional construct. Oliver (1990) argued that organizational commitment is not a psychological construct but a group of behavioral patterns characterized by an engagement with an organization that restricts freedom of action. Regardless of the number of contradictory perspectives about organizational commitment found in the literature, the majority of researchers agree that commitment is a multidimensional psychological construct. Although a number of scholars have proposed conceptual models and measurement scales that reflect this approach, a unique theory of organizational commitment does not exist. The three-component model (TCM) developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) is, however, one of the most widely used.

The TCM includes three dimensions of organizational commitment; affective, continuance, and normative commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), affectively committed employees remain with the organization because they *want* to do so. These employees demonstrate psychological commitment to the organization “through feelings, such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, happiness, pleasure, and so on” (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993, p. 954).

Continuance commitment, on the other hand, is based on opportunity-cost ideas. For instance, an employee may know that by leaving her current job for a different one, she might be able to work fewer hours; however, she knows that she would lose her health insurance and

pension benefits. In other words, employees who develop continuance commitment basically remain with the organization because the costs of leaving are too high (e.g., loss of seniority, health insurance plan, pension benefits, etc.). Their commitment is based on membership instead of on an emotional attachment to the organization. Consequently, “even after the individual decides to continue with the organization, that individual may not put forth any extra effort for the benefit of the organization” (Chelladurai, 1999, p. 250).

Finally, employees whose primary link to the organization is through a sense of obligation (i.e., “the right thing to do”) remain with the organization because they *ought* to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Jaros et al. (1993) explained the concept of normative commitment by stating that,

...this form of commitment differs from affective commitment because it reflects a sense of duty, an obligation, or calling, to work in the organization, but not necessarily emotional attachment. It differs from continuance commitment because it does not necessarily fluctuate with personal calculation of inducements or sunk costs (p. 955).

In the conceptual model (see Figure 1.1), the TCM provides the underlying framework for the commitment construct. The decision to utilize this framework was based on two reasons. There is strong empirical evidence supporting the TCM (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) and it also seems more reasonable to think of organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct as the TCM captures common elements found throughout the commitment-related literature from the 1950s to 1980s (e.g., attachment to the organization, internalization of societal norms, perceived lack of opportunities, among others).

#### **1.5.4 Conceptual Model**

Figure 1.1 represents the complete conceptual model proposed by the researcher. It is proposed that employees’ perceptions of CSR influence organizational identification and organizational commitment. Before these perceptions form, however, awareness of the CSR initiatives implemented by the organization must exist. Awareness in the model functions as a boundary condition. That is, the proposed relationships will function when employees are aware of the CSR initiatives implemented by their employer organization.

Although employees’ awareness of CSR initiatives is as important as the initiatives themselves (Ellis, 2008), organizations tend to overlook the process of communicating their

efforts to be socially responsible (Walker & Kent, 2009). Awareness of CSR initiatives can lead to the development of a bilateral psychological contract between the employees and the organization (Ellis, 2008; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In this situation, employees expect the organization to have beneficent motives and be committed to a valued social cause (Ellis, 2008; Handelman, 2006; Turker, 2009). In return, employees will also support the cause even if it involves some sacrifice on their part (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

The aspects of employees' perceptions of CSR included in the conceptual model are motivation, fit, and investment. Motivation is related to the perceived organizational motives for engaging in CSR initiatives. Morgan and Hunt's (1994) trust-commitment theory, explains that a feeling of trust is generated from substantial communication and shared values between organizations and their stakeholders. These authors defined trust as a sense of confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity. Eventually, trust will influence the two parties' commitment level and their future behavior.

Trust is a very important element when it comes to stakeholders' perceptions of organizations' CSR initiatives. In relation to marketing, for example, Haley (1996) and Menon and Khan (2003) found that consumers are less likely to trust a company when they perceive that their CSR initiatives have ulterior motives, such as to generate publicity. Similarly, trust is negatively impacted if employees perceive an organization's motivation for engaging in CSR deviates from merely socially responsible behavior. Employees may become antipathetic towards an organization's CSR if they suspect ulterior motives (e.g., increase sales, generate publicity). Consequently, the organization can lose its credibility and severely damage its reputation.

Organizations seek to create and maintain a positive reputation because it helps them to attract and retain good employees (Turban & Greening, 1996). CSR initiatives can lead to a good reputation but they must be able to demonstrate beneficent motives behind these initiatives. One way of doing this is to engage in CSR initiatives congruent with the organizational mission statement and/or values (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997; Porter & Kramer, 2006). In other words, it is important that employees perceive a fit between the organization and its CSR efforts.

Several empirical studies (e.g., Basil & Herr, 2006; Lafferty, Goldsmith, & Hult, 2004; Walker & Kent, 2009) have proposed that the fit between an organization's socially responsible efforts and its operations has a positive impact on consumers' behavioral intentions. When

consumers perceive that CSR efforts are congruent with the organization's image and/or values, they are more likely to perceive those efforts as positive and truthful. Specifically, perceived fit strengthens the relationship that consumers have with an organization (Basil & Herr, 2006) and at the same time has a positive impact on consumers' purchase intentions (Walker & Kent, 2009).

In line with consumer research, Cohen and Greenfield (1997) found that employees are more likely to support organizational CSR initiatives perceived to be consistent with the organization's mission and values. For instance, Ben & Jerry's teaches employees the importance of environmentally sustainable business practices. Several of their CSR initiatives are oriented toward programs dealing with this issue. It is important therefore for organizations to engage in CSR initiatives that are consistent with their organizational image, mission, and organizational values (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997; Porter & Kramer, 2006). When stakeholders participate in CSR initiatives congruent with the organization's mission and values, they are more likely to perceive those initiatives as legitimate (i.e., truthful).

Perceived investment is the third and last aspect of employees' perceptions of CSR included in the conceptual model. The inclusion of this aspect is based on signaling theory. Signaling theory has been used in the management literature to suggest that through their recruitment tactics, organizations send potential employees information in the form of signals about the organizations' working conditions (e.g., Spence, 1974; Turban & Greening, 1996). Marketing researchers have also utilized this theory to explain how practitioners commonly use observable signals such as price, warranties, and promotions to communicate to consumers unobservable qualities of a product (e.g., quality and value) (Kirmani & Rao, 2000; Schlosser, White, & Lloyd, 2006). In line with the aforementioned theories and research, in this dissertation signaling theory is utilized to explain employees' perceptions of CSR investment. It is argued that through their CSR initiatives and the resources that organizations spend on them (i.e., money, time, effort), organizations send signals or cues that employees utilize to infer the motivation behind such initiatives, as well as how much organizations care about the social causes they support.

Figure 1.1 includes the proposition that organizational identification functions as a mediator between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational commitment. According to Bhattacharya et al. (2008), CSR initiatives can play an important role in organizational



attractiveness. Individuals may find a socially responsible organization more attractive than organizations that do not engage in such initiatives. Consequently, when individuals work for organizations that engage in CSR activities, they are more likely to find such organizations attractive and to identify with them.

The relationship between organizational identification and organizational commitment is based on the TCM. The researcher proposes a partially mediated model in which the level of identification with the organization impacts organizational commitment differently. For example, an employee may continue her/his employment with an organization because the costs of leaving are too high or because she/he does not want to lose the “rewards” she/he currently receives from the organization (e.g., competitive benefit packages, reasonable salary) (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This does not imply, however, that the employee is emotionally attached (i.e., identified) with the organization. The employee may decide to remain with the organization because the costs of leaving are too high even though her/his level of organizational identification is probably low.

Not all employees would remain with an organization because they perceive a lack of alternatives; others will remain with the organization because they may tend to behave in a way they think society expects them to. For instance, if an employee has a stable job with a reasonable salary and fringe benefits, she/he may believe that people important to her/him (e.g., family members and friends) expect her/him to stay with the organization, even if she/he is not happy with the job. Although this employee does not identify with the organization, she/he develops a sense of obligation toward it, and feels that staying with the organization is the right thing to do (i.e., normative commitment).

Lastly, the relationship between identification and affective commitment is characterized by an emotional bond between the employee and the organization (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000) that leads her/him to want to stay with the organization. Identification occurs “when an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another person or group” (Kelman, 1958, p. 53). Employees might perceive that their values are similar to the organizational values, so they want to maintain the relationship with the organization because the organization becomes a part of their identity. The relationship between identification and affective commitment is important because it has been suggested that

only through the development of a sentimental bond organizations will be able to reduce employees' turnover (Mir et al., 2002).

The model also depicts a moderating relationship between employees' attitudes toward CSR, perceptions of CSR, and organizational identification. Ben Cohen and Jerry Greenfield, founders of Ben & Jerry's, stated that employees can bring the same passion that is usually reserved for social initiatives carried out by non-profit organizations to social initiatives established by a for-profit workplace. For this to occur, however, employees must have a positive attitude toward CSR (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997). Although CSR may be effective by objective criteria, some employees might regard CSR as a waste of valuable organizational resources, such as time and money (Ellis, 2008). Therefore, only when employees have a positive attitude toward CSR initiatives their perceptions of CSR (i.e., motivation, fit, and investment) may become more positive. At the same time, if employees have a positive attitude toward CSR, their level of identification might increase when they perceive that the organization engages in socially responsible behavior.

The conceptual model proposed in this dissertation also includes two outcomes that derive from employees' organizational commitment: organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and personal social action (PSA). Although Meyer and Allen (1991) established clear differences between the three types of commitment, they also stated that employees may well experience all three types of commitment to some degree and each type of commitment may influence employees' behavior differently. For example, one employee may feel a strong desire and need to remain with the organization but little obligation to do so. Another employee may feel no desire to remain with the organization, but feel a strong need and obligation to remain with it. It has also been suggested that affectively committed employees are more likely to make recommendations about work practices (Luchack, 2003) than employees who are committed for calculative reasons (i.e., continuance commitment).

Affectively committed employees—and to a lesser extent normatively committed employees—tend to be more actively involved in their jobs than employees committed for calculative reasons (i.e., continuance commitment) (Snape & Redman, 2003). González and Guillén (2007) reported some evidence suggesting that affective commitment is a better predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) than the other two types of commitment. However, research findings related to commitment and OCBs are contradictory. For example,

Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) and Shore and Wayne (1993) found organizational commitment to be a predictor of this type of behavior whereas William and Anderson (1991) did not find evidence for such relationship.

Authors such as Wagner and Rush (2000) suggested that engagement in OCBs is not related to employees' organizational commitment but related to their age because older employees are more likely to engage in OCBs than their younger counterparts. They suggested that older employees have probably been socialized to value altruism toward the organization whereas younger employees had been socialized to value reciprocity. In this dissertation, however, organizational commitment is considered as the main antecedent for OCBs.

Commitment can also have a positive effect on employees' PSA. This construct was proposed by Ellis (2008) and she defines it as "individual actions supported by and/or sponsored by the organization to support a social good" (p. 29). Ellis explained that PSA includes such actions as charitable donations automatically deducted from employees' paychecks, paid time off to volunteer, and special activities in support of charitable organizations and/or issues of social interest (e.g., cancer awareness, environmental-related issues). In other words, social activities that are created to benefit a particular group of people or the community as a whole and which "under favorable circumstances, produce actual empowerment, impact or social change" (Horvath, 1999, p. 221). PSA does not include CSR activities undertaken by the organization that "have no employee involvement such as community grants, donations, corporate-wide sustainability programs, and in-kind donations" (Ellis, p. 29).

PSA differs from OCBs, because OCBs are commonly defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 3). Conversely, PSA is sponsored and promoted by the organization and employees are generally encouraged to participate in such activities (Ellis, 2008). Unlike OCBs, PSA does not improve the organization's efficiency and effectiveness and more importantly, they are targeted to external individuals or groups (Ellis). Furthermore, Ellis asserted that since PSA can be considered a specific type of prosocial behavior, it is easier to conceptualize and measure the types of behaviors constituting PSA.

For sake of parsimony and to avoid having to deal with highly correlated constructs, the relationships between organizational identification and organization commitment, and

employees' attitudes toward CSR and organizational commitment were not tested in this dissertation. Therefore, the “research model” varies from the conceptual model (see Figure 1.2). The relationships between the variables included in the research model are explained in Chapter 2.

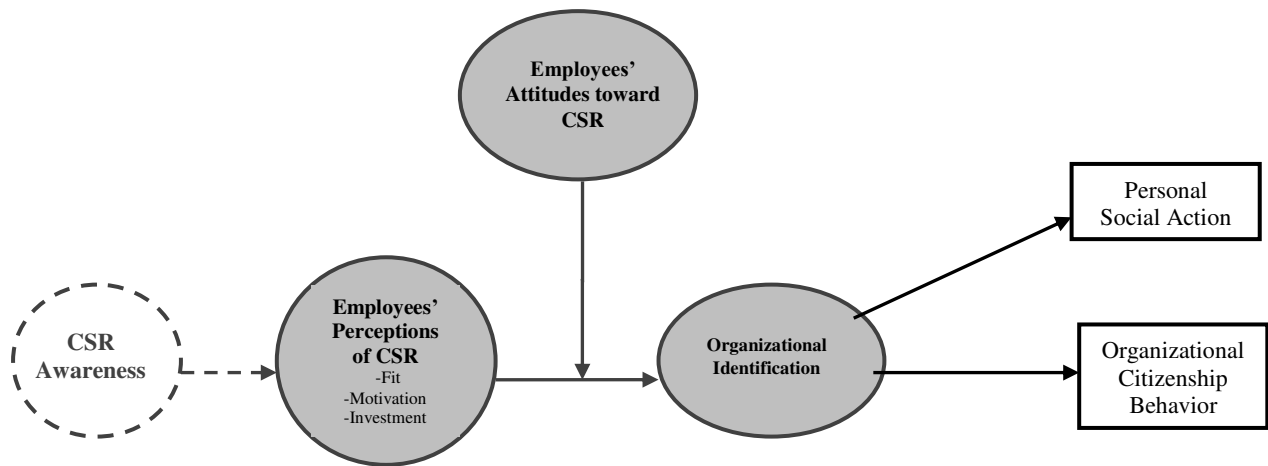


Figure 1.2 Research model.

## 1.6 Definition of Terms

The following are the definitions that will be integral part of the current study:

*Corporate Social Responsibility:* CSR are those initiatives in which organizations engage in “that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

*Awareness:* Awareness is the knowledge created through interaction between an employee and its organizational environment—in simple terms awareness means knowing what is going on in the organization (Endsley 1995; Gutwin & Greenberg, 2001).

*Perceptions:* Perceptions are defined as “the process by which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1987, p. 174).

*Attitude:* “An attitude refers to an organization of several beliefs around a specific object or situation” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 18). According to Rokeach, an attitude is different from a

value because the latter “refers to a single belief of a very specific kind” (p. 18) that is concerned with a desirable mode of behavior.

*Organizational Identification:* Ashforth and Mael (1989) defined organizational identification as “a specific form of social identification where the individual defines him or herself in terms of their membership in a particular organization” (p. 105).

*Organizational Commitment:* the current dissertation defines organizational commitment in terms of the three dimensions proposed by the TCM (Allen & Meyer, 1991):

*Affective commitment* is defined as employees’ positive emotional attachment to the organization. Employees who are affectively committed with the organization remain with the organization because they *want to*.

*Continuance Commitment* happens when employees commit to the organization because they perceive that the costs of leaving are too high (Becker, 1960). Consequently, employees remain in the organization because they feel they *have to*.

*Normative Commitment* is related to employees’ feeling of obligation. This obligation can derive from various sources such as employees’ moral values and/or family or peer pressure. In this instance, employees remain with the organization because they feel they *ought to*.

*Organizational Citizenship Behaviors:* “Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ et al., 2006, p. 3).

*Personal Social Action:* “Individual actions supported by and/or sponsored by the organization to support a social good” (Ellis, 2008, p. 29).

### **1.7 Overview of Chapters**

The dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents a review of literature pertaining to CSR, organizational identification, employees’ attitudes, and other relevant theories. The hypotheses will also be introduced in this chapter. Chapter 3 addresses the research methods and prospective data analysis for the proposed study. The results of the statistical analyses are included in Chapter 4. Finally, Chapter 5 includes a detailed discussion of the results

## CHAPTER 2

### 2.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The current chapter provides an extensive review of literature that supports the study of the variables presented in the proposed model (see Figure 1.1). The chapter begins with a review addressing the origin and importance of CSR, the progression of the study of this construct as well as an explanation of the three aspects considered in this dissertation as part of employees' perceptions of CSR: motivation, fit, and investment. The literature review continues with an overview of the organizational identification literature. Given that social identity theory is the underlying theory of the organizational identification framework, this theory is also examined. Also, employees' attitudes and the theories that underlined this construct are further reviewed. The chapter ends with the development of the research hypotheses that were tested in the present research.

### 2.2 Business Social Responsibility —Premise of CSR

Although the idea of CSR dates back to the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when business tycoons such as Carnegie and Ford began donating funds to different social causes (Sheth & Babiak, 2009), one of the current questions that I am—as a researcher—usually faced with is, “What is the premise of CSR?” This question is usually followed by other questions such as, “Why is CSR important? Does it really matter? Do you really think that organizations have a responsibility to give back to society?” All of these are valid questions and after reading articles, websites, book chapters, and other information about CSR, I am now able to understand why people ask such questions. Although more and more organizations are engaged in CSR initiatives every day, people are still suspicious of their intentions. Because the CSR literature is not concise nor clear, different CSR premises have been suggested. Consequently, there is not a unique answer to all the questions mentioned above.

Prior to the 1960s, the concept of business ethics was mainly left for theologians' discussions (Lantos, 2001). During the 1960s, however, the importance of business ethics rose to unprecedented levels (Lantos). The media and society in general started demanding that organizations establish more environmentally and socially friendly policies. By the mid-1970s, the concept of business ethics started being taught in university classrooms and since then, the importance of business ethical behavior has only been increased (Lantos), which has generated even more interest in the topic of social responsibility.

Although the concept of business ethics became popular in the 1960s, the idea that businesses have social responsibilities has been argued since the 1950s (Lantos, 2001). Davis (1973) suggested that as American businesses gained size and power, the public also increased their expectations regarding proper corporate socially responsible behaviors. In fact, being socially responsible became part of the ethics-related speeches heard during the 1960s (Lantos). As different social movements arose (e.g., feminist movement, advocates for minorities and people with disabilities), groups that represented respective social movements proclaimed that ethical social behavior goes beyond giving money to charity or simply complying with the development of an affirmative action plan. Social behavior, they argued, also includes caring for the causes that the organizations support and represent (Lantos).

According to Lantos (2001), organizations tend to align their charitable donations to the interests of their consumers and employees. For example, the majority of consumers and employees of AVON are female; therefore, their charitable giving and other CSR initiatives are related to issues perceived as important to women (e.g., breast cancer). Lens crafters donate eye exams and glasses to consumers and employees who cannot afford them, while Ben & Jerry's encourage employees to volunteer for causes that the company supports as well as for causes that the employees are interested in (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997; Lantos, 2001). Lantos suggested that paid time to volunteer programs became more popular in the 1990s after organizations realized that their workforce could help them meet social expectations and social demands. Organizations such as Tom's of Main, Ben & Jerry's, and the Body Shop have even included volunteering as part of their performance evaluation (Lantos). Ben & Jerry's performance evaluation, for example, is divided in two parts: 1) work performance and 2) social performance (Cohen & Greenfield). Ben & Jerry's founders believe that by evaluating employees in their efforts to help different social causes, the organization communicates to the employees' that the organization values their efforts.

Although ethics seem to be the driving "force" behind CSR, there are a great number of theories addressing the social responsibility of businesses. Garriga and Melé (2004) classified those theories in four main groups: instrumental theories, political theories, integrative theories, and ethical theories. The instrumental theories include those theories purporting that the main responsibility of organizations is to create wealth. Instrumental theorists usually cite Friedman (1962) as the seminal piece of literature that supports their argument. Specifically, Friedman is

cited as the one who said that the only social responsibility of businesses is to make as much money as they can for their shareholders. However, instrumental theorists tend to overlook (Carroll, 1998) an important part of Friedman's assertion that says there should be a balance between the interests of the businesses and those of society (Friedman). This statement clearly shows that Friedman believed that although it is important for organizations to generate as much money as possible for their shareholders, it is also important for organizations to remember there should be a balance between the interests of the organization and the interests of society.

The main premise of political theories posits that an organization's social responsibility is linked to their power. As an organization becomes more powerful, the greater responsibility it has to society. Cohen and Greenfield (1997) maintain that throughout world history, different powerful entities have been accountable for the well-being of society. Since businesses are now considered powerful entities, they also should be held accountable. The following is a statement taken from Cohen and Greenfield's book:

If we go back in time and look at societal structures around the world, we see that religion was originally the most powerful entity. Then power shifted, and nation-states became the institutions of greatest power. Today the most powerful force is business. This is a very new phenomenon, occurring only within our own lifetime. You can see this reality echoed in major cities around the world: the oldest big, ornate building is a religious institution. The second-oldest big, ornate building is a governmental institution. And today, the biggest, most ornate buildings being built are commercial (p. 45).

Similar to Cohen and Greenfield, Roberto C. Goizueta, the late CEO of Coca-Cola (as cited in Carroll, 1998), suggested that as businesses gain more power, they also gain more responsibility toward society. According to Carroll (1998), Goizueta said that,

businesses have a civil responsibility to help toward the development of their most important asset: its people; they should set an example of how people, society in general, and the environment should be treated; and because few organizations are as powerful as businesses they should use this power to give back to society (Carroll, p. 5).

In view of the fact that organizations are perceived as powerful institutions, the general public expects them to contribute towards the well-being of society (Burke & Logsdon, 1996). One way that organizations try to comply with such expectations is integrating CSR initiatives into their operations.



Integrative theories basically suggest that businesses ought to integrate social demands into their daily operations because organizations depend on society for their continuity and growth. The general public evaluates organizations' public affairs based on the degree to which organizational policies reflect the values, objectives, aspirations, and reservations of society as a whole (Tuzzolino & Armandi, 1981). According to integrative theories, in order to be considered completely successful in the eyes of the general public, organizations must make social responsibility a central part of their business affairs (Tuzzolino & Armandi). The basic idea here is that businesses and society are not separate entities, they are interwoven; therefore, society expects businesses to behave in a responsible way that benefit both (Wood, 1991).

Ethical theories suggest that organizations have an ethical obligation to be socially responsible (Garriga & Melé, 2004). Society considers businesses as social institutions that have a lot of power to provide economic gain and because of this immense power, there is an ethical imperative for them to contribute to different social issues. Although organizations are not responsible for solving social problems, they are responsible for helping to solve social issues related to their business operations, actions, and interests (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997; Porter & Kramer, 2002; 2006; Wood, 1991). Wood, however, asserted that this principle leaves enough room for managers to interpret what social issues are relevant to the organization and how they should be addressed. Whatever the issues they address, businesses are always expected to use their power in an ethical, legal, and responsible manner (Davis, 1973; Wood, 1991).

In sum, originally, ethics seemed to be the acceptable explanation of why organizations needed to behave responsibly. As time progressed and work and writings pertaining to CSR increased, different theories addressing the social responsibility of businesses emerged. Although those theories may seem different at first glance, when taking a closer look common themes emerge. For example, there seems to be an agreement that businesses are powerful entities, and with this power comes great responsibility. Historically religion and government were considered the most powerful entities and they were held responsible for aiding society. The expectation is no different for businesses. Davis (1973) called this the "Iron Law of Responsibility," which basically states that those organizations that do not use power in ways that society considers responsible will tend to lose it. So, it is imperative for organizations to attend to society's needs and demands by integrating CSR initiatives into their operations. There is a belief among CSR supporters and CSR researchers that CSR initiatives bring benefits not

only to society but also to the organizations themselves because, when organizations engage in CSR, society rewards them with loyalty (c.f., Peterson, 2004; Bhattacharya et al. 2008), patronage (c.f., Walker & Kent, 2009), and/or other behaviors that benefit the organization.

### **2.3 CSR—Definition and Conceptualization**

Within the CSR-related literature the concept, while discussed, still remains vague and ambiguous (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). A unique definition and conceptualization of CSR do not exist. Carroll (1999) explained that CSR has been conceptualized differently throughout the decades. Carroll examined the different definitions and conceptualizations of CSR starting with Howard R. Bowen's 1953 definition and finishing with his own definition and conceptualization of the construct. Bowen's referred to CSR as "the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of objectives and values of our society" (Bowen, 1953 as cited in Carroll, 1999, p. 6). Researchers that followed Bowen also considered CSR to be the decisions and actions of businessmen beyond of their financial interests (e.g., Davis, 1973), and those actions of the organization that extend beyond economic and legal obligations (e.g., McGuire, 1963). Specifically, Davis defined CSR as "the firms consideration of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm...to accomplish social benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks" (p. 694). McGuire also stated that beyond their economic and legal obligations organizations must pay attention to the welfare of the community, education, and the happiness of their employees. In other words, organizations are responsible for their stakeholder well-being. Although McGuire mentioned education as an important issue that organizations must pay attention to, CSR initiatives currently focus on a number of other issues such as the environment, fight against different illnesses and diseases (e.g., Alzheimer, cancer, heart disease), political issues, among others. Although CSR can be defined in different ways and CSR initiatives can cover an array of issues, there is some agreement that CSR refers to the obligations of the organization to society (Smith, 2003) beyond economic interests and what is required by law (McGuire, 1963; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

The ambiguity of CSR is not only related to its definition but also to its conceptualization (Valor, 2005). Several terms has been utilized to represent CSR, for example, corporate citizenship, corporate social performance, corporate philanthropy, corporate responsiveness,

cause-related marketing, and corporate social profitability. All of these terms are linked to organizations' social responsibility; however, there are still some conceptual and perhaps semantic differences among them. For instance, Wood (1991) defined corporate social performance (CSP) as "a business organization's configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationships" (p. 693). According to Wood's definition, CSP encompasses all principles and processes related to social responsibility. One important distinction between CSP and CSR is that CSP focuses on observable outcomes (Wood, 1991) related to an organization's social responsible efforts. A term outlined in Wood's definition is corporate responsiveness. Although corporate responsiveness is sometimes used to define CSR (c.f., Ackerman, 1975), Wood argued that corporate responsiveness is an action-related dimension of CSP instead. In other words, corporate responsiveness is the actions (i.e., responses) that organizations' implement as a response to different social pressures.

One of the seminal pieces within the CSR literature is the article written by Carroll (1979). Carroll attempted to define and conceptualize the CSR construct by utilizing "patterns of agreement" among CSR researchers from the early 1950s to the late 1970s. Carroll approach was a little different from previous work because he suggested that CSR is a multidimensional construct, hence, his definition reflects this view. He explained that "the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time" (Carroll, p. 500). Consequently, Carroll's proposed CSR model included four dimensions: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities. Although each of these dimensions comprise different responsibilities that organizations have to society, they are not mutually exclusive and do not pretend to portray a continuum (Carroll). According to Carroll, the economic dimension is based on an organization's responsibility to produce goods and services that satisfy society demands. The legal dimension is related to the organization's responsibility to follow the laws and regulations under which businesses are expected to operate. Ethical responsibilities are those that are not outlined in the laws, but there exists a societal expectation that organizations should behave in an ethical manner. Different initiatives outlining the ethical responsibilities of organizations are found in the business literature. For example, the triple bottom line strategy (Savitz, 2006) proposes that when making decisions at the organizational level, managers should consider the impact that

such decisions will have on the three pillars of the organization: people, planet, and profit. A similar initiative is the Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI) developed by the United Nations. The purpose of PRI is to set a group of principles to which organizations can voluntarily adhere to. All the principles are related to environmental, social, and corporate governance issues (Principles for responsible investment, n.d.).

The discretionary dimension comprises those actions that are considered “voluntary and the decision to assume them is guided only by a business’s desire to engage in social roles not mandated, not required by law, and not even generally expected of business in an ethical sense” (Carroll, 1979, p. 500). Discretionary activities may involve charitable donations, inner city educational or sport related programs, employees’ volunteer hours, among others. Although authors such as Zahra and LaTour (1987) found supporting evidence for the multidimensionality of CSR, the model developed by Carroll (1979) is not accepted by all researchers. The majority of researchers seem to agree that CSR are those actions outlined in Carroll’s discretionary responsibility dimension, which generally are regarded as corporate philanthropy (Wood, 1991).

The term corporate philanthropy emerged at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Carroll, 1979) and it is believed to be one of the main components of CSR (Sims, 2003). Although corporate philanthropy may or may not be directly associated with an organization’s business strategy, authors such as McAllister and Ferrell (2002) suggested that organizations should always use corporate philanthropy as a synergistic tool “to address key stakeholders’ interests and to achieve both organizational and social benefit” (p. 690). In other words, philanthropy should be used in a strategic way. The concept of strategic philanthropy became more popular at the beginning of the 2000s. Similar to McAllister and Ferrell, Carroll (2001) explained that strategic philanthropy is basically composed of the organization’s socially responsible initiatives that are put in practice because they are believed to be good for business as well as good for society. Tokarski (1999) added that strategic philanthropy can be defined as “the process by which contributions are targeted to serve direct business interests while also servicing beneficiary organizations” (p. 34). In essence, authors supporting the idea of strategic philanthropy believe that all philanthropic efforts must be related to the organization’s business strategy.

The idea of strategic philanthropy has also expanded to the overall concept of CSR. From the 1950s to the 1980s, organizations selected to support non-profits not associated with their

line of business with the purpose of keeping separate the organizations' interests and the community interests (Extejt, 2004). In recent years, however, CSR researchers have suggested that organizations should engage in strategic CSR (e.g., Porter & Kramer, 2002; 2006) where organizations' business goals and objectives are congruent with the goals and objectives of the non-profit organizations or charities they support. Organizations that implement strategic CSR activities believe that their reputation will be more favorable in the eyes of key stakeholders. Also, they believe that when in a crisis stakeholders will remember the CSR initiatives that were implemented and they will give the organization the benefit of the doubt (Lantos, 2001). Although authors such as Carroll (2001), Lantos, and Porter and Kramer have argued that organizations should always implement strategic CSR, some organizations are reluctant to publicize their socially responsible initiatives for fear of being perceived as dishonest (Lantos). However, organizations must find a way to communicate their CSR initiatives to those relevant stakeholder groups so that their CSR efforts can have a positive impact on stakeholders' perceptions.

#### **2.4 Corporate Social Responsibility—Other Theoretical Approaches**

It was previously mentioned that Garriga and Melé (2004) identified four different groups of theories commonly used to explain the social responsibility of organizations: instrumental, political, integrative, and ethical theories. There are also two other well-known theories used to explain the foundation of CSR: 1) Stakeholder theory and 2) Institutional theory, which are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Although the concept of stakeholder management has been present in the literature since the 1970s, it was not until 1984 when Freeman introduced the most commonly used theory of stakeholder management (Garriga & Melé, 2004). According to Freeman (1984), the main idea behind stakeholder theory is the answer to the question, "To whom should businesses be responsible?" Freeman asserted that all organizations have different groups of interest (internal and external) that impact their business-related decisions. Those groups are called stakeholders. Freeman defined stakeholders as "those groups who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose" (p. 49). Hence, organizations have a variety of stakeholder groups such as employees, consumers, and the government.

There exists a reciprocal relationship between organizations and stakeholders. As long as organizations use their power in an ethical, legal, and responsible manner (Davis, 1973; Wood,

1991), stakeholders will reciprocate with actions that benefit the organization. For example, customers will buy the organization's products and/or services, employees will become loyal and give their best effort (i.e., performance), and the government might give the organization subsidies or other type of aid. However, when stakeholders perceive that organizations are abusing their power and their actions are not perceived as legitimate, they will more likely refuse to provide their share of reciprocal benefits (Wood, 1991). An example of this situation was the British Petroleum's (BP) oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010. Different groups of stakeholders (e.g., employees, government, environmental activists, and consumers) perceived that BP abused their power and did not behave ethically, responsibly, and within the realm of the law when addressing the oil disaster. Thus, stakeholders stopped providing reciprocal benefits to BP. Consumers boycotted their gas stations, employees attacked the company in the media, and the government imposed millions of dollars in fines. In sum, stakeholder theory provides the basis for researchers to understand how society grants and takes away legitimacy from organizations (Wood, 1991).

Although organizational strategies should capture different groups of stakeholders concurrently (Garriga & Melé, 2004), authors such as Agle and colleagues (Agle, Mitchell, & Sonnenfeld, 1999; Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997) suggested that generally this is not the case. The reason is that there are three main attributes that affect the degree to which managers prioritize stakeholders' needs and interests. These attributes are: power, legitimacy, and urgency (Agle et al.). Power is related to the degree of influence that one party has over another one (e.g., shareholders' views can influence CEOs' decisions). Legitimacy is a "generalized assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions" (Agle et al., 1999, p. 508). Stakeholder demands are considered urgent when those demands are important and they must be addressed in a timely fashion (i.e., a delayed response is unacceptable). When managers perceive that stakeholders' demands only possess one of those attributes, then the response of the organization will most likely be delayed. However, when managers perceive that stakeholders' demands possess all of those attributes, those demands become a priority. For example, it was said on the news that BP delayed its response to fix the oil leak in the Gulf of Mexico. It was not until the media and the government pressured BP that the company developed a more efficient communication system as well as better ways to deal with the catastrophe. It can then be argued that for BP the demands of

two stakeholder groups (i.e., media and government) were more urgent, powerful, and legitimate than those of the other stakeholder groups (e.g., local community and employees). In addition, BP also conducted several CSR initiatives during and after the leak was controlled; however, the demand for socially responsible behaviors varies among stakeholders because all stakeholders perceive and evaluate CSR differently. Perceptions of CSR generally depend on the individual's personal values, beliefs, and interests, as well as their understanding of the organization and its CSR efforts (Wood, 1991). Thus, some stakeholders may have demanded that BP develop initiatives related to the environment, while others might have asked for initiatives directed toward helping local families and businesses.

The second theory commonly linked to CSR is institutional theory. Although there are several views of institutional theory, one of the most commonly used approaches is the “class of elements” view (Scott, 1987). This view proposes that organizations tend to become similar to their external environment. They adapt and respond to external pressures in order to maintain legitimacy and stability (Greening & Gray, 1994) and while they do this, the external environment rewards them with greater legitimacy, resources, and power (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Greening & Gray). Institutional theory seems to fit well when talking about CSR. Stakeholders (external and internal) seem to perceive more positively those organizations that adapt to social demands and that decide to address social issues relevant to their operations. In the eyes of different stakeholder groups, organizations that engage in CSR are considered “good (corporate) citizens” who are concerned about not only making profit but about the well-being of society (Carroll, 1998).

## **2.5 CSR and Employees' Perceptions**

Although research studies related to CSR have increased within the past decade (Kim et al., 2010), the potential impact of CSR initiatives on employees' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors has been largely neglected (Kim et al.). Therefore, my dissertation attempted to fill this gap. Understanding how CSR impacts employees' perceptions can be of great benefit to an organization because CSR can be used as a tactical tool to develop a more stable and loyal work force.

According to Rupp et al. (2006), employees' perceptions of CSR trigger emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral responses that are beneficial to the organization. For instance, Hickman, Lawrence, and Ward (2005) suggested that when employees perceive that their

employer organization supports social causes that they (i.e., the employees) are involved with, they may tend to be motivated to improve their work performance. This idea was supported by employees' participating in Bhattacharya et al.'s (2008) qualitative study; participants noted that when their employer supported social causes they care about, they felt more inspired to work harder and felt more satisfied with their jobs. Although the articles written by Bhattacharya et al., Hickman et al., and Rupp et al. proposed or found a positive relationship between CSR and employees' perceptions, more research is needed to identify the factors that affect those perceptions as well as the outcomes that such perceptions generate. In this dissertation, employees' perceptions of CSR included three specific factors: motivation, fit, and investment. These three factors are discussed below. First, however, it is important to address the boundary condition specified in the model, that is, awareness.

### *2.5.1 CSR Awareness*

One common theme that seems to emerge in the literature related to CSR and stakeholders' perceptions (e.g., consumers and employees) is the lack of awareness that stakeholders have about CSR initiatives. Chong (2009) explained that individuals who are aware of an organization's CSR initiatives tend to show more positive associations with the organization, greater identification, and commitment. Awareness of CSR initiatives has also been linked to employees' increased morale and performance (Burke & Logsdon, 1996; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Hence, CSR initiatives can have a positive impact on employees' perceptions. In order for this to occur, however, employees must be aware of the CSR initiatives (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

Awareness of CSR initiatives can lead to the development of a bilateral psychological contract between the employees and the organization (Ellis, 2008; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Psychological contracts are "made up of employees' beliefs about the reciprocal obligations between them and their organization" (Guest, 1998, p. 226). In this situation, employees expect the organization to have beneficent motives and be committed to a valued social cause (Ellis, 2008; Handelman, 2006; Turker, 2009). In return, employees will also support the cause even if it involves some sacrifice on their part (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

According to Szykman, Bloom, and Levy (1997), awareness is negatively related to stakeholders' skepticism. By increasing awareness about CSR initiatives, the level of skepticism about such initiatives decreases (Szykman et al.; Bronn & Vrioni, 2001). Thus, it is important for



organizations to use tools designed to increase stakeholders' awareness of their CSR efforts. The impact of CSR perceptions on employees' identification also depends on their knowledge (i.e., awareness) of the organizations' CSR initiatives. Authors such as Guest (1998) and Morrison and Robinson (1997) argued that because employees in recent times do not enjoy the so-called "traditional" job security and steady rewards in return for hard work, identification with and loyalty to one's employer no longer exist. Therefore, employers need to look for non-traditional tools for incentivizing employees' loyalty. CSR initiatives can be used as a non-traditional tool for gaining employees' identification and commitment. When organizations engage in CSR initiatives, they send their employees a signal that says: we care about this community, your community, hence, we care about you. If these initiatives are perceived as sincere, employees may be more likely to become identified and committed to their employer organization.

#### *2.5.2 Perceived CSR Motivation*

In the proposed model, motivation is related to the perceived organizational motives for engaging in CSR initiatives. Morgan and Hunt's (1994) trust-commitment theory explains that a feeling of trust is generated from substantial communication and shared values between organizations and their stakeholders. These authors define trust as a sense of confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity. Thus, if employees trust in the reliability and integrity of CSR initiatives, such initiatives can have a positive influence on employees' perceptions regarding an organization's motives for engaging in CSR initiatives. If employees perceive CSR initiatives as sincere efforts to help society, such perceptions can evolve into feelings of sympathy toward the organization which can later develop into sentiments of identification with the organization and an attitude of commitment to their work. The situation might change if employees perceive such initiatives to be insincere.

Employees and other stakeholders do question the reasons behind organizations' CSR initiatives, and are generally skeptical of the sincerity of organizations' CSR motives (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004). Bhattacharya and Sen considered that two factors impacting consumers CSR skepticism are the organization's reputation and the fit between the organization and the social cause that it supports. For example, the authors explained that consumers are generally skeptical when organizations are involved in CSR initiatives that are closely related to their line of business (e.g., Phillip's Morris and its campaign against childhood smoking). Thus, trust plays an important role in stakeholders' perceptions of CSR initiatives. When CSR

initiatives are perceived as sincere efforts for supporting a social cause, employees are more likely to believe that the motivation for engaging in CSR is the actual message that is being conveyed (e.g., we care about the community) (Goldsmith, Lafferty, & Newell, 2000). Employees may become antipathetic towards organizations' CSR activities if they suspect ulterior motives behind such initiatives (e.g., increase sales, generate publicity) (Haley, 1996; Menon & Khan, 2003). If employees and other stakeholders perceive ulterior motives behind an organization's CSR initiatives, the organization can lose its credibility and severely damage its reputation.

In their 1998 study, Webb and Mohr found that consumers tend to be skeptical about organizations' CSR initiatives because, in general, they are perceived as self-serving. The authors attributed the findings to the increase in CSR initiatives (especially philanthropy) right after an organization faces a crisis that leads to negative media coverage. In fact, authors such as Werbel and Wortman (2000) found that corporate philanthropy increases in small but significant ways following negative media coverage. This situation can lead not only consumers but also employees to perceive that the reason behind the CSR initiatives is self-serving (i.e., buying their way out of a negative situation) (Bronn & Vrioni, 2001). Thus, organizations need to consider how stakeholders perceive their CSR initiatives. According to Bronn and Vrioni, factors such as honesty, commitment to a cause, and long term involvement with non-profit organizations help to overcome stakeholders' skepticism and increase trust toward the organization and its CSR initiatives.

Organizations seek to create and maintain a positive reputation because it helps them to attract and retain good employees (Turban & Greening, 1996). Although there is evidence suggesting that CSR initiatives can lead to create a good organizational reputation (c.f. Walker & Kent, 2009), organizations must be able to demonstrate beneficent motives behind their CSR efforts. One way of doing this is to engage in CSR initiatives congruent with the organizational mission statement and/or organizational values (Cohen & Greenfield, 1997; Porter & Kramer, 2006). In other words, it is important that employees perceive a fit between the organization and its CSR efforts.

### *2.5.3 Perceived CSR Fit*

In this dissertation, fit is related to the perceived congruence between the organization and its CSR initiatives. Authors such as Burke and Logsdon (1996) and Porter and Kramer

(2002; 2006), among others, suggested that CSR initiatives should be strategically related to the organization's mission, values, and objectives. That is, CSR initiatives that an organization is engaged in should be congruent (i.e., should fit) with the organization's values, mission, and objectives. Social issues that are highly related to the organization's mission, values, and objectives should receive priority. This concept is also known as centrality (Burke & Logsdon, 1996). CSR initiatives that have high centrality (i.e., high fit) are considered to yield major benefits to the organization than those initiatives that have low centrality (Burke & Logsdon).

Basil and Herr (2003; 2006) conducted various empirical studies and found that when consumers perceive there is a fit between the organization and the charities that it supports, their attitude toward the organization is more positive than when they perceive that there is not a good fit. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) also found that when stakeholders perceive a high fit between the organization and the social causes that it supports, they are more likely to develop a sentimental bond with the organization. Likewise, studies conducted by Lafferty et al. (2004) and Walker and Kent (2009) found that when consumers perceive that CSR efforts are congruent with the organization's image, they are more likely to perceive those efforts as positive and sincere. Specifically, perceived fit strengthens the relationship that consumers have with an organization (Basil & Herr, 2006) and at the same time has a positive impact on consumers' behavior (e.g., patronage intentions) (Walker & Kent).

Similar to the consumer research mentioned above, Cohen and Greenfield (1997) found that employees are more likely to support organizational CSR initiatives perceived to be consistent with the organization's mission and values. For instance, Ben & Jerry's teaches their employees the importance of environmentally sustainable business practices. Thus, several of their CSR initiatives are oriented toward programs dealing with this issue. It is important for organizations to engage in CSR initiatives that have high centrality (Burke & Logsdon, 1996). That is, their CSR initiatives should be congruent with their mission, values, and objectives. When stakeholders perceive CSR initiatives to be congruent with the organization's mission, values, and objectives, they are more likely to perceive those initiatives as legitimate (i.e., sincere).

#### *2.5.4 Perceived CSR Investment*

In the proposed model investment is related to the perceived amount of resources (i.e., effort, time, and money) that an organization spends in its CSR initiatives. To my knowledge, the

construct perceived investment has not been used in the CSR literature. However, in other fields of study such as marketing (e.g., Kim, Smith, & James, 2010; Schlosser, White, & Lloyd, 2006), communication (e.g., Goei & Boster, 2005), and social psychology (e.g., Algoe, Haidt, & Gable, 2008) perceived investment has been used as an antecedent of gratitude. Tesser, Gatewood, and Driver (1968) explained that gratitude and perceived motivation are a function of the recipient's perceptions of the intention of the benefactor, the cost to the benefactor in providing the benefit, and the value of the benefit. Thus, gratitude and perceptions of motivation become more positive when investment is perceived to be greater.

As it was mentioned in Chapter 1, signaling theory is used to explain the construct of perceived investment. Signaling theory has been used in the management literature to suggest that through their recruitment tactics, organizations send potential employees information in the form of signals or cues about the organizations' working conditions (e.g., Spence, 1974; Turban & Greening, 1996). Marketing researchers also utilize this theory to explain how marketing practitioners commonly use observable signals such as price, warranties, and promotions to communicate to the consumers unobservable qualities of a product (e.g., quality and value) (Kirmani & Rao, 2000; Schlosser, White, & Lloyd, 2006). Signals can be defined as the actions that convey an organization's abilities and intentions (Porter, 1980). The amount of resources (e.g., time and money) organizations spend in their socially responsible initiatives conveys signals to employees that may represent how much the organization really cares about such initiatives. In other words, through the amount of time and money that the organization spends on CSR, the organization is sending signals to its employees about the importance of CSR to the organization. At the same time those signals would impact employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives including the organization's motivation for engaging in CSR.

## **2.6 Relevant CSR Research**

Through a cursory search of management-related articles, one can find a vast number of theoretical, quantitative, and a few qualitative studies addressing CSR. The vast majority of those studies focus on environmental issues (Lockett, Moon, & Visser, 2006) and on the relationship between CSR and financial performance (e.g., Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985; Rowley & Berman, 2000; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003). In the marketing and sport management fields, CSR-related studies mainly focus on the impact of CSR or cause-related marketing on consumers' behavioral intentions (e.g., Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark, 2003; Walker &

Kent, 2009). Only a handful of studies, however, found across those three fields of study (i.e., management, marketing, and sport management) have examined the relationship between CSR and employees' identification and commitment.

The few articles dealing with the impact of CSR on employees' identification and commitment (e.g., Kim et al., 2010; Peterson, 2004; Turker, 2009) seem to have confused these two constructs. An example of this issue is the article written by Peterson (2004). The purpose of Peterson's work was to examine the impact of CSR on organizational commitment. However, when conceptualizing commitment, Peterson focused on the organizational identification literature. This could be justified if organizational commitment was a new construct and there was a lack of literature, but this is not the case. In fact, Doherty (1998) emphasized that organizational commitment is one of the most widely studied subjects in the management field. Since there is sufficient literature about the construct it is objectionable that Peterson (2004) used the identification literature to conceptualize commitment. Peterson noted that some of the limitations of his study lie in that CSR is considered a complex construct that is difficult to measure. However, his main limitation, I think, was his conceptualization of commitment and not his conceptualization of CSR.

The complexity of CSR is based on the numerous definitions and conceptualizations of the construct (Valor, 2005) as well as the fact that researchers do not always agree on how to operationalize the construct. This situation has led to a variety of CSR scales and to numerous contradictory results (Zahra & LaTour, 1987). An example of this issue is the studies dealing with the relationship between CSR and financial performance. The study conducted by Aupperle et al. (1985) did not find a relationship between those two constructs, however, recent studies such as those by Rowley and Berman (2000) and Walsh et al. (2003) did find a positive relationship. Other authors have argued that the problem of contradicting results lies in the validity of CSR scales. For example, Abbott and Monsen (1979) suggested that early scales did not measure CSR but measured corporate reputation instead. The authors suggested that before creating future scales a more uniform conceptualization of CSR is needed. Other authors have attempted to create an overall summative measure of CSR, however, a summative measure does not necessarily capture the importance of the pertinent dimensions (Zahra & LaTour). Because of this issue, authors seem to have decided to concentrate on one or two specific dimensions of CSR when examining this construct. For instance, Walker and Kent (2009) concentrated on the

impact of philanthropy (i.e., discretionary dimension of CSR) on consumers' patronage intentions. Other authors such as Kim et al. (2010) tried to create their own labels for different CSR-related dimensions and concepts.

Kim et al. (2010) hypothesized that CSR associations and CSR participation have a positive effect on employees' identification (see Figure 2.1). Their model, however, has several issues. First, Kim et al. criticized the fact that previous studies that examined CSR in relation to employees mainly focused on employees' perceptions of CSR activities. Thus they stated that they examined CSR associations instead. However, based on Brown and Dacin (1997), Kim et al. defined CSR associations as employees' "perceptions of the company identity about important societal matters" (p. 559) and added that CSR associations can also be defined as "corporate citizenship" and/or "perceived CSR" (p. 559). After reading this definition and analyzing their work, it became evident that Kim et al. did measure perceived CSR but they just used a different name for the same variable (i.e., CSR associations). In fact, the items they used to measure CSR associations were the items developed by Lichtenstein et al. (2004) which were originally used to measure perceived CSR.

Second, in their model Kim et al. (2010) proposed that CSR participation (i.e., employees' involvement in their organizations' sponsored CSR initiatives) has a positive influence on employees' identification. I would argue the contrary. I believe that it is more reasonable to think that employees' identification has an impact on their CSR participation. If an employee is not identified with the organization, she or he will probably be less likely to participate in CSR initiatives sponsored by the organization. Third, although Kim et al. (2010) correctly argued that commitment is a multidimensional construct, they only used three items to measure commitment and those items measured only one dimension (i.e., affective commitment). Finally, regardless of strong evidence suggesting that identity is a multidimensional construct (Heere & James, 2007) and the availability of multidimensional scales to measure identity (e.g., Heere & James), the authors considered it as unidimensional and utilized only three items from three different studies to assess identification. Based on the preceding, it is evident that the study by Kim et al. has several limitations that must be addressed in future empirical studies.

For the proposed research it is hypothesized that employees' perceptions of CSR (i.e., motivation, fit, and investment) initiatives have a positive impact on employees' identification.

However, the proposal differs from Kim’s et al.’s study in three main aspects: 1) Three aspects of employees’ perceptions of CSR are included in the model. One of those aspects has never been used to assess employees’ CSR perceptions (i.e., investment). 2) Employees’ attitudes are hypothesized to also influence employees’ perceptions of CSR initiatives and organizational identification. 3) Organizational identification is considered a multidimensional construct consequently, a multidimensional scale is used to assess it. The following section includes a review of the organizational identification literature.

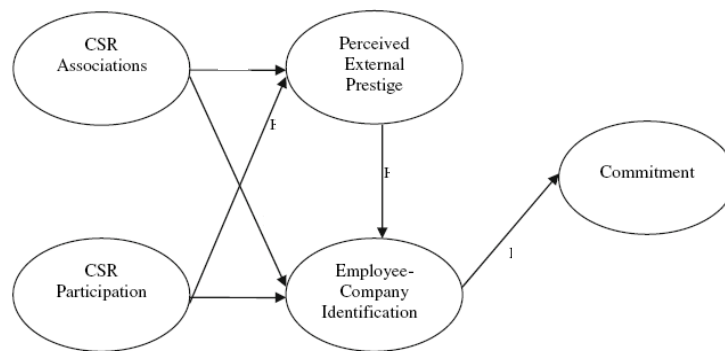


Figure 2.1 Kim et al.’s (2010) model

## 2.7 Organizational Identification

Maignan and Ferrell (2004) proposed a positive relationship between CSR and stakeholders identification. The authors suggested that acts of social responsibility can help to build stakeholder identification. At the same time, acts of irresponsibility and disregard for the needs of society will most likely create “disidentification” because in general stakeholders want to be connected to organizations who behave as good corporate citizens (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004). Thus, stakeholders tend to alienate those organizations who are not socially responsible (Einwiller, Fedorikhin, Johnson, & Kamins, 2006; Maignan & Ferrell).

The results from organizational identification research indicate that in order to satisfy their need for self-enhancement, individuals identify with organizations that have prestigious identities (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Prestige refers to organizational stakeholders’ perceptions that other people, whose opinions they value, believe the organization is well regarded (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). By associating themselves with prestigious organizations, stakeholders bask

in the reflected glory of the organization enhancing their sense of self worth (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Cialdiani, Borden, Throne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976).

According to Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), CSR initiatives constitute a key element in stakeholder identification because, an organization's involvement in social issues leads to positive organizational reputation and prestige which at the same time have a positive impact on consumers' identification (Bhattacharya & Sen) and employees' work attitudes (Peterson, 2004). Conversely, if organizational reputation is negative with respect to social performance, "social identity theory predicts a detrimental effect on the employees' work attitudes because employees' self-esteem may be adversely influenced by their association with their organization" (Peterson, p. 299). In other words, in order to protect their self-esteem and perceptions of self-worth, employees will not feel emotionally attached to the organization.

The relationship between CSR and identification is regarded as important because employees working for socially responsible organizations are more likely to identify with their employer organization, and at the same time they are more likely to support organizational goals and objectives related to CSR. Since socially responsible initiatives are visible organizational operations, they can help to generate feelings of affection and approval among the general public towards the organization and those feelings would tend to generate feelings of pride among employees (Maignan et al., 1999). That is, when employees notice their organization is considered a "good citizen" in the eyes of the general public, employees may develop feelings of pride for being an internal member of the organization.

Maignan and Ferrell (2004) suggested three approaches to marketing communications that can trigger stakeholder identification: 1) including CSR images in organizational communications, 2) enhancing stakeholders' affiliation to the organization based on a shared concern for a specific issue, and 3) stimulating stakeholder interactions around CSR. Based on Maignan and Ferrell, it can be argued that organizations can use CSR initiatives as a way of building employees' identification but they are more likely to succeed if those initiatives are communicated to them through different internal communications (i.e., memos, training, email, etc), are linked to employees' interests, and they (the employees) have the opportunity to be engaged in the initiatives (e.g., employee volunteer hours, donations through work, etc).

After introducing an explanation of the relationship between CSR and organizational identification and briefly explaining how organizations can utilize CSR as way of developing



employees' organizational identification, I will now continue to expand the literature review related to organizational identification. First I address the concept of identity, follow by a review of the many conceptualizations of organizational identification. Then, I continue to review social identity theory and explain how Ashford and Mael (1989) utilized it to explain organizational identification.

### *2.7.1 Identity*

Identity is the underlying construct in organizational identification. Identity is considered a latent, multi-dimensional construct that involves the understanding of one's similarities and differences with respect to others (Ashmore, Jussim, & Wilder, 2001). Identity allows individuals to make sense of themselves, of what they do, and of what they share and do not share with others (Brubaker & Cooper, 2000). The study of identity became prominent in the early 1970s due in great part to the work of Erikson (1974). Erikson's work mainly focused on identity formation. Erikson considered identity as a process located in the core of the individual (i.e., *personal* identity) and yet also in the core of the individual's sense of community (i.e., *social* identity). In essence, Erikson suggested that an identity is formed based on two main perceptions: individuals' own perception of who they are and their perception of where they belong (Gleason, 1983). Perceptions of where one belongs are normally influenced by the groups a person feels a part of; that is, these perceptions are influenced by a collective (social) identity (Tajfel, 1979). Given that individuals spend a significant amount of time at their workplace, their identity can be linked to their job/occupation. In view of the fact that organizations are nothing more than a group of individuals, organizations can be considered social groups from which individuals derive a sense of social identity. Organizations provide a "natural" environment for individuals to draw their identity based on their perceptions of who they are at work and the group (i.e., organization) to which they belong (Ashford & Mael, 1989).

### *2.7.2 Organizational Identification: One construct, many conceptualizations*

Organizational identification has an important place in the study of organizational behavior because researchers have found that employees' identification levels impact the effectiveness of the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). However, through the end of the 1980s, organizational identification was not fully understood and empirical studies seemed to have confused this construct with other related constructs such as organizational commitment (Ashforth & Mael). For instance, Foote (1951) described organizational identification as the

“appropriation of and commitment to a particular identity or series of identities” (p. 17). Foote also suggested that identification was the underlying reason for employees’ motivation. The author considered that only those employees who were identified with the organization would feel motivated to act on behalf of the organization by improving their work performance.

Other authors such as Brown (1969) suggested that organizational identification is a self-defining response to organizational involvement. According to Brown, involvement in an organization consists of four factors. The first factor is attraction to the organization. That is, employees may find an organization attractive when they perceive that their identity and the organization’s identity are similar (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2008). This factor is related to Kelman’s (1958; 1961) idea that attractiveness is an important precedent of organizational identification because in general, individuals tend to identify with organizations they perceive as attractive. The second factor outlined by Brown (1969) was consistency of organizational and an individual’s goals. This factor still remained important in later conceptualizations of organizational identification because authors such as Angle and Perry (1981) and O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested that employees are said to be identified with an organization when they accept and believe that their own values and goals are similar to those of the organization.

The third factor established by Brown (1969) was loyalty toward the organization. Loyalty is generally considered an outcome of identification. Only employees who are identified with the organization develop an emotional bond with it and that emotional connection has a positive impact on their loyalty towards the organization (Luchak, 2003). The fourth and last factor of identification suggested by Brown is reference of self through organizational membership. This last factor indicates that there is a moment in which an individual’s identification with the organization becomes explicit. Generally, when individuals perceive themselves as members of a group such perceived membership becomes explicit through the use of personal pronouns such as “we” (Stets & Burke, n.d.). For instance, an employee working for the Tampa Bay Rays and who identifies with the organization may tend to say “we” when referring to the Tampa Bay Rays.

Although Brown’s (1969) conceptualization of organizational identification included different factors that he considered part of the identification construct, researchers continued to view it as unidimensional. Moreover, researchers continued to attempt to draw differences

between organizational identification and a closely related construct: organizational commitment. While the number of studies dealing with organizational identification and organizational commitment is extensive, there is no agreement among scholars about the proceeding order of organizational commitment and identification, nor on the differences and similarities between them. For instance, based on Cheney's (1983) identification work, Cheney and Tompkins (1987) proposed that identification and commitment are two different but yet related constructs. They stated that an individual can be identified with an organization without being committed to it. The authors gave an example of a university professor who becomes a member of the university's union because she/he approves their actions but does not necessarily become involved in those actions. The professor identifies with the union but it is not committed to the union's "cause." Thus, Cheney and Tompkins proposed that an employee can be identified with an organization without being committed to it.

Other researchers such as Fuller, Barnett, Hester, and Relyea (2003) and Sass and Canary (1991) suggested that the result of an employee's identification is attitudinal and behavioral commitment. That is, the employee's relationship and loyalty to the organization is affected by her/his level of identification; for example, as the level of identification increases, the employee is more likely to become committed (Sass & Canary, 1991) to the organization and more likely to remain loyal (Fuller et al., 2003). Alternatively, Gautam, VanDick, and Wagner (2004) asserted that identification and commitment develop from very different sources. Identification, they said, develops "on the basis of perceived similarity and shared fate with the organization," whereas commitment is the result of "exchange-based factors, such as the material relationship between the individual and the organization" (p. 305). The authors added that committed employees are guided by their job/role descriptions and supervisors' control while those employees who are identified with the organization behave according to organizational goals and values because they have incorporated them as their own. In this sense, it can be argued that organizational commitment is not organization-specific but identification must be because each organization has specific goals and values (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). Identified individuals see themselves sharing a "destiny" with the organization, while, if committed—but not identified employees—find proper incentives and similar work experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1991), they will most likely transfer their commitment to a different, even competing organization that might be perceived to have similar goals and values (Mael & Ashforth).

It has been suggested that the continuous discussion about the relationship between organizational identification and commitment is due to the fact that there is a lack of empirical examples supporting the respective arguments (Cortez, 2008). It is also possible that another contributing reason for this ongoing discussion is the application of numerous scales to measure each construct. If researchers would use the same instruments in each study the results might tend to be congruent, yet this is not the case. Authors such as Sass and Canary (1991) utilized the organizational identification questionnaire (OIQ) and the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) with the purpose of measuring identification and commitment, respectively. The problem with this approach is that the OCQ has been found to be a measure of affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1991) and the items are very similar to those included in the OIQ. Furthermore, the vast majority of studies dealing with organizational commitment and identification have considered them unidimensional constructs ignoring the fact that a number of empirical studies have provided evidence supporting their multidimensionality. Although in the conceptual model proposed in this dissertation it is hypothesized that identification precedes commitment, for parsimony's sake, the researcher did not measure such relationship. Thus, such proposed relationship still needs to be empirically assessed in future studies.

Currently, the most widely accepted conceptualization of organizational identification is the conceptualization proposed by Ashforth and Mael (1989). The authors conceptualized organizational identification in terms of social identity theory (SIT). Thus, SIT and the Ashforth and Mael's conceptualization of organizational identity are discussed below.

### *2.7.3 Social Identity Theory*

Social identity theory is concerned with explaining the impact that group membership has on an individual's self concept and social behavior (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; 1985). To better understand the focus of this theory, it is important to explain the meaning of group and the concept of self. Stets and Burke (n.d.) defined a group as a "set of individuals who hold a common identification or view themselves as members of the same social category" (p. 3). Underwood, Bond, and Baer (2001) explained that the concept of self consists of an individual's ideas and feelings about him/herself. Therefore, "having a particular social identity means being at one with a certain group, being like the others in the group, and seeing things from the group's perspective" (Stets & Burke, p. 7). Basically, the premise of social identity theory is that different social categories (e.g., race, gender, political affiliation, sport team) provide a definition

of who one is (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). According to SIT, self-concept can be divided into social identity and personal identity (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Social identity is derived from an individual's knowledge of his/her membership in a social group together with the value and emotional significance that the individual attributes to that membership (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990). Personal identity, on the other hand, consists of a process located in the core of the individual that deals with questions about oneself (e.g., who am I) (Erikson, 1974). Due to the fact that organizations are considered social groups from which individuals may derive a sense of social identity, the main focus in this study is social identity rather than personal identity.

Tajfel and Turner (1979; 1985) suggested that individuals base their self-concept, and to an important extent their self-esteem, on their membership to different social groups. In order to explain this process, SIT draws from two sociocognitive processes: categorization and self-enhancement (Hogg et al., 1995). Categorization refers to the division of people on the basis of group membership (e.g., nationality, race, religion). Stets and Burke (n.d.) explained that in order to categorize themselves as members of a certain group individuals accentuate the perceived similarities between the self and other in-group members, and in contrast, accentuate the perceived differences between the self and out-group members. These authors added that "this accentuation occurs for all attitudes, beliefs and values, affective reactions, behavioral norms, styles of speech, and other properties that are believed to be correlated with the relevant intergroup categorization" (p. 3).

Self-enhancement is linked to the categorization process in such a way that in-group norms and stereotypes largely favor the in-group (Hogg et al., 1995). According to Hogg et al., Hogg and Abrams (1988), and Stets and Burke (n.d.), self-enhancement is usually achieved when group members make comparisons between the in-group and the relevant out-groups in ways that are more favorable to the in-group. For instance, when Foer (2004) interviewed members of the hooligan group of the soccer team Red Star in Serbia, group members stated that they actually protect the people who come to the stadium, that the hooligans from other teams are the ones who always look for fights and put the regular fans in danger. However, in Foer's investigation it was evident that Red Star's hooligans are one of the most violent hooligan groups in Serbia, and that they are the ones who usually look for fights after a soccer match. Foer added that other hooligan groups are actually sometimes even afraid of Red Star's hooligans. Although,

when faced with Foer's questions, Red Star's hooligans placed themselves under a much more positive light than they did other similar groups. This is an explicit example of self-enhancement.

#### *2.7.4 Social Identity Theory and Organizational Identification*

In 1989, Ashforth and Mael undertook the task of reconceptualizing organizational identification. After analyzing the concepts outlined by SIT, the authors decided that social identity theory could easily restore the coherence of organizational identification and its applications to organizational behavior. As it was previously mentioned, SIT posits that individuals tend to classify themselves into various social categories such as organizational membership, religious affiliation, gender, sport teams, among others (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Based on this assumption, Ashforth and Mael suggested that organizational identification "is a specific form of social identification where the individual defines him or herself in terms of their membership in a particular organization" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 105). The organizational identification framework developed by Ashforth and Mael has become widely accepted by researchers because, by defining organizational identification in relation to SIT, Ashforth and Mael introduced a clear and concise definition, and applicability for the construct.

In 1992 Mael and Ashforth utilized the framework they developed in 1989 and provided empirical evidence supporting it. They examined alumni identification to their alma mater using a sample of 297 participants. The results of the study supported the proposed organizational identification framework. Some specific findings in this study supported different notions that were outlined by earlier organizational identification research (e.g., Brown, 1969). For instance, the results suggested that organizational distinctiveness, organizational prestige, satisfaction with the organization, as well as sentimentality impact individuals' organizational identification. Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquil (1994) found that organizational prestige plays an important role in employees' organizational identity formation. Dutton et al. considered that employees' organizational identity is explicit when employees define themselves using the same characteristics or attributes that also define their employer organization. This is also similar to Brown's (1969) fourth factor of organizational identification.

Although the organizational identification conceptualization based on SIT is widely accepted (Riketta, 2005), the measure developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992) has been widely criticized. Authors such as Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), and Van Dick (2004) and his colleagues (Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004; 2005) argued that the measure developed by

Mael and Ashforth is not congruent with their own definition of organizational identification. Although Mael and Ashforth stated that identification is a cognitive process (i.e., the individual knows that he/she is part of an organization), their measure includes emotional questions. For example, the first item in their questionnaire asks the following: “When someone criticizes (name of school), it feels like a personal insult.” This item, according to Bergami and Bagozzi, and Van Dick et al., does not measure a cognitive process but an emotional attachment to the organization.

Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) suggested that organizational identification consists of both cognitive and emotional aspects. Van Dick (2004) and colleagues (Van Dick et al., 2004; 2005) defined organizational identification as a process in which cognition, emotion, and behavior are intertwined. According to Van Dick, during the process of identification the individual becomes aware that he/she is part of the organization, develops an emotional attachment to the organization, develops feelings of pride for being associated with the organization and lastly, the individual engage in acts (i.e., behavior) that represent his/her organizational membership. By acknowledging that organizational identification involves different aspects (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and behavioral) Bergami and Bagozzi and Van Dick and colleagues suggested that organizational identity is a multidimensional construct and the scales used to measure it should assess the different aspects/dimensions that are inherent in the overall concept of organizational identification.

### *2.7.5 Measuring Organizational Identification*

Mael and Ashforth’s (1992) organizational identification scale was originally developed as a measure of alumni’s identification with their alma mater. The authors stated that the items can be modified to measure other groups’ level of identification. However, great criticism about the scale emerged because the items seem to measure cognitive and emotional aspects of identity, even though the authors considered organizational identification a cognitive construct. Regardless of the criticisms, authors such as Wan-Huggins, Riordan, and Griffeth (1998) modified the scale in order to measure identification with other constituencies, such as identification with the employer organization.

Through the years, other measures of organizational identification emerged. One of the most popular scales—especially in the communication field—is the organizational identification questionnaire (OIQ) developed by Cheney (1983) and later validated by Cheney and Tompkins

(1987). The OIQ was originally composed of 30 items which Cheney (1983) drew from the existing literature. In their 1987 study, Cheney and Tompkins asked participants to provide comments about the items included in the OIQ. Based on those comments the researchers revised the items. In a subsequent study by the same authors, the internal structure of the scale was examined using exploratory factor analysis. The analysis supported seven factors that accounted for approximately 73% of the variance. After Cheney and Tompkins' (1987) study, the use of the OIQ became more popular. However, the studies relied primarily on tests of internal reliability and very rarely addressed the scale's validity (Miller, Allen, Casey, & Johnson, 2000).

Given that organizational identification is a type of social identity and identity is considered a latent, multi-dimensional construct (Ashmore et al., 2001), it seems more reasonable to think that organizational identification is also a multidimensional construct. Thus, in the proposed research a multidimensional approach to identification is utilized. Several authors have attempted to conceptualize and measure identification using a multidimensional approach (e.g., Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin, 2004; Dimmock, Grove, & Eklund, 2005; Heere & James, 2007; Leach, Van Zomeren, Zebel, Vliek, Pennekamp, Doosje, Ouwerkerk, & Spears, 2008; Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, Halevy, & Eidelson, 2008; Stoner, Perrewé, & Hofacker, 2011).

The conceptual work developed by Ashmore et al. (2004) was used by Heere and James (2007) and Stoner et al. (2011) to develop their multidimensional scales. According to Ashmore et al., identity consists of seven dimensions. The first dimension is self categorization and consists of an individual's own classification as a member of a specific social group. The second dimension is evaluation, which Ashmore et al. defined as the positive or negative attitude that individuals have toward a specific social group. Importance is the third dimension and as the word implies, it is concerned with the importance of the group to the sense of self. The fourth dimension is attachment/sense of interdependence. This dimension is concerned with the perceived merging of the self and a specific social group (Tyler & Blader, 2001). The next dimension is social embeddedness which is the "degree to which a particular collective identity is implicated in the person's everyday ongoing social relationships" (Ashmore et al., p. 92). Behavioral involvement is the sixth dimension. This dimension includes the actions that a person engages in that directly implicate a specific group identity (Ashmore et al.). In other words, behavioral involvement can be regarded as expressions (i.e., behavior) of a particular identity



(Heere & James, 2007). The seventh and last dimension is called content and meaning which refer to the internalized beliefs about the attributes and history of the social group (Stoner et al., 2011).

Ashmore et al.'s (2004) conceptualization of identity seems to be the most exhaustive because they propose multiple dimensions that have been outlined in the literature through the years. Two of the scales generated from the Ashmore et al.'s work are the scales developed by Heere and James (2007) and Stoner et al. (2011). The scale developed by Stoner et al. was called the Multi-Dimensional Identification Scale (MDIS). One of the purposes of their study was to develop a multidimensional scale that can be utilized to measure different group identities. The scale was tested using items that represented organizational, family, and social identities. The final scale was composed of the following four dimensions: affective-attachment, self-categorization, behavioral involvement, and goodness-of-fit. Although Stoner et al. based their scale on the work of Ashmore et al. their scale only captures four dimensions of identity. The authors did not provide a clear rationale for why they did not utilize all the dimensions proposed by Ashmore et al. Instead, the authors reviewed other identification-related literature and "created" other dimensions.

The number of participants included in each sample utilized in the Stoner et al.'s article (2011) was lower than 150 (except for social-based identity in the confirmatory factor analysis). According to Hinkin (1995), when conducting organizational research it is recommended that an item-to-response ratio ranges from 1:4 to 1:10. This indicates that four subjects per item is the minimum when conducting factor analysis, which Stoner et al. conducted (i.e., exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses). Therefore, based on Hinkin's suggestion, and Stoner et al.'s number of items (47), their number of participants should have been approximately 188 per sample. Their sample sizes seem to have had a negative impact on the model fit. For instance, in the confirmatory factor analysis, the root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA) for the organizational and social identification model was .09 and .08, respectively, which shows a poor fit. The CFI and TLI were not reported but the GFI for the organizational and social identification was not even .90. Therefore, based on theoretical and empirical support, it can be argued that the MDIS should be further examined.

On the contrary, the work of Heere and James (2007) can be considered more exhaustive and precise because the authors provided theoretical and statistical support for the proposed

dimensions of identity. Heere and James also utilized the framework developed by Ashmore et al. (2004) as a basis for their multidimensional identity scale. Following Churchill's (1979) suggested steps for scale development, Heere and James develop what they called the TEAM\*ID scale. The original name was chosen based on the identity that the authors were attempting to measure (i.e., team identification). The scale development included eight stages including the task of defining the constructs, developing the items, conducting a pilot study, assessing reliability and validity, modifying the scale based on the pilot study, and ultimately conducting the final assessment of the scale. The final scale was composed of the following six dimensions: public evaluation, private evaluation, interconnection to self, behavioral involvement, cognitive awareness, and sense of interdependence. The results of the study demonstrated that the TEAM\*ID scale was a reliable and valid measure of identity that could (and should) also be utilized to measure other group identities. Therefore, the authors argued that the TEAM\*ID scale could be named the GROUP\*ID scale if researchers can find support for measuring identity through this scale.

After the original 2007 work, several studies have utilized the GROUP\*ID scale. Those studies analyzed different group identities such as city, state, and university (e.g., Heere, James, & Yoshida, in press), national, regional, and religious identity (e.g., Alfaró-Barrantes, Hedlund, & Nguyen, 2010; Bogdanov & Heere, 2010). All of these empirical studies provide evidence suggesting that the GROUP\*ID scale is a reliable and valid measure that can be used to assess different group identities in different settings. Therefore, the GROUP\*ID scale is utilized in this dissertation to assess organizational identification.

## **2.8 Employees' Attitudes toward CSR**

It was previously mentioned that CSR initiatives are more effective when employees are aware of such initiatives and when they perceive them sincere and congruent with the organization's mission and values. Although CSR initiatives may be effective by objective criteria, some employees might regard such activities as a waste of valuable organizational resources (Ellis, 2008). Thus, employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives can be influenced by the attitude they have toward such initiatives. In the conceptual model (see Figure 1.1), employees' attitudes toward CSR are hypothesized to influence employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives as well as organizational identification. That is, if employees have a positive attitude toward CSR initiatives their perceptions of CSR (i.e., motivation, fit, and investment) may become more

positive. At the same time, if employees have a positive attitude toward CSR, their level of identification might increase when they perceive that the organization engages in socially responsible behavior. In this section, the literature pertaining to attitudes and their relationship to the constructs of interest is further reviewed.

### *2.8.1 Attitudes*

When individuals express their attitudes toward an object, they express passion, hatred, likes, and dislikes. It is believed that attitudes are enduring evaluative dispositions toward an object; that object may be a social group, actions, a particular topic (e.g., CSR), among others (Chisman, 1976; Mason, 2005). In other words, there exists a psychological tendency for human beings to construct their social world by evaluating all objects around them and the result of such evaluations are their attitudes (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986). According to Rokeach (1973), an attitude is different from a value because the latter “refers to a single belief of a very specific kind” (p. 18) that is concerned with a desirable mode of behavior. Early attitude-related literature suggested that attitudes were the main determinant of behavior (e.g., Dulany, 1968). As the study of attitudes progressed, researchers learned that the attitudes-behavior relationship is generally influenced by other factors such as organizational context (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Bagozzi, 1981).

One of the most popular approaches to the study of attitudes is based on the premise that attitudes can be characterized by three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral (e.g., Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Katz & Stotland, 1959; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). The cognitive component refers to the values and beliefs that an individual has toward an object (Chisman, 1976). The affective component is related to the emotional attachment that a person has toward an object (Mason, 2005). The behavioral component, like the word suggests, it is related to the person’s behavior or reaction toward an object (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). The following example illustrates the three components of attitudes: An employee may strongly believe that organizations should allocate a portion of their profits to socially responsible initiatives that contribute to the well-being of society (cognitive); the employee may get angry if he finds out that his employer organization has not established some sort of CSR initiatives (affective); on the other hand, if his employer organization carries out various CSR activities, he will be likely to volunteer for those activities (behavioral). This example may suggest that the three components of attitudes represent different factors; this is not the case however. Together the three

components are believed to comprise a global concept of attitudes and contrary to attitudes-related studies conducted in the late 1950s and early 1960s (e.g., Katz & Stotland), it is now widely accepted that it is difficult to empirically separate and assess each component (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). Hence, it is a common practice to adopt a unidimensional definition of attitudes as well as to utilize measures congruent with this approach (Bohner & Wanke; Eagly & Chaiken). In the proposed research, the unidimensional approach to the study and assessment of attitudes will be utilized. Attitudes are operationalized in this study as employees' evaluative dispositions toward CSR. The following section explains the common methods use for the measurement of attitudes.

### *2.8.2 Measuring Attitudes*

Measurement of attitudes involves perceptions of individuals' feelings about, or appraisal of an object (Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989). Attitudes are latent variables, that is, they cannot be observed directly, they must be inferred from observable responses derived from hypothetical scenarios or direct questions (Ajzen, 1988; Bohner & Wanke, 2002; Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). When social scientists speak of a quantitative empirical assessment of attitudes, they are speaking of assigning numbers to individuals' responses with the purpose of measuring their attitude toward an object (Bohner & Wanke). Social scientists, especially psychologists, have developed different techniques to measure attitudes. Those techniques generally fall into one of two categories: indirect and direct measures. When using indirect methods individuals are not aware of the attitudes that researchers are interested in assessing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). On the contrary, when using a direct assessment method, participants are asked to give a self-report of his or her attitude toward a specific object and no disguise methods are used to assess their attitude (Petty & Cacioppo). The following is additional explanation of the different indirect and direct assessment methods found in the literature.

### *2.8.3 Indirect Measures of Attitudes*

Dawes (1972) suggested that when individuals are aware that their attitudes are being measured, they tend to change their answers to the direct questions being answered. This tactic is called a social desirability effect, that is, individuals answer the questions in a way that they perceive as the socially desirable answer (Ajzen, 2002). This situation can have a negative impact on the assessment because the reported attitudes may or may not be representative of reality (Bohner & Wanke, 2002; Dawes, 1972). Through indirect assessment of attitudes,

individuals are unaware at the time of measurement that their attitudes are the subject of study (Bohner & Wanke). Because of this lack of awareness, some researchers consider this type of measurement unethical (Bohner & Wanke). However, supporters of this approach argue that only through indirect measures researchers are able to capture the true attitude that individuals have toward an object (Lemon, 1973).

Three of the most commonly used indirect measures of attitudes are disguised measures, projective techniques, and nonreactive measures. Disguised measures use systematic distortions of information as indicators of attitudes (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). For example, participants are presented with forced-choice questions such as:

Between 2000 and 2011, organizations' donations to charities have...(select one):

\_\_\_\_\_ increased by 25%

\_\_\_\_\_ increased by 75%

According to Bohner and Wanke (2002), when presented with such scenarios, individuals who have a positive attitude toward socially responsible behavior will be expected to underestimate the percentage, whereas individuals with a negative attitude toward CSR will be expected to overestimate the percentage and therefore select the higher choice.

The second type of indirect measure is projective techniques. These techniques “involve the presentation of unstructured or ambiguous material and the assessment of how individuals interpret these stimuli” (Bohner & Wanke, 2002, p. 35). One traditional example given when talking about projective techniques is the study conducted by Haire (1950, as cited in Bohner & Wanke). In this study, the researcher prepared two identical shopping lists and distributed them among 50 housewives. There was only one item different in each list. One list contained Maxwell House traditional coffee while the other list contained Nescafe instant coffee. Participants were asked to describe what they thought about the woman who created the list. Approximately 50% of the participants described the fictitious woman who added Nescafe to her list as lazy and unorganized. The researcher concluded that the responses of those women revealed negative attitudes toward instant coffee which was a novelty at that time (Bohner & Wanke).

Nonreactive measures are the third type of indirect measures of attitudes. Nonreactive measures refer to unobtrusive techniques used to gather attitude-related data (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). Examples of these measures include behavioral observation, physiological responses, and

archival records. Behavioral observation, like the words imply, consists of observing individuals' behaviors in different instances with the purpose of assessing their attitudes (Bohner & Wanke). However, as previously mentioned, attitudes are not the only determinant of behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Bagozzi, 1981). Physiological responses refer to the human body's natural reaction to attitudinal stimuli (Bohner & Wanke). For example, a person's physiological responses may impact their papillary dilatation, skin, amount of sweat, etc. Some researchers also believe that archival records such as socio economic status, gender, and ethnicity are indicators of attitudes (Bohner & Wanke).

#### *2.8.4 Direct Measures of Attitudes*

Supporters of direct measures of attitudes argue that the easiest way to find out individuals' attitudes toward an object is to ask directly (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). However, the answers obtained are more likely influenced by different factors such as the type of question, past experiences that the individuals have with the object of study, context, etc (Bohner & Wanke). For this reason, one of the main criticisms of direct measures is the reactive nature of the assessment and its influence on individuals' responses (Weick, 1985). In other words, the social desirability effect (Ajzen, 2002). Supporters of direct measures disagree with this view. They suggest that only through direct measures are social scientists able to study individuals' attitudes because the "truth" always resides in the participants' minds (Glick, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1986). They also believe direct measures are superior to indirect measures in terms of reliability and validity (Lemon, 1973; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Another advantage of direct measures of attitudes is the precision or sensitivity of the measures because direct measures are superior at "pinpointing relatively small differences in attitudes that may exist between subjects" (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, p. 22).

There are two types of commonly used direct measures of attitudes: single-item and multi-item scales. A single-item scale is considered the simplest method of attitude assessment because participants face only one question about their attitude toward an object (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). The main major disadvantage of single-item scales is that their reliability may be low or difficult to assess (Bohner & Wanke). Contrary to single-item scales, when utilizing multi-item scales higher reliability can be obtained. Moreover, multi-item scales allow researchers the ability to remove items that do not meet certain measurement criteria (Bohner &

Wanke). The most popular multi-item scales are: semantic differential (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum (1957), Thurstone (Thurstone, 1928), and Likert scales (Likert, 1932).

A semantic differential scale presents research participants with a list of bipolar adjective scales divided into seven response categories (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). In a semantic differential scale participants are asked to “rate an attitude object by marking one of the seven categories for each of the bipolar objective pairs. These ratings are later scored -3 to 3” (Bohner & Wanke, p. 26). This scale is considered very restrictive and also researchers such as Osgood et al. (1957) suggested that the adjectives used may not necessarily represent an attitude object in the mind of the participants. The following is an example of a CSR semantic differential scale:

Corporate social responsibility  
bad -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 good  
unnecessary -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 necessary

Another commonly used multi-item attitude scale is the Thurstone scale. This scale was developed by Thurstone (1929) and it was created with the purpose of approximating an interval level of measurement (i.e., method of equal-appearing intervals). The first step when constructing a Thurstone scale is to ask several judges about a number of attitude-related items which vary in direction and extremity. Each item is then assigned a scale value that corresponds to the median of category numbers it was assigned by the judges. Next, a number of items are selected from the pool. Those items should have been rated similarly by the judges. Last, participants will be asked to mark the items in the scale to which they agree with (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). Constructing a Thurstone scale is not an easy task because it requires a lot of resources such as time, effort, and money. Thus, researchers often rely on scales that are more practical, such as the Likert scale.

The Likert scale is the last multi-item attitude scale included in this review. This scale is one of the most popular among researchers, including researchers in the field of sport management. It is easier to construct than the Thurstone scale. The Likert scale is a summated ratings scale in which research participants indicate their level of disagreement/agreement with statements pertaining to an attitude object (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). The main disadvantage of this type of scale perhaps is that the items’ scores do not necessarily represent equal differences in evaluation of an attitude object (Bohner & Wanke). However, according to Bohner and Wanke, one of the advantages of Likert-type scales is that they generally achieve high internal

consistency, which means that item scores are highly correlated. In this dissertation, the researcher utilized a Likert-type scale to assess employees' attitudes toward CSR initiatives.

The decision to use a direct measure of attitude is based on the fact that direct measures are easier to administer and are more precise and reliable than indirect measures (Bohner & Wanke, 2002; Lemon, 1973). Further, a multi-item scale is preferred over a single item measure because evidence of reliability is more readily accessible with the former. Multi-item scales also allow the researcher the flexibility of eliminating items that do not meet acceptable measurement criteria (Bohner & Wanke). Finally, a Likert-type scale was chosen because as Bohner and Wanke explained, this type of scale allows the researcher to formulate specific items designed to assess a specific attitude (i.e., employees' attitudes toward CSR initiatives). The items that will be used to assess the construct of interest will be noted in chapter 3.

## **2.9 Summary of the Literature Review and Research Hypotheses**

The main purpose of the literature review provided above was to examine the literature pertaining to the model that was assessed in part through this dissertation. To this end, the author examined CSR-related literature, organizational identification, and attitudes. Based on the literature review and the research questions provided in Chapter 1, four different research hypotheses were developed. As a reminder, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification?
2. Do employees' attitudes influence the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification?

Despite the recent increase in CSR-related research, the potential impact of CSR on employees' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors has been largely neglected (Kim et al., 2010). Therefore, my dissertation attempted to fill this gap. Based on the review of literature provided above, the following research hypotheses were developed.

### *2.9.1 Employees' Perceptions of CSR and Organizational Identification*

The argument that employees' perceptions of CSR can impact their attitudes and behaviors is not new. Authors such as Rupp et al. (2006) suggested that employees' perceptions of CSR can trigger emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral responses that are beneficial to the organization. For instance, CSR initiatives can have a positive impact on employees' performance (Hickman et al., 2005), commitment (Peterson, 2004), satisfaction (Devinney,



2009), and identification (Kim et al, 2010). However to some extent, researchers have overlooked the indicators that comprised those employees' perceptions, or the concept of perceptions has been operationalized as a behavioral variable (e.g., Kim et al). In this study, it is hypothesized that perceptions of CSR motivation, fit, and investment comprise the overall employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives. These indicators were drawn from the literature as it is explained below.

First, the primary condition that needs to occur prior to examining the impact of employees' perceptions of CSR on organizational identification is awareness. According to Pickens (2009), awareness can play an important role in the perception process. Awareness of CSR initiatives can lead to the development of a bilateral psychological contract between the employees and the organization (Ellis, 2008; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), as well as a decrease in employees' skepticism about the organization's motivation for engaging in CSR. In this study, awareness functions as a boundary condition. That is, in order for the proposed relationships among the constructs to be supported (see Figure 1.1), employees must be aware of the CSR initiatives that their employer organization is engaged in.

As mentioned previously, the variable employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives is operationalized using three indicators: perceived CSR motivation, perceived CSR fit, and perceived CSR investment. In this dissertation, motivation is related to the perceived organizational motives for engaging in CSR initiatives. Based on trust-commitment theory (Morgan & Hunt, 1994), it is suggested that a feeling of trust toward the organization is generated when employees' perceive that substantial information is given to them about the CSR initiatives that the organization is engaged in. Because CSR efforts tend to increase following negative media exposure (Werbel & Wortman, 2000), employees may become skeptic about the sincerity of organizations' CSR motives (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004). Thus, organizations need to consider how their employees perceive their CSR efforts. When CSR initiatives are perceived as sincere efforts for supporting a social cause, employees are more likely to believe that the motivation for engaging in CSR initiatives is the actual message that is being conveyed (e.g., we care about the community) (Goldsmith et al., 2000) and such perception can trigger an emotional response in the form of identification.

Fit is related to the perceived congruency between the organization and its CSR initiatives. Authors such as Burke and Logsdon (1996) and Porter and Kramer (2002; 2006)

suggested that CSR initiatives should be strategically related to (i.e., should fit with) the organization's mission and objectives. Consumer behavior researchers found that consumers that perceive a fit between the organization and its CSR initiatives are more likely to have a positive attitude toward the organization, to develop a sentimental bond with the organization, and to perceive such initiatives as sincere (e.g., Basil & Herr, 2003; 2006; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Lafferty et al., 2004, Walker & Kent, 2009).

Investment is related to the perceived amount of resources (i.e., effort, time, and money) that an organization spends toward its CSR initiatives. Management and marketing researchers have used signaling theory to explain that through their recruitment tactics, marketing campaigns and other communication efforts the organization sends consumers and potential employees signals about the unobservable characteristics of the organization (e.g., organizational values). When organizations engage in socially responsible behaviors (i.e., CSR initiatives), employees attempt to attach a meaning to their employer behavior, they are attempting to make inferences about such behavior. They look at signals such as time, money, and effort that their employer invests towards CSR initiatives and make inferences about their employer's reasons for engaging in CSR. For instance, if employees perceive that the organization invests a low amount of resources in their CSR initiatives (e.g., not enough money and effort), they might perceive that the organization does not really care about the social causes it purports to support. On the contrary, if the amount of resources invested in CSR is perceived to be high, employees might then perceive that the organization does care about the social causes that it supports. From an external evaluation perspective, it is now common for organizations to be evaluated not only based on their financial performance but on their social performance as well (Sims, 2003). The amount of money spent on socially responsible initiatives is considered when assessing the social performance of organizations (Sims). Organizations that perform well financially and socially are considered to be socially valuable (Sims), and as Turban and Greening (1997) suggested: employees tend to find it gratifying to be part of an organization that is socially valuable. From the aforementioned, the following hypothesis is derived:

*Hypothesis 1: Employees' perceptions of CSR are positively related to organizational identification.*

### *2.9.2 Moderating Effect of Employees' Attitudes toward CSR*

As previously noted, attitudes are believed to be enduring evaluative dispositions toward an object (Chisman, 1976; Mason, 2005). Given that CSR initiatives can be considered an object, employees will more likely have evaluative dispositions (i.e., attitudes) toward such initiatives. Researchers (e.g., Bohner & Wanke, 2002; Eagly & Chaiken, 1998) interested in the study of attitudes suggested the possibility that individuals' attitudes introduce a cognitive bias when evaluating an object. This bias is related to their attitude (Ajzen, 2003; Bohner & Wanke). According to Pratkanis (1989), attitudes function as a cognitive schema that affects individuals' information processing. When processing information, individuals' schema will affect their expectations about an object, facilitate encoding of information, and will guide inferences that go beyond the information given about a particular object or situation (Bohner & Wanke). In other words, attitudes—in a form of a cognitive schema—will influence individuals' perceptions and interpretation of particular object or situation they face.

Pickens (2009) explained that individuals' perceptions are closely related to their attitudes. Perceptions are defined by Lindsay and Norman (1977 as cited by Pickens) as “the process by which organisms interpret and organize to produce a meaningful experience of the world” (p. 52). That is, when individuals are confronted with a situation or other stimuli, they interpret it into something that it is meaningful to them (Pickens). However, individuals' attitudes will shape how and to what strength individuals perceive and interpret the situation (Fazio & Williams, 1989). Consequently, individuals' perceptions and/or interpretations may be very different from reality (Pickens); this process is also known as selective perception.

In the organizational context, employees' attitudes toward CSR can influence their perceptions of CSR initiatives. For example, employees who tend to have a negative attitude toward CSR initiatives may tend to perceive them as “firm-serving” efforts rather than sincere efforts to help society. In terms of investment, employees may perceive CSR initiatives as a waste of time and money. Conversely, employees who have a positive attitude toward CSR may perceive their organization's socially responsible efforts to be altruistic efforts intended to help the local community. It is also possible they might think the organization does not invest sufficient resources on CSR programs. This example supports the argument made by researchers (e.g., Fazio & Williams, 1986; Raden, 1985) that individuals' attitudes and the strength of those attitudes impact variables such as perceptions and behavior differently. In terms of

organizational identification, it can be argued that the influence of employees' perceptions on identification might change according to their attitude (positive or negative) toward CSR initiatives. Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

*Hypothesis 2:* Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

### *2.9.3 Organizational Identification and Behavioral Outcomes.*

It was suggested by Ashforth and Mael (1989) that when employees identify strongly with their employer organization, their beliefs about the organization are likely to be positive. As a result, when individuals work for an organization that engages in CSR and they are identified with the organization, they might tend to believe that the organization produces valuable social outcomes (Dutton et al., 1994). Furthermore, employees who are identified with the organization behave according to the objectives, goals, and values of the organization because they have incorporated them as their own (Gautam et al., 2004). In his meta-analysis, Riketta (2005) identified several behavioral outcomes that are linked to organizational identification. For example, Lee (1971) found evidence suggesting that identified employees were generally more productive, more motivated and satisfied with their jobs and their turnover intentions were lower than those employees who were not identified. Similarly, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that organizational identification was negatively related to turnover intentions and positively related to length of service, and extra-role behaviors.

Empirical evidence supporting the relationship between organizational identification and extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCBs) has been contradictory. For instance, authors such as Meyer et al. (1993) and Shore and Wayne (1993) found organizational commitment to be a predictor of this type of behavior, whereas William and Anderson (1991) did not find any relationship at all. Wagner and Rush (2000) suggested that engagement in OCBs is not related to employees' organizational identification or commitment but related to their age. In this study, however, it is propose that when employees identify with the organization, they will behave in a way that is congruent with the organization's objectives (Barney & Stewart, 2000). Therefore, if the organization promotes a cooperative environment among its employees, employees will more likely be cooperative. If the organization engages in social responsible behavior and promotes

this type of behavior among the employees, then the employees will likely behave in the same manner. Therefore, the following hypotheses are derived:

*Hypothesis 3:* Organizational identification is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.

*Hypothesis 4:* Organizational identification is positively related to personal social action. The hypothesized relationships are depicted in Figure 2.2.

The preceding chapter presented a review of literature pertaining to CSR, organizational identification, employees' attitudes, and other relevant theories. Research hypotheses were developed from the literature review. In the next chapter, the researcher addresses the research methods and data analysis procedures.

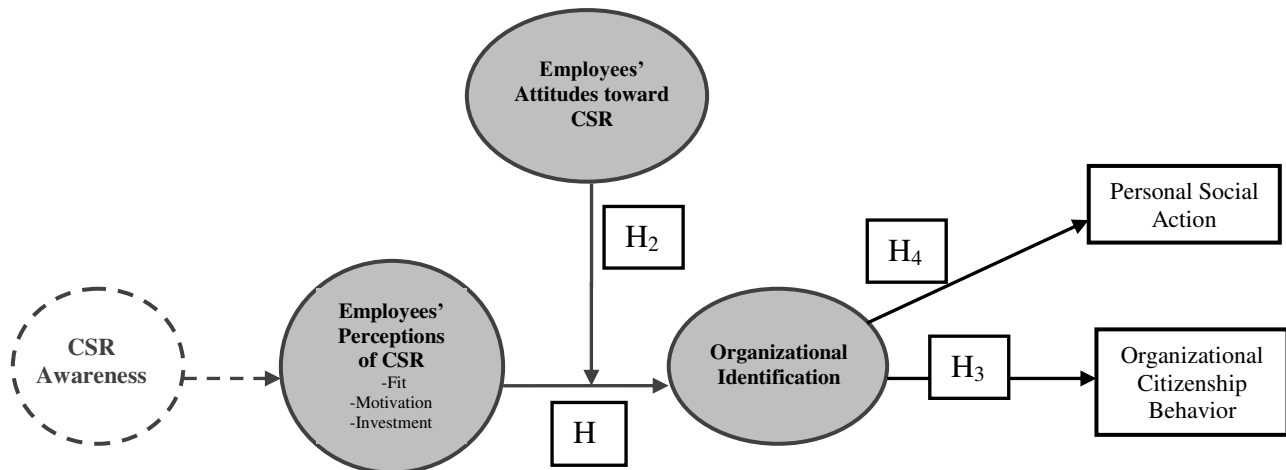


Figure 2.2 Hypothesized relationships.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **3.1 METHODS**

The purpose of the current study is twofold. First, to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives and organizational identification. Second, to assess the potential moderating role of employees' attitudes toward CSR in the aforementioned relationship. In this chapter the researcher outlines the methods and procedures that were utilized to answer the research questions and test the research hypotheses. The sections presented in this chapter are organized as follows: 1) research design, 2) sampling, 3) data collection procedures, 4) instrument, 5) data analysis.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

A research study can be characterized by the research objective, that is, what the researchers want to do (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). In this study, the primary purpose was to assess the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR motivation, fit, and investment, employees' attitudes toward CSR, and organizational identification. Therefore, this study can be characterized as explanatory research because the primary objective of the researcher was to use different theories to develop hypotheses that attempted to explain how a specific phenomenon operates (Johnson & Christensen).

In view of the fact that the researcher utilized the deductive component of the scientific method to draw hypotheses from different theories and utilized numeric data to test the hypotheses, this study can be considered a quantitative research study. When conducting a quantitative research study, the researcher must make prior decisions related to the research design (Babbie, 2007). Research design refers to the outline or "plan" that the researcher will use to answer the research question(s) (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). One of the main questions in research design is, "how will participants be assigned to groups?" If random assignment to groups will be used and there is one control group, the study is considered an experiment. If there is no random assignment but at least one variable will be manipulated (i.e., there is a control group), the study can be classified as a quasi-experiment. When there is no random assignment or variable manipulation, the study is classified as non-experimental (Johnson & Christensen). Non-experimental research is suitable when the researcher does not have control over the independent variable (IV), thus manipulation cannot occur (Johnson & Christensen).

The proposed study can be classified as non-experimental because neither random assignment of participants nor variable manipulation occurred.

As part of the research design it is also important to discuss how participants were selected. In this study, participants were selected based on convenience. Data was gathered through a self-administered questionnaire. A questionnaire is useful when the researcher is interested in gathering information about thoughts, feelings, attitudes, values, beliefs, perceptions, personality, behavioral intentions, among others (Johnson & Christensen, 2004), because the “truth” resides in the participants minds and it cannot be accessed by a third objective source (Glick et al., 1986). In this study, the researcher attempted to collect information about employees’ perceptions of CSR as well as employees’ attitudes toward CSR initiatives. Therefore, the use of a questionnaire in this study was deemed appropriate.

### **3.3 Sampling**

The samples utilized in this study were drawn based on convenience. Convenience sampling is commonly used when the researcher does not have access to all the population, and decides to include individuals that volunteer to participate in the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). There are different techniques used to draw a convenient sample. In this study, the researcher utilized purposive sampling. According to Johnson and Christensen, when utilizing purposive sampling the researcher specifies a priori the characteristics of the population of interest, and “then tries to locate individuals who have those characteristics” (Johnson & Christensen, p. 215). In this study, the population of interest is composed of individuals working for organizations that engage in CSR initiatives. Thus, the researcher identified different organizations that engage in CSR and then contacted them regarding the possibility of collecting data among their employees.

In order to test the research hypotheses the researcher collected two convenient samples. One sample was composed of individuals working for different sport organizations that engage in CSR, while the second sample included individuals working for non-sport organizations. The main purpose of collecting two samples was to test if the results vary depending on the type of organization that individuals work for. As noted in Chapter 1, CSR initiatives conducted by sport organizations seem to receive greater attention by the media and general public, consequently, CSR may be a stronger predictor of organizational identification among individuals working for sport organizations than individuals working in other industries. Furthermore, Hantrais (1995)

suggested that conducting such comparisons will establish empirical evidence supporting whether organizational phenomena can be explained by the same causes or if it varies by organizational context. Another characteristic of purposive sampling is that when the researcher obtains enough participants, she or he will not ask anyone else to participate (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). For this study, the researcher attempted to obtain a sample of at least 400 participants in total (McDonald & Ho, 2002; Weston & Gore, 2006). The researcher attempted to collect a sample of 200 employees from non-sport organizations (e.g., health care industry) and 200 employees from sport organizations (e.g., soccer teams).

### **3.4 Data Collection Procedures**

A questionnaire was used as the method for data collection. The researcher contacted by email or by phone different sport and non-sport organizations that have established CSR initiatives and asked for permission to collect data from employees. Examples of CSR initiatives include but are not limited to: donations, community well-being events such as walks/runs, fundraising events, employee “matching donation” programs, employee volunteer programs, and other community programs. Organizations could opt to complete an online version of the questionnaire (administered through Survey Monkey) or a paper version. The online and paper versions were identical. If the online version was preferred, the researcher emailed the survey’s link to a project coordinator within the organization and she/he was responsible for distributing the questionnaire to other employees. If the paper version was preferred, the researcher mailed copies of the questionnaire to the organization and the contact person was responsible for distributing it among the employees. Examples of the organizations that were included in the sample were Major League Soccer teams, Minor League Baseball teams, teams in a Women’s National Basketball League, Youth Soccer, healthcare organizations, bank branches, and retail companies.

In order to assure that the current research study complied with ethical research standards that are appropriate to protect the rights and welfare of the research participants, the researcher sought the approval of the Florida State’s University Institutional Review Board (IRB) (see Appendix A). According with the IRB approval notice, a consent form should be read by potential participants prior to the self-administration of the questionnaire (see Appendix B). As an incentive for participation in the study, participants had the opportunity to be entered into a raffle drawing of two \$50 Visa gift cards.



### 3.5 Instrument

The questionnaire that was utilized in this study was composed of different questions that attempted to measure the variables outlined in Figure 2.2. All items—except for the demographic-related questions—were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree. Demographic items were included for the purpose of gathering information about participants’ employer organization (i.e., industry category and location), participants’ tenure with the organization, annual income, gender, age, marital status, ethnicity, and education level. All demographic questions were included at the end of the questionnaire, while the questions related to the variables of interest were randomly distributed with the purpose of avoiding respondents fatigue bias (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The following is an explanation of the items included in the questionnaire.

#### 3.5.1 Awareness

Given that awareness was previously outlined as a boundary condition, the proposed relationships are only expected to function when employees are aware of their employer’s socially responsible behavior. Thus, one item was used to measure awareness (see Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1 Awareness item**

<i>Item</i>
1. As far as you know, your organization: (check all that apply): <input type="checkbox"/> Donates to charity. <input type="checkbox"/> Contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society. <input type="checkbox"/> Gives back to the community in which does business. <input type="checkbox"/> Has employee-volunteer programs. <input type="checkbox"/> Participates in other socially responsible initiatives such as (please specify) _____ <input type="checkbox"/> Does not participate in any socially responsible initiatives.

### *3.5.2 Perceived CSR Motivation*

Due to the fact that a unique CSR scale does not exist, the items that were used to measure employees' perceptions of CSR motivation, fit, and investment were adapted from items used in different studies. Items designed to measure employees' perceptions of CSR motivation were adapted from Speed and Thompson (2000) and Barone, Miyazaki, and Taylor (2000). Speed and Thompson developed and tested a model related to consumers' response to sponsorship; one of the variables was perceived sincerity. Perceived sincerity was assessed using four items ( $\alpha = .88$ , Speed & Thompson) (see Table 3.2). Those items were modified with the purpose of measuring perceived CSR motivation in the current study (see Table 3.3). The items modified from Speed and Thompson's study reflect altruistic motives for engaging in CSR.

Similar to Speed and Thompson (2000), Barone et al. (2000) measured consumers' response to marketing efforts. Specifically, Barone and colleagues conducted several studies in which they examined the impact of cause related marketing on consumer choice. Perceived motivation was also one of the main variables included in their study. The authors provided different scenarios in which organizational motivation for engaging in cause-related marketing was manipulated. For the current study, four items were derived and adapted from Barone et al.'s manipulation scenarios (see Table 3.2). These items represent the ulterior motives that an organization may have for engaging in CSR initiatives.

When looking closely at the items gathered from the work of Speed and Thompson (2000) and Barone et al. (2000), it seems that the items represent two different dimensions of employees' perceptions of CSR motivation. Specifically, the items adapted from Speed and Thompson seem to assess society-serving (i.e., altruistic) motives. That is, employees perceive that the organization is genuinely motivated to support a social cause without seeking any return (Webb & Mohr, 1998). The items adapted from Barone et al., however, seemed to assess firm-serving motives; that is, employees may perceive that through CSR initiatives their employer organization is simply pursuing its own self-interest (e.g., increase media exposure) (Webb & Mohr). The items included in this study have not been utilized before to assess these two dimensions per se. Therefore, this study presented an opportunity to test whether there were two dimensions of employees' perceptions of CSR motivation. All items utilized to assess employees' perceptions of CSR motivation were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree. The items are noted in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.2 Speed and Thompson’s (2000) perceived sincerity (original items)**

<i>Items</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The sport would benefit from this sponsorship at the grassroots level.</li> <li>2. The main reason the sponsor would be involved in the event is because the sponsor believes the event deserves support.</li> <li>3. This sponsor would be likely to have the best interests of the sport at heart.</li> <li>4. This sponsor would probably support the event even if it had a much lower profile.</li> </ol>

**Table 3.3 Perceived CSR motivation items**

<i>Adapted From</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Speed &amp; Thompson (2000)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The main reason my organization is involved in different social initiatives is because it cares about the well-being of society. <b>(MT1).</b></li> <li>2. The main reason that my organization donates to charity is because the organization believes in supporting the particular cause. <b>(MT2).</b></li> <li>3. My organization seems to have a genuine interest in the social causes that it supports. <b>(MT3).</b></li> <li>4. My organization seems to really care about the charities that it supports. <b>(MT4).</b></li> </ol>

**Table 3.3 (Cont.)**

<i>Adapted From</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Barone, Miyazaki, &amp; Taylor (2000)</b></p>	<p>5. My organization supports different social causes in order to increase revenue. <b>(MT5)</b>.</p> <p>6. My organization supports different charities in order to increase revenue. <b>(MT6)</b>.</p> <p>7. When my organization supports different social causes, my organization benefits more than the cause. <b>(MT7)</b>.</p> <p>8. When my organization supports different charities, my organization benefits more than the cause. <b>(MT8)</b>.</p>

*3.5.3 Perceived CSR Fit*

Speed and Thompson (2000) assessed the influence of different variables on consumers’ response to sponsorship. Two of the variables assessed were perceived sincerity (see previous section) and perceived sponsor-event fit. Perceived sponsor-event fit was assessed using five items ( $\alpha = .95$ , Speed & Thompson) (see Table 3.4). Those items were adapted with the purpose of assessing perceived fit in the current research study (see Table 3.5). Some of the original items (e.g., item 1) were modified to the extent that two items were developed. The reason for this is that the researcher was attempting to assess employees’ perceptions of fit between their employer organization and two different objects: charities and social causes. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree.

**Table 3.4 Speed and Thompson’s (2000) perceived sponsor-event fit (original items)**

<i>Items</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. There is a logical connection between the event and the sponsor.</li> <li>2. The image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar.</li> <li>3. The sponsor and the event fit together well.</li> <li>4. The company and the event stand for similar things.</li> <li>5. It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event.</li> </ol>

**Table 3.5 Perceived CSR fit items**

<i>Adapted From</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Speed &amp; Thompson (2000)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. There is a logical connection between my organization and the charities that it supports. <b>(FT1)</b>.</li> <li>2. There is a logical connection between my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in. <b>(FT2)</b>.</li> <li>3. The image of my organization and the image of the charities that it supports are similar. <b>(FT3)</b>.</li> <li>4. The image of my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in are similar. <b>(FT4)</b>.</li> <li>5. My organization and the charities it supports fit together well. <b>(FT5)</b>.</li> <li>6. My organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in fit together well. <b>(FT6)</b>.</li> </ol>

*3.5.4 Perceived CSR Investment*

Six items were utilized to measure perceived CSR investment. These items assessed the perception of employees' regarding an organization's investment in their CSR initiatives. The items were adapted from Schlosser et al. (2006). Schlosser and her colleagues measured the influence of web site design investments on consumers' trust and purchase intentions. The items specifically assessed consumers' perceptions of time, effort, and money (see Table 3.6). All items were found to be reliable ( $\alpha > .94$ ) (Schlosser et al., 2006). Similar to the perceived fit items, the original items were modified to the extent that two items were developed. The reason for this is that the researcher is attempting to assess employees' perceptions of fit between their employer organization and two different objects: charities and social causes. All perceived CSR investment items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree as end points (see Table 3.7).

**Table 3.6 Schlosser et al.'s (2006) original items**

<i>Items</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The amount of time invested into developing this website seems to be: “very little/a great deal.” (1 to 7).</li> <li>2. The amount of effort devoted to developing this website seems to be: “very little/a great deal.” (1 to 7).</li> <li>3. The amount of money invested into developing this website seems to be: “very little/a great deal.” (1 to 7).</li> </ol>

**Table 3.7 Perceived CSR investment items**

<i>Adapted From</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Schlosser, White, &amp; Lloyd (2006)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>effort</u> in different social initiatives. <b>(IN1)</b>.</li> <li>2. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>money</u> in different social initiatives. <b>(IN2)</b>.</li> <li>3. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>time</u> in different social initiatives. <b>(IN3)</b>.</li> <li>4. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>effort</u> in supporting different charities. <b>(IN4)</b>.</li> <li>5. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>money</u> in supporting different charities. <b>(IN5)</b>.</li> <li>6. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>time</u> in supporting different charities. <b>(IN6)</b>.</li> </ol>

### 3.5.5 Organizational Identification

Drawing from the identity work of Ashmore et al. (2004), Heere and James (2007) developed the GROUP\*ID scale with the purpose of measuring sport team identity. This scale was developed following the eight stages proposed by Churchill (1979). The process included a variety of steps starting with the utilization of theoretical foundations to develop different

dimensions of identity, to testing the validity and reliability of the constructs through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Although Heere and James' purpose was to develop a scale that can be used to measure different types of group identity, they only validated their scale as a measure of team identity within the context of intercollegiate athletics. In order to measure organizational identification, the items in Heere and James' scale were modified (see Table 3.5). The group identity scale developed by Heere and James (2007) is composed of the following dimensions:

- 1) Public Evaluation: an individual's perception of how others view a specific social group (Heere & James, 2007).
- 2) Private Evaluation: an individual's own evaluation of his/her identity in relation to his/her membership to a specific social group (Heere & James, 2007).
- 3) Interconnection to Self: the importance of the interconnection of one's self-image to the image of the group (Heere & James, 2007).
- 4) Behavioral Involvement: actions that a person engages in that directly implicate a specific group identity (Ashmore et al., 2004). In other words, behavioral involvement can be regarded as expressions (i.e., behavior) of a particular identity (Heere & James, 2007).
- 5) Cognitive Awareness: "the degree of knowledge a person has of a group that directly implicates his or her identity with the group as a whole" (Heere & James, 2007, p. 70).
- 6) Sense of Interdependence: perceived interdependence of the self and a specific social group (Tyler & Blader, 2001).

In the current study, all organizational identification items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree (see Table 3.8).

**Table 3.8 Organizational identification items (Adapted from Heere & James, 2007)**

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Public Evaluation</b> (PuE)</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Overall, my organization is viewed positively by others. <b>(PuE1).</b></li> <li>2. In general, others respect the organization I work for. <b>(PuE2).</b></li> <li>3. Overall, people hold a favorable opinion about my organization. <b>(PuE3).</b></li> </ol>
<p><b>Private Evaluation</b> (PriE)</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I feel good about being a member of my organization. <b>(PrE1).</b></li> <li>2. I am proud to think of myself as a member of my organization. <b>(PrE2).</b></li> <li>3. In general, I am glad to be a member of my organization. <b>(PrE3).</b></li> </ol>
<p><b>Interconnection to Self</b> (IntS)</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult. <b>(IntS1).</b></li> <li>2. When someone compliments my organization, it feels like a personal compliment. <b>(IntS2).</b></li> <li>3. My organization is an important reflection of who I am. <b>(IntS3).</b></li> <li>4. My organization's successes are my successes. <b>(IntS4).</b></li> <li>5. In general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self image.</li> </ol>



**Table 3.8 (Cont.)**

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Items</i>
<b>Behavioral Involvement (BI)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I am actively involved in different activities promoted by my organization. <b>(BI1)</b>.</li> <li>2. I participate in different activities at work with my coworkers. <b>(BI2)</b>.</li> <li>3. I participate in different activities outside work with my coworkers. <b>(BI3)</b>.</li> <li>4. I participate in different activities that my organization supports. <b>(BI4)</b>.</li> </ol>
<b>Cognitive Awareness (CogA)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I am familiar with the history of my organization. <b>(CogA1)</b>.</li> <li>2. I know the in and outs of my organization. <b>(CogA2)</b>.</li> <li>3. I have knowledge of the successes and failures of my organization. <b>(CogA3)</b>.</li> </ol>
<b>Sense of Interdependence (SeI)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What happens to my organization will have an impact on my own life. <b>(SeI1)</b>.</li> <li>2. What happens to my organization will influence what happens in my life. <b>(SeI2)</b>.</li> <li>3. My destiny is tied to the destiny of my organization. <b>(SeI3)</b>.</li> </ol>

### *3.5.6 Employees' Attitudes toward CSR*

In order to measure employees' attitudes toward CSR initiatives, five items were utilized. Two items were adapted from Tucker (2009) who examined the influence of CSR activities on employees' commitment. Although Tucker's conceptualization of commitment is controversial (see Chapter 2), he found that employees' attitude toward CSR played an important role in developing employees' organizational commitment. One item was also adapted from Mohr and Webb (2005). In their study Mohr and Webb examined the influence of CSR initiatives and price on consumer responses. Results of their study suggested that CSR affects purchase intentions

more strongly than price. As part of their study, Mohr and Webb assessed consumers' attitudes toward CSR. Therefore, one item utilized in their study was modified and included in the present research. Finally, two items were adapted from Roy and Graeff (2003). Roy and Graeff's study examined consumers' attitudes toward cause-related marketing activities in which professional teams and athletes participated. The results of their study suggested that consumers tend to have high expectations about professional teams and athletes' involvement within social causes in their local community. All of the items adapted from Tucker, Mohr and Webb, and Roy and Graeff's studies were selected because they seemed to capture the concept of employees' attitudes toward CSR as it is operationalized in the present study. The original items are included on table 3.9 while the modified version is included on table 3.10. All items utilized to assess employees' attitudes toward CSR were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale using strongly disagree and strongly agree as end points.

**Table 3.9 Employees' attitudes toward CSR items (original items)**

<i>Original Work</i>	<i>Items</i>
<b>Tucker (2009)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Being socially responsible is the most important thing a firm can do.</li> <li>2. Business has a social responsibility beyond making profit.</li> </ol>
<b>Mohr &amp; Webb (2005)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Companies should regularly make donations to charity.</li> </ol>
<b>Roy &amp; Graeff (2003)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. I am more likely to have a positive image of (local team) if I know that they support community charities or causes.</li> <li>5. (Businesses/professional athletes/the local team's organization/the local team's players) should support community charities and causes.</li> </ol>

**Table 3.10 Employees' attitudes toward CSR items**

<i>Adapted From</i>	<i>Items</i>
<b>Tucker (2009)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Being socially responsible is one of the most important things an organization can do. <b>(AT1)</b>.</li> <li>2. Organizations have a social responsibility beyond making profit. <b>(AT2)</b>.</li> </ol>
<b>Mohr &amp; Webb (2005)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Companies should make regular donations to charity. <b>(AT3)</b>.</li> </ol>
<b>Roy &amp; Graeff (2003)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. I am more likely to feel good about my organization if I know that it supports different social causes. <b>(AT4)</b>.</li> <li>5. Organizations should support different social causes by giving money, products, or other types of assistance. <b>(AT5)</b>.</li> </ol>

*3.5.7 Outcome Variables*

Two outcome variables were assessed in this study: OCBs and PSA. The items utilized to measure OCBs were adapted from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). Podsakoff and colleagues developed a unidimensional scale to assess OCBs composed of six items. The scale has been used in multiple studies in which adequate evidence supporting the psychometric properties of the scale was obtained (e.g., Hall, Zinko, Perryman, & Ferris, 2009). The original items are included in Table 3.11, while the modified version is included in Table 3.12. All items utilized to assess OCBs were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree. The items that were used to assess PSA, were adapted from Ellis (2008). Ellis developed the original PSA items herself, and in her study she reported evidence of reliability and validity. The original items developed by Ellis are included in Table 3.11 while the modified version is included in Table 3.12. All items utilized to assess PSA were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by frequently and infrequently.

**Table 3.11 OCBs and PSA (original items)**

<i>Original Work</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, &amp; Fetter (1990)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers.</li> <li>2. Helps others who have been absent.</li> <li>3. Helps others who have heavy workloads.</li> <li>4. Helps orient new people even though it is not required.</li> <li>5. Willingly helps others who have work related problems.</li> <li>6. Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.</li> </ol>
<p><b>Ellis (2008)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I donate to the United Way each year through work.</li> <li>2. I donate to a charity of my choice through work.</li> <li>3. I recycle at work.</li> <li>4. I have volunteered or plan to volunteer at a local school.</li> <li>5. I participate in [name of organization] employee sustainability network.</li> <li>6. I have volunteered or plan to volunteer through the [name of organization] volunteer program or other [name of organization]-sponsored volunteer events.</li> <li>7. I have volunteered or plan to volunteer through my employee group.</li> <li>8. I donate blood at company-sponsored blood drives.</li> <li>9. I have donated or plan to donate my expertise and skills to community organizations.</li> <li>10. What other community or social causes do you participate in through your jobs? _____.</li> </ol>

**Table 3.12 OCBs and PSA items**

<i>Adapted from</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, &amp; Fetter (1990)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I consider the impact of my actions on my coworkers. <b>(OCB1).</b></li> <li>2. I try to help others who have been absent from work. <b>(OCB2).</b></li> <li>3. I try to help others who have heavy workloads. <b>(OCB3).</b></li> <li>4. I often help to orient new people even though it is not required. <b>(OCB4).</b></li> <li>5. I willingly help others who have work related problems. <b>(OCB5).</b></li> <li>6. I am always willing to lend a helping hand to those around me. <b>(OCB6).</b></li> </ol>
<p><b>Ellis (2008)</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I donate to a charity of link to my employer organization. <b>(PSA1).</b></li> <li>2. I participate in social benefit events that my organization promotes. <b>(PSA2).</b></li> <li>3. I volunteer in social benefit events that my organization promotes. <b>(PSA3).</b></li> <li>4. I donate my expertise and skills to community organizations link to my employer organization. <b>(PSA4).</b></li> <li>5. What other community or social causes do you participate in through your job? _____. <b>(PSA5).</b></li> </ol>

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

Data analysis consists of different procedures in which the raw data is organized in a way that it can be analyzed in order to test the research hypotheses (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The nature of the data analysis depends on the research design (Johnson & Christensen). In order

to analyze the data utilize in the present study different quantitative procedures were utilized. Those procedures are specified below.

### *3.6.1 Preliminary Steps*

After the data collection was completed, the first step was to enter the data into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 18. At this stage, it was important for the researcher to decide how to handle missing data. According to Chin and Lee (1996), the researcher can establish a subjective threshold above which the data can be considered missing; a questionnaire containing missing data above the threshold can be discarded from the analysis. In this study, questionnaires that had more than 15% of the data missing were discarded, this was a subjective threshold established by the researcher. Demographic questions were not included in this threshold. For questionnaires that were retained but still contain missing data, the mean score for the specific item(s) were utilized to replace the missing values (Baker & Siryk, 1999). Replacing missing values with the mean has one important limitation, a failure to account for standard error (Little & Rubin, 1989). In addition, replacement with the mean could add bias to the data (Little & Rubin). Although there are other methods that can be used to replace missing values, those methods require normal data (Little & Rubin). Since the data utilized in this study was non-normal (as explained in the following paragraph), it was not feasible to use other methods. For these reasons, replacing missing values with the mean score was deemed appropriate.

The following procedure involved assessing the data for location and variability. Tests for univariate and multivariate normality were conducted. Univariate normality was assessed through tests of skewness and kurtosis in SPSS. According to Weston and Gore (2006), skewness is a measure of the symmetry of the data; that is, through the measure of skewness the researcher is able to identify if the data distribution follows a normal curve or if the distribution is asymmetrical. Skewness absolute values greater than 3.0 are considered problematic (Kline, 2005). Kurtosis, on the other hand, is a measure of the peak and tails of a data distribution (Weston & Gore). Kurtosis is basically an index of how far the peak is from the mean and how much of the distribution is located in the tails (Kline, 2005). Kurtosis values of 10 or greater are considered problematic (Kline). After conducting skewness and kurtosis tests, the researcher must decide if data transformation procedures are needed. If values for both measures are within the accepted conventional values (i.e., 3.0 and 10), data transformation is not necessary (Kline).

Next, Mardia's coefficient (Mardia, 1970) was calculated using PRELIS which is available through the Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) statistical software, version 8.80. This coefficient represents an accepted measure of multivariate normality. A significant p-value of Mardia's coefficient (i.e.,  $p < .05$ ) suggests non-normality. Therefore, when the assumption of multivariate normality is violated, the maximum likelihood parameter estimates with standard errors and a mean-adjusted chi-squared statistic (MLM) should be used to conduct factor and structural analyses (Satorra & Bentler, 2001). MLM is considered a more robust estimation method for non-normally distributed data (Satorra & Bentler).

### *3.6.2 Difference Test*

Two samples were collected. One sample was composed of individuals working for a sport organization; the second sample included individuals working for non-sport organizations. The main purpose of collecting two samples was to test if the results vary depending on the type of organization that individuals work for. Hence, the next step in the data analysis was to conduct mean difference tests. Mean difference tests were conducted by running a series of t-tests in SPSS. T-tests are conducted when the researcher is interested in assessing if the means of two groups are statistically different from each other (Field, 2005). In this study, t-tests were utilized to assess whether mean differences existed between the two samples that were collected (i.e., sport and non-sport). All variables specified in Figure 2.2 were tested for mean differences. If mean differences were found, subsequent analyses were run separately for the two samples. If mean differences were not significant, the samples were put together for the subsequent analyses.

### *3.6.3 Reliability and Validity*

Every time a research study is conducted, the researcher attempts to select measurement instruments that provide an accurate measure of the variables she or he is studying (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). In order to examine the accuracy of the instrument, researchers usually provide evidence of reliability and validity. Reliability is regarded as the consistency or stability of test scores, while validity refers to the accuracy of the inferences or interpretations that the researcher makes about the test scores (Johnson & Christensen). The researcher attempted to provide evidence of reliability and validity through the methods explained below.

When conducting factor analysis and structural equation modeling, one of the coefficients used to provide evidence of reliability is construct reliability. Construct reliability measures the degree to which two or more latent constructs are consistent in their measurement (Johnson &

Christensen, 2004). If the value of the coefficient exceeds .60, the scale can be considered reliable (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Construct reliability is generally calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Construct reliability} = \frac{(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2}{(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 + \sum \text{measurement error}}$$

Another indicator that was used to provide evidence of reliability is the average variance extracted (AVE) score for each construct. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), AVE values exceeding .50 are regarded as acceptable evidence of reliability. AVE is generally calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Average Variance Extracted} = \frac{\sum (\text{standardized loadings}^2)}{\sum (\text{standardized loadings}^2) + \sum \text{measurement error}}$$

The third and final way to assess the reliability of the instrument utilized in this study was the examination of the item-to-total correlations for each construct. Osterlind (2006) suggested that item-to-total correlation values above .50 can be regarded as evidence that the scale is reliable. In order to improve the reliability of the instrument, items with item-to-total correlations below .50 can be removed (Osterlind).

Discriminant validity provides evidence suggesting the construct of interest is different from constructs that it should be different from. In this study, evidence of discriminant validity was provided through a comparison between AVE scores and the squared correlation between the construct of interest and other constructs being examined. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), in order to provide evidence of discriminant validity, AVE scores must be higher than the squared correlation of the constructs of interest.

The next step in the data analysis process was to conduct one confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The CFA included all the variables of interest: employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives (i.e., motivation, fit, and investment), organizational identification, and employees' attitudes toward CSR initiatives. According to DeCoster (1998) and Thompson (2004), CFA is useful when examining hypothesized relationships between variables and when further assessing the convergent and discriminant validity of a set of measures. CFA is preferred over exploratory factor analysis (EFA) when the researcher establishes a priori a specific number of factors, the



relationship between those factors, and the underlying indicators for each factor (Thompson). Therefore, in this study CFA was deemed appropriate.

There are five basic steps that a researcher must follow when conducting CFA (DeCoster, 1998). First, the researcher must define the model that she wishes to test. Second, the researcher needs to collect all the appropriate measures that will be used to assess the variables included in the model. Third, after the data is collected, the researcher must obtain the correlation matrix. Fourth, the model is fit to the data. In this study, analyses related to model fit were run using MPlus 6.0. The fifth and last step is to evaluate model adequacy, that is, the researcher evaluates if the model fits the data (DeCoster). Although there is not a universal consensus on how to assess a model fit (Thompson, 2004), some fit indices have become generally more accepted than others (Thompson). However, there is no universal agreement regarding accepted values of those fit indices. Thus, researchers have established some acceptable cutoff values for each index (Kline, 2005). The fit indices utilized to assess model fit in this study are specified below. The recommended criteria that were used to assess model adequacy are specified on Table 3.10.

The first fit index that was used to assess model fit was the chi-square statistic. Kline (2005) suggested that a non-statistical significant chi-square is an indication of good model fit because it suggests that the hypothesized model is very similar to the data implied model. The chi-square statistic is also useful to calculate the chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio ( $\chi^2/df$ ). A ratio below 3.0 is also an indication of good model fit (Kline). The next indices to be examined were the comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973). The CFI index compares the relative fit of a model against a baseline model (Kline). The TLI index considers the complexity of the model when estimating the model fit (Kenny, 2010). The last two indices that were used to assess model adequacy were the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). RMSEA is an estimation of the amount of error of approximation taking into consideration the size of the sample used in the study (Kline). SRMR is an estimation of the difference between observed and predicted covariances (Kline). In addition to the goodness-of-fit indices, the standardized residual matrix also provides evidence of model fit (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). According to Brown (2006), researchers should pay attention to standardized residuals that have an absolute value greater or equal to |2.58|.

**Table 3.13 Model fit indices**

<b>Fit Index</b>	<b><i>Acceptable cutoff criteria</i></b>
Chi-square to degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ )	Below 3.0
CFI	Greater than .90
TLI	Greater than .90
RMSEA	Below .08
SRMR	Equal to or below .10

#### *3.6.4 Structural Equation Modeling*

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical technique used to estimate causal relationships between variables (Thompson, 2004). In his personal website (<http://www2.gsu.edu/~mkteer/sem.html>), Dr. Rigdon, a statistics professor from the University of Georgia, explains that a structural equation implies a structure of the covariance matrix of the variables that are being measured. That is, after the model's parameters are obtained, the hypothesized model can be compared to a data-based covariance matrix (Rigdon, n.d.). If the matrices are consistent, it can be considered that the structural equation model provides a possible explanation for the causal relationships between the variables (Rigdon).

SEM is closely related to CFA because once the researcher has assessed the psychometric properties of a scale, she can move forward to test the structure of a hypothesized model (DeCoster, 1998). Hence, SEM is generally characterized as a confirmatory technique rather than an exploratory one (McDonald & Ho, 2002; Rigdon, n.d.). Another characteristic of SEM is that it is generally utilized to test relationships between latent constructs and it allows testing the relationship between multiple measures and one single latent construct (Rigdon). Furthermore, in SEM researchers attempt to derive unbiased estimates by explicitly modeling measurement error (Thompson, 2004). Therefore, the results obtained through SEM tend to provide more accurate estimates of the model being examined.

According to McDonald and Ho (2002), there are five basic steps that a researcher must follow when conducting SEM. The first step is model specification. In this step the researcher determines if parameters will be fixed at zero or if they are going to be freely estimated. The second step in a SEM analysis is model identification. McDonald and Ho explained that model identification is an analysis in which the researcher examines if all observed variables load in only one factor. In other words, all factor loadings must form independent clusters. Model identification is a necessary condition to move to the third step in the SEM analysis: model estimation. With the help of a statistical software, in this dissertation that was Mplus 6.0, the researcher obtains an estimated population covariance matrix. The goal of this step is to produce an estimated covariance matrix that “converges upon the observed population covariance matrix, with the residual matrix being minimized” (Stoelting, 2002, p. 1). The fourth step is to assess model fit. The evaluation of adequacy of the structural model will be done via an examination of the fit indices used in the CFA (see Table 3.10). The fifth and last step is to model modification. Model modification consists of using modification indices provided in the Mplus output to estimate alternative models that can also explain the relationship between the variables.

SEM was utilized in this study to examine the hypothesized moderation effect of employees’ attitudes toward CSR. Specifically, the author conducted latent moderated structural equations (LMS) analysis using MPlus 6.0. LMS is considered to be the optimal procedure when the hypothesized moderator is a latent and continuous variable (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000) as it is the hypothesized moderator in the current study. LMS was chosen instead of multiple regression because when there are multiple latent factors an examination of moderation effects using LMS provides a stronger basis for evaluating the factor structure, controlling for measurement error, increasing power, and overall interpretation of the moderation effects (Marsh, Wen, & Hau, 2006).

### **3.7 Chapter Summary**

Chapter 3 provides information about the methods that were utilized to conduct the present research study. This research is considered a non-experimental quantitative study. Two samples were collected with the purpose of comparing between individuals working for sport and non-sport organizations. A questionnaire was utilized as the instrument for data collection. The questionnaire was composed of different items tested in past research studies. After the data

collection was completed, the data was analyzed through mean difference tests, CFA, and SEM analyses. The results of those analyses are included in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 4

### 4.1 RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact that employees' perceptions of CSR and attitudes toward CSR have on organizational identification. Furthermore, the researcher attempted to examine the influence of organizational identification on two types of employee behavior: OCBs and PSA. The hypotheses that were tested in this dissertation were introduced in Chapter 3. In the previous chapter the methods utilized in this dissertation were presented. The items used to assess the constructs of interest were outlined in the previous chapter as well as statistical procedures and indices that were employed in the data analysis. In this chapter, the results of the pilot study and main study are presented.

#### 4.2 Pilot Study

The objective of the pilot study was to test if the items that were selected to assess each construct worked together. In other words, the purpose of the pilot study was to assess the reliability of the scales. Although the items were tested in past studies, the researcher made significant changes to the wording of most of them. The numerous modifications made it important to conduct a pilot study.

##### *4.2.1 Procedure*

The questionnaire was developed through a website called SurveyMonkey.com. Given that the purpose of the pilot study was only to assess the reliability of the scale, purposive sampling was not implemented at this stage. Consequently, the researcher emailed the link of the questionnaire (<http://www.surveymonkey.com/fsucsrssurvey>) to over 300 individuals working for a university located in the Southeast of the United States. A total of 141 employees participated in the pilot study. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1989), when a pilot study does not involve rigorous statistical analysis, a sample of even 20 participants can be considered adequate. The first page of the questionnaire included the consent form approved by the university's IRB (see Appendix B). After reading the consent form, participants had the choice to continue with or exit the survey. Only one person chose to exit the survey.

The first step, after the data was collected, was to examine whether there were missing values. After this procedure was done, 39 questionnaires were discarded because 15% or more of their answers were missing. This threshold was an arbitrary level chosen by the researcher; at the

15% level all the missing values in the data were accounted for. The remaining questionnaires did not have any missing data. A total of 102 questionnaires were deemed usable.

#### *4.2.2 Results of the Pilot Study*

The reliability of each scale was assessed through a calculation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) and item-to-total correlations. The alpha coefficient for the items measuring employees' perceptions of CSR (i.e., perceptions of motivation, fit, and investment) was above .85. Those items that composed the identification scale also demonstrated an alpha coefficient above .90. The alpha coefficients for PSA and OCBs were .74 and .87 respectively. Table 4.1 includes all the alpha coefficients.

The next step was to examine the item-to-total correlations. As explained in Chapter 3, item-to-total correlation values above .50 can be regarded as evidence that the scale is reliable. In order to improve the reliability of the scale, items with values below .50 can be removed (Osterlind, 2006). When analyzing the item-to-total correlations of the motivation construct, it became evident that they did not work well together. These results suggested that the items measuring perceived CSR motivation formed two different factors instead of one (see Chapter 3). Therefore, the items were divided into two factors: perceived CSR society motivation (MT1-MT4) and perceived CSR firm motivation (MT5-MT8). After this separation of items was completed, item-to-total correlations were again examined. All item-to-total correlations values exceeded the suggested cutoff point of .50 (Osterlind, 2006). Due to the fact that at this stage the sample size was considered small ( $N=101$ ), it was decided that in the main study, the perceived CSR motivation factor was going to be tested first as unidimensional and second as multidimensional construct (two factors).

Regarding the other items assessing the rest of the factors, all but four items showed an item-to-total correlation of at least .50. Two items were measures of interconnection to self, and two items were used in assessing PSA. The interconnection to self's (identification scale) items were: "My organization is an important reflection of who I am" (IntS1) and "my organization successes are my successes" (IntS4). Both items had an item-to-total correlation lower than .50. After examining the items more closely, the researcher decided to retain the items because based on the literature, these items seem to really capture the meaning of the interconnection to self-construct (see Chapter 3). Furthermore, the sample size ( $N=102$ ) may have affected the item-to-total correlation coefficients. Therefore, instead of deleting the items, a new item was added for

the main study in an effort to better capture the essence of the construct. The new item was: “In general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self-image.” Table 4.1 includes the item-to-total correlations. Table 4.2 includes all items that were utilized to assess interconnection to self in the main study.

The two items assessing PSA with an item-to-total correlation below .50 were: “I donate to a charity of my choice through work” (PSA1) and “I donate blood at my organization-sponsored blood drives” (PSA4). The first item had an item-to-total correlation below .40. However, after examining the item more closely, the researcher decided not to delete the item but to change the wording. This decision was made because based on the literature, the item seem to really capture the meaning of the PSA construct. The item was changed to: “I donate to a charity linked to my employer organization.” Regarding the second item, it was determined that the item was too specific toward a personal social action, that not all employees might have the opportunity to perform through their work. Consequently, the item was deleted. Based on the alpha coefficients and item-to-total correlations, it was determined there was reasonable evidence of reliability. Table 4.3 includes all items that were utilized to assess PSA in the main study.

**Table 4.1 Scale statistics**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	$\alpha$
<b>PuE</b>	PuE1	.74	.84
	PuE2	.71	
	PuE3	.69	
<b>PrE</b>	PrE1	.82	.92
	PrE2	.86	
	PrE3	.84	
<b>IntS</b>	IntS1	.49	.80
	IntS2	.68	
	IntS3	.63	
	IntS4	.66	

**Table 4.1 Cont.**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	$\alpha$
<b>BI</b>			
	BI1	.63	.86
	BI2	.77	
	BI3	.62	
	BI4	.80	
<b>CogA</b>			
	CogA1	.59	.75
	CogA2	.73	
	CogA3	.70	
<b>SeI</b>			
	SeI1	.68	.80
	SeI2	.73	
	SeI3	.53	
<b>FT</b>			
	FT1	.85	.92
	FT2	.83	
	FT3	.66	
	FT4	.80	
	FT5	.83	
	FT6	.73	
<b>Society MT</b>			
	MT1	.75	.89
	MT2	.62	
	MT3	.86	
	MT4	.82	
<b>Firm MT</b>			
	MT5	.69	.82
	MT6	.70	
	MT7	.49	



**Table 4.1 Cont.**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	$\alpha$
<b>Firm MT</b>	MT8	.71	
<b>IN</b>	IN2	.85	.96
	IN3	.91	
	IN4	.86	
	IN5	.78	
	IN6	.87	
<b>AT</b>	AT1	.82	.91
	AT2	.70	
	AT3	.79	
	AT4	.75	
	AT5	.81	
<b>PSA</b>	PSA1	.41	.74
	PSA2	.63	
	PSA3	.70	
	<i>PSA4</i>	.16	
	PSA5	.72	
<b>OCB</b>	OCB1	.63	.87
	OCB2	.70	
	OCB3	.78	
	OCB4	.69	
	OCB5	.71	
	OCB6	.51	

*Note:* Items in italics were dropped from the main study. PuE= Public Evaluation, PrE= Private Evaluation, IntS= Interconnection to Self, BI= Behavioral Involvement, CogA= Cognitive Awareness, Sel= Sense of Interdependence, FT= Fit, Society MT= Society Motivation, Firm MT=Firm Motivation, IN= Investment, AT= Attitudes, PSA= Personal Social Action, OCB= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

**Table 4.2 Interconnection to self items**

<i>Adapted from</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Heere &amp; James, 2007</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult. <b>(IntS1)</b>.</li> <li>2. When someone compliments my organization, it feels like a personal compliment. <b>(IntS2)</b>.</li> <li>3. My organization is an important reflection of who I am. <b>(IntS3)</b>.</li> <li>4. My organization’s successes are my successes. <b>(IntS4)</b>.</li> <li>5. In general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self image. <b>(IntS5)</b></li> </ol>

**Table 4.3 PSA items**

<i>Adapted from</i>	<i>Items</i>
<p><b>Ellis, 2008</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I donate to a charity link to my employer organization. <b>(PSA1)</b>.</li> <li>2. I participate in social benefit events that my organization promotes. <b>(PSA2)</b>.</li> <li>3. I volunteer in social benefit events that my organization promotes. <b>(PSA3)</b>.</li> <li>4. I donate my expertise and skills to community organizations link to my employer organization. <b>(PSA4)</b>.</li> <li>1. What other community or social causes do you participate in through your job? _____. <b>(PSA5)</b>.</li> </ol>

### **4.3 Main Study**

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification. Second, to assess the potential impact of employees' attitudes toward CSR in the aforementioned relationship. The results of the main study are presented below.

#### *4.3.1 Procedure*

After the results of the pilot study were obtained, the questionnaire was modified as specified above. The next step was for the researcher to contact 213 organizations (sport and non-sport) with the purpose of obtaining permission to distribute the questionnaire among their employees. According to their website and annual reports (when available), all of these organizations had established some sort of CSR initiatives (e.g., donations, employee-volunteer programs, among others). The researcher offered the options of completing an online version or a paper version of the questionnaire. All participating organizations decided to utilize the online version.

The link to the questionnaire (<http://www.surveymonkey.com/fsucrsurvey>) was emailed to one contact person in each organization. The contact person was responsible for distributing the questionnaire among the employees. Given that the researcher assured anonymity to all organizations that participated in the study, the names of the organizations cannot be included here. However, examples of organizations that participated in the study are: minor and major baseball league teams, sport organizing bodies, major league soccer teams, youth soccer teams, women's basketball teams, health care organizations, banks, retail organizations, among others. Eighty-nine organizations sent an email back to the researcher. Sixty-eight organizations of those 89 that responded agreed to participate in the study. Therefore, the response rate at the organizational level was 31.92%. The researcher was unable to calculate the response rate at the individual level because the organizations did not communicate to the researcher how many employees received the link to the survey.

It is noteworthy that although 124 organizations did not reply to the researcher's initial email contact, some employees from the non-responsive organizations did participate in the study. The researcher became aware of their participation after noticing that email addresses from organizations that did not reply were entered in the gift card drawing form. Due to the fact that not all participants entered their email address in the gift card drawing form, the researcher

was unable to estimate the number of organizations that did not reply to the initial email contact but distributed the survey's link among their employees.

#### *4.3.2 Participants*

When participants first opened the link to the survey, the first page they saw was the consent form approved by the university's IRB (see Appendix B). After reading the consent form, participants had the choice to continue with the survey or to exit the survey. Seventeen people chose to exit the survey. A total of 741 participants chose to continue. The first step after the data was collected was to check for missing values. After this step was done, 220 questionnaires were discarded because 15% or more of their answers were missing. This threshold was established by the researcher (see Chapter 3). Missing values in the demographic questions were not taken into account when assessing missing data. From the 220 participants that did not complete the questionnaire, there was not enough information to determine if the individuals were employees of sport or non-sport organizations. At this point the usable sample was 521.

Six questionnaires were subsequently discarded because when responding to the awareness question, the participants selected the option: "Does not participate in any socially responsible initiatives." Given that all the participant organizations had established some sort of CSR, it was evident that those six participants were not aware of the activities. Thus, the boundary condition (i.e., awareness) was not met. After discarding 226 questionnaires in total, 515 questionnaires were deemed usable. Of those 515 questionnaires, 13 had missing answers. Eight were from the sport sample and five from the non-sport sample. One participant from each sample had 3 missing answers, while the rest (i.e., six participants), had between 1-2 missing answers. The mean score for the specific item(s) was utilized to replace the missing values. Replacing missing values with the item mean is a common practice (Baker & Siryk, 1999) and it was done through SPSS. Replacing missing values with the mean has one important limitation, a failure to account for standard error (Little & Rubin, 1989). Also, replacement with the mean could add bias to the data (Little & Rubin). Although there are other methods that can be used to replace missing values, those methods require normal data (Little & Rubin). Due to the fact that the data utilized in this study is non-normal, it was not feasible to use other methods. It is also important to note the number of questionnaires containing missing values can be considered small (i.e., 13) relative to the usable sample size in this study ( $n = 515$ ) and the number of

answers (between 1-3) that were missing. For these reasons, replacing missing values with the mean score was deemed appropriate.

A total of 308 (60%) participants identified themselves as employees of sport organizations, and 207 (40%) reported working for other types of organizations (non-sport). Approximately, 53% of the respondents were male, 45% were females, and 2% did not indicate their gender. The average age was 44 years old. The majority were single (51%), 44% were married, and 5% indicated other marital status (e.g., separated, widower). Approximately, 28% of the respondents indicated working in Florida, whereas 7% indicated Illinois and California, 6% North Carolina, 5% Texas, and the remaining 47% were working throughout the continental United States. Twenty seven percent (27%) of the participants indicated they have been working for their employer organization for one year or less, 11% indicated two or three years, 9% indicated at least four years, while 8% indicated at least five years. The rest of the participants (34%) indicated tenure of six years or more. The racial composition of the respondents was 83% Caucasian/White, 7% African American/Black, 5% Hispanic/Latino, 5% of other races (e.g., multiracial, Asian/Pacific Islander, Native American). The majority of participants held a bachelor’s degree (58%), 28% a master’s degree, while the rest (14%) held other types of degrees (e.g., doctorate, associates, high school, among others). Approximately 12% of the participants reported an income of less than \$25,000 a year, 31% between \$25,001-\$49,999, 16% between \$50,000-\$74,999, 31% indicated \$75,000 or more, while 10% chose not to specify their income. All demographic information is included in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4 Demographic characteristics of the sample**

<b>Demographic Variables</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<u>Type of Organization</u>	
Sport	60
Non-Sport	40
<u>Gender</u>	
Male	53
Female	45
Did not specify	2

**Table 4.4 (Cont.)**

<b>Demographic Variables</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<u>Marital Status</u>	
Single	51
Married	44
Other	5
<u>State</u>	
Florida	28
Illinois	7
California	7
North Carolina	6
Texas	5
Other	47
<u>Tenure</u>	
1 year or less	27
At least 2 years	11
At least 3 years	11
At least 4 years	9
At least 5 years	8
Six years or more	34
<u>Ethnicity</u>	
Caucasian/White	83
African American/Black	7
Hispanic/Latino	5
Other	5
<u>Education</u>	
Bachelor's degree	58
Master's degree	28
Other	14
<u>Income</u>	
\$25,000 or less	12
\$25,001-\$49,999	31
\$50,000-\$74,999	16
\$75,000 or more	31
Did not specify	10

### 4.3.3 Test of Univariate and Multivariate Normality

One of the preliminary steps performed was the assessment of the data for location and variability. Univariate analyses of the distribution of all variables demonstrated that the datum was not normally distributed, as all skewness and kurtosis values were outside their accepted cutoffs (|3| and |10|, respectively) (Kline, 2005). Mardia's coefficient was used as a measure of multivariate normality. A significant p-value of Mardia's coefficient was obtained, which suggested non-normality. The following are Mardia's calculated coefficients of skewness (value = 817.83, z-score = 100.06, p-value <.001), kurtosis (value = 4427.78, z-score = 35.57, p-value <.001), and skewness and kurtosis ( $\chi^2 = 11276.79$ , p-value <.001). Given that the datum was not normally distributed, MLM was selected as the method for conducting the subsequent factor and structural analyses (see Chapter 3). MLM is considered a more robust estimation method when dealing with non-normally distributed data (Santorra & Bentler, 2001). Table 4.5 includes the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) for all the factors.

**Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics**

Construct	Mean	SD
<b>PuE</b>	5.74	1.29
<b>PrE</b>	5.81	1.36
<b>IntS</b>	4.79	1.65
<b>BI</b>	4.97	1.63
<b>CogA</b>	5.69	1.27
<b>SeI</b>	4.57	1.71
<b>FT</b>	5.02	1.49
<b>MT</b>	4.38	1.61
<b>IN</b>	4.59	1.65
<b>AT</b>	5.36	1.51
<b>PSA</b>	4.20	1.89
<b>OCB</b>	5.83	0.99

*Note:* PuE= Public Evaluation, PrE= Private Evaluation, IntS= Interconnection to Self, BI= Behavioral Involvement, CogA= Cognitive Awareness, SeI= Sense of Interdependence, FT= Fit, MT= Motivation, IN= Investment, AT= Attitudes, PSA= Personal Social Action, OCB= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

#### 4.3.4 Mean Difference Tests

Two samples were collected. One sample was composed of individuals working for sport organizations (n = 308). The second sample included individuals working for non-sport organizations (n = 207). The purpose of collecting two samples was to test whether the results would vary depending on organizational context. In order to test if such difference existed, mean difference tests (*t*-tests) were conducted. All *t*-tests were computed at a .05 level of significance (*p*-value < 0.5). The cutoffs suggested by Cohen (1988) were used to determine if the effect size was small, medium, or large. Although these cutoffs are not perfect, they are widely accepted (Field, 2005). The following are the cutoffs suggested by Cohen:

$r = .10$  (small effect).

$r = .30$  (medium effect).

$r = .50$  (large effect).

Regarding employees' perceptions of CSR, the results of the independent sample *t*-tests showed that there was a statistically significant difference in the way participants in the two samples (sport and non-sport) answered the questions. However, the effect sizes were very small (see Table 4.6). Some of the factors that compose organizational identification demonstrated statistically significant *t*-tests, but others did not. The effect size of those that were statistically significant was small. The *t*-test conducted for employees' attitudes toward CSR was not significant; likewise, the OCBs *t*-test was not significant. The *t*-test for PSA was significant, but the effect size was small. The results of all *t*-tests and their respective effect sizes are included in Table 4.6.

Given that the effect sizes of those *t*-tests that were significant were very small, it was concluded that the differences between groups were not practically significant. The mean differences shown in a few of the *t*-tests could be the result of the difference in sample size. In order to account for sample size difference, a subset of the sport sample was drawn (n=207). This way both samples were of equal size. The *t*-tests were computed a second time, and the results did not change. The *t*-tests that were statistically significant initially were statistically significant with the matched samples. However, the effect sizes were still very small. The researcher concluded that the small mean differences were likely due to statistical noise. Larger samples are needed in order to test if true practical differences exist between individuals working for sport



and non-sport organizations. Consequently, for the purpose of this study, the two groups were treated as one sample (n=515) for subsequent statistical analyses.

**Table 4.6 Mean difference tests**

Construct	Organization	Mean	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value	<i>r</i>
<b>PuE</b>	Sport	5.85	.07	2.48	.01	.06
	Non-sport	5.58	.09			
<b>PrE</b>	Sport	5.89	.07	1.76	.08	
	Non-sport	5.69	.09			
<b>IntS</b>	Sport	4.94	.09	3.17	.00	.11
	Non-sport	4.56	.12			
<b>BI</b>	Sport	5.24	.09	.58	.00	.20
	Non-sport	4.57	.12			
<b>CogA</b>	Sport	5.81	.07	3.04	.00	.12
	Non-sport	5.51	.09			
<b>SeI</b>	Sport	4.51	.09	-1.14	.26	
	Non-sport	4.66	.12			
<b>FT</b>	Sport	5.18	.08	3.23	.00	.12
	Non-sport	4.80	.12			
<b>MT</b>	Sport	4.57	.09	5.65	.00	.14
	Non-sport	4.11	.11			
<b>IN</b>	Sport	4.73	.09	2.70	.00	.11
	Non-sport	4.38	.12			
<b>AT</b>	Sport	5.39	.08	4.09	.67	
	Non-sport	5.34	.11			
<b>PSA</b>	Sport	4.41	.09	3.70	.00	.14
	Non-sport	3.89	.14			
<b>OCB</b>	Sport	5.78	.07	-1.31	.19	
	Non-sport	5.89	.08			

*Note:* PuE= Public Evaluation, PrE= Private Evaluation, IntS= Interconnection to Self, BI= Behavioral Involvement, CogA= Cognitive Awareness, SeI= Sense of Interdependence, FT= Fit, MT= Motivation, IN= Investment, AT= Attitudes, PSA= Personal Social Action, OCB= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

#### *4.3.5 Reliability and Validity*

Reliability and validity assessments were conducted through an examination of internal consistency using SPSS 18.0 and a confirmatory factor analysis using Mplus 6.1. The first step when conducting reliability and validity analyses was to randomly split the sample. Splitting the sample was important because this way the measurement model and the structural model were tested with “different data sets.” This procedure avoids capitalizing on the same data to conduct both analyses. The sample was split—using the randomly split procedure in SPSS—into two subsets of 215 and 300 participants. The first subset ( $n = 215$ ) was used to assess the measurement model. The second subset ( $n = 300$ ) was used to test the structural model and moderation effect. Given that SEM is a procedure sensitive to sample size, it is generally considered better to have a larger sample to test the structural model.

In regards to construct reliability, all factors showed a construct reliability higher than the suggested cutoff of .60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), which means there was evidence that all constructs were internally consistent (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Other evidence of reliability obtained was the AVE values for each construct. All AVE values exceeded the suggested cutoff point of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). When assessing the item-to-total correlations and factor loadings, it became evident that—as suspected—the items measuring perceived CSR motivation formed two different factors instead of one (see Chapter 3). Therefore, the items were divided into two factors: perceived CSR society motivation (MT1-MT4) and perceived CSR firm motivation (MT5-MT8). After this separation of items was completed, item-to-total correlations were again examined. All item-to-total correlations values exceeded the suggested cutoff point of .50 (Osterlind, 2006). All measurement items loaded on their respective factors, with values ranging from .515 to .967. Seven items had a loading value lower than the suggested cutoff point of .707 (Brown, 2006). A further analysis of these items is provided below. All item-total correlations, AVE scores, and loadings are presented in Table 4.7.

AVE values were also used to provide evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. AVE scores for all factors ranged from .56 to .77. Based on those AVE scores, all constructs demonstrated evidence of convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Discriminant validity was assessed through a comparison of the AVE score of each construct and the square correlation of other constructs being examined (Fornell & Larcker). In order to provide evidence of discriminant validity, the AVE scores must be higher than the squared correlation of the

constructs of interest. The AVE scores met this criterion; however, four squared correlations were proximal to the AVE scores of the associated constructs. In three of those cases, the squared correlation between the associated constructs was proximal to the AVE score of interconnection to self. Specifically, the AVE scores of private evaluation (PriE) and interconnection to self (IntS) were .83 and .59, respectively. Their squared correlation was .56, which is close to the AVE score of interconnection to self. The squared correlation between behavioral involvement (AVE = .56) and interconnection to self was .52, which is proximal to both constructs' AVE scores. Interconnection to self and sense of interdependence (SeI) shared a square correlation equal to .58, which is just a little lower than interconnection to self's AVE score. The last case in which the squared correlation was proximal to the AVE score of the constructs was between behavioral involvement and personal social action (PSA). In this case, PSA's AVE score was .60 and the squared correlation between the constructs was .57. Although in these four cases the squared correlations were proximal to the factor(s) AVE scores, they were not higher. Furthermore, when examining the conceptualization of the constructs, it is evident that they are distinct. Therefore, it was concluded there was evidence of discriminant validity.

In order to provide further evidence of construct validity, the model fit to the data was assessed through an examination of the model fit indices provided in the CFA. A combinational approach was used when analyzing the model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998), which means that multiple fit indices were examined with the purpose of evaluating the model fit to the data. This approach—proposed by Hu and Bentler—is recommended when the sample size is relatively small ( $n < 250$ ) and it helps to provide more accurate model fit evaluation. Therefore, as it was specified in Chapter 3, the following fit indices were examined: chi-square statistic, chi-square to degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ), CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and SRMR. All suggested cutoff values are specified in Table 3.13.

According to Kline (2005), a non-statistically significant chi-square is a good indication of model fit. In this study, however, the chi-square statistic was significant. This result is more likely due to sample size. Kenny (2011) suggested that in samples greater than 200, the chi-square statistic is almost always significant. The chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio was 1.86 (2601.645/1406), which is lower than the suggested cutoff of 3.0 (Kline, 2005). The CFI value was .87 and the TLI value was .86. Both values were lower than the suggested cutoff of .90 (Kline, 2005). Both the RMSEA and the SRMR values were .06. These values were below the

suggested cutoffs of .08 and .10, respectively (Kline, 2005). In addition to the goodness-of-fit indices, the standardized residual matrix was also examined with the purpose of evaluating model fit. Brown (2006) suggested that when assessing model fit, researchers should pay attention to standardized residuals larger than 2.58. After an examination of the standardized residual matrix, it was evident that several items had residuals larger than 2.58. Consequently, based on the item-to-total correlations, factor loadings, goodness-of-fit indices, and standardized item residuals, it was evident that some changes could be made in order to improve overall model fit. Those changes are specified below.

First, items that were part of the organizational identification scale were examined. Two items from the interconnection-to-self construct (IntS1 and IntS5) were dropped due to high residual values (>3.50). Furthermore, IntS1 had a low loading (.668) and its item-total-correlation value was .64 while the other items in the same construct had an item-to-total correlation higher than .75. The modification index for this item revealed that it cross loaded with items in other constructs that also measured organizational identification. Regarding IntS5, the item not only had high residuals (>3.50) but also the item-to-total correlation (.71) and factor loading (.75) were lower than the other items assessing the same construct. One item from the behavioral involvement construct (BI4) was also dropped due to its low loading (.695) and high residual (>3.98). One item from the sense of interdependence construct (SeI3) was eliminated due to its low loading (.630) and low item-to-total correlation (.58) compared to other items measuring the same construct (all other items >.75). With the elimination of SeI3, only two items remained as a measure of sense of interdependence.

The next step was to examine the items assessing the constructs of employees' perceptions of CSR: perceptions of fit, motivation, and investment. Three items were dropped from the perceptions of fit construct (FT2, FT4, FT6). Although FT2 and FT4 had loadings higher than the suggested cutoff of .707 (.773 and .764, respectively), those values were lower than the other items assessing the same construct (>.80). Therefore, with the purpose of retaining items that seemed to fit best together, FT2 and FT4 were eliminated. The item FT6 had a low loading (.688) and very high residual value (>4.50), therefore, it was also dropped from further analyses. One item from the perceived CSR society motivation factor (MT1) was dropped due to its high residual value (>2.58). Although its loading exceeded the suggested cutoff of .707, it was much lower (.765) than the loadings of all other items assessing the same construct. Two items

from the perceived CSR firm motivation were dropped (MT7, MT8). Both items had low loadings (.515 and .635, respectively) and high residuals (>2.58). Furthermore, their item-to-total correlations were .59 and .69, while the other items measuring the same construct had item-to-total correlation values above .75. With the elimination of MT7 and MT8, only two items remained as a measure of perceived CSR firm motivation. When analyzing the items that assessed the perceived investment construct, it was noticed that two items (IN2, IN5) had lower loadings than the other items assessing the same construct. Both items assessed the perceived amount of money that organizations spend supporting charities and social initiatives. It seems that employees did not perceive that their employer organization spent a great deal of money in supporting charities and social initiatives. Consequently, IN2 and IN5 were dropped from further statistical analyses.

The third step was to examine the items measuring employees' attitudes toward CSR and the two behavioral outcomes (i.e., PSA and OCBs). One item (AT1) from the attitudes construct was dropped due to its high residual value (>2.90). Also, AT2 was dropped because its loading (.791) and item-to-total correlation (.74) were much lower than the other items assessing the same construct. One item from the PSA construct was dropped (PSA1) due to its low item-to-total correlation (.51), low loading (.563), and high residual (>2.77). This item asked: "I donate to a charity linked to my employer organization." Based on the statistical evidence obtained, it seems that employees do not necessarily donate to charities through their work. Perhaps they donate to charities but not necessarily to those charities linked to their employer organization. Finally, three items from the OCBs construct (OCB1, OCB2, OCB4) were dropped due to their high residuals (>4.21). While OCB4 had a low loading (.687), OCB1 and OCB2 had loadings higher than the suggested .707 cutoff (.770 and .724). However, the rest of the items assessing OCBs had loadings higher than .80. Furthermore, modification indices of these items indicated that they cross-loaded with items assessing PSA.

After the above modifications were made, another CFA was run with the first split (n = 215). The revised scale statistics are included in Table 4.8. The correlation matrix is included in Table 4.9. The modifications to the measurement model resulted in a significant improvement in overall model fit, as noted in the following assessment of the goodness-of-fit indices. The chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio dropped from 1.86 to 1.58 (924.834/587), however, the chi-square statistic was still significant, which was likely due to sample size. The CFI value

increased from .87 to .94 and the TLI value increased from .86 to .93. Both values are larger than the suggested cutoff of .90. The RMSEA value dropped from .06 to .05 and the SRMR value dropped from .06 to .04. Both values are below the suggested cutoffs of .08 and .10 respectively. Therefore, based on a combinational approach to model fit evaluation, it is noticeable that most of goodness-of-fit indices fell within the accepted cutoff values. Consequently, the revised measurement model provided an acceptable fit to the data (see Table 4.10).

**Table 4.7 Scale statistics (Original Model)**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	AVE
<b>PuE</b>				.92	.79
	PuE1	.86	.91		
	PuE2	.79	.84		
<b>PrE</b>	PuE3	.85	.91		
				.94	.83
	PrE1	.87	.92		
<b>IntS</b>	PrE2	.86	.91		
	PrE3	.87	.91		
				.88	.59
	<i>IntS1</i>	.61	.67		
	IntS2	.73	.80		
<b>BI</b>	IntS3	.76	.83		
	IntS4	.72	.78		
	<i>IntS5</i>	.71	.75		
				.84	.56
	BI1	.63	.76		
BI2	.72	.73			
BI3	.63	.70			
<i>BI4</i>	.70	.81			

**Table 4.7 Cont.**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	AVE
<b>CogA</b>				.85	.66
	CogA1	.68	.75		
	CogA2	.74	.85		
	CogA3	.74	.84		
<b>SeI</b>				.87	.69
	SeI1	.77	.88		
	SeI2	.81	.95		
	<i>SeI3</i>	.58	.63		
<b>FT</b>				.91	.63
	FT1	.77	.84		
	<i>FT2</i>	.76	.77		
	FT3	.75	.80		
	<i>FT4</i>	.76	.76		
	FT5	.83	.90		
	<i>FT6</i>	.64	.69		
<b>Society MT</b>				.92	.73
	<i>MT1</i>	.71	.77		
	MT2	.79	.82		
	MT3	.86	.91		
	MT4	.85	.92		
<b>Firm MT</b>				.86	.61
	MT5	.75	.92		
	MT6	.81	.97		
	<i>MT7</i>	.59	.52		
	<i>MT8</i>	.69	.64		

**Table 4.7 Cont.**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	AVE
<b>IN</b>				.95	.77
	IN1	.89	.94		
	<i>IN2</i>	.83	.84		
	IN3	.88	.92		
	IN4	.87	.90		
	<i>IN5</i>	.78	.77		
	IN6	.87	.90		
<b>AT</b>				.92	.69
	<i>AT1</i>	.84	.88		
	<i>AT2</i>	.74	.79		
	AT3	.76	.81		
	AT4	.76	.80		
	AT5	.84	.89		
<b>PSA</b>				.85	.60
	<i>PSA1</i>	.51	.56		
	PSA2	.70	.81		
	PSA3	.74	.80		
	PSA4	.78	.89		
<b>OCB</b>				.95	.61
	<i>OCB1</i>	.73	.77		
	<i>OCB2</i>	.70	.72		
	OCB3	.77	.82		
	<i>OCB4</i>	.67	.69		
	OCB5	.77	.84		
	OCB6	.73	.80		

*Note:* Items in italics were dropped from further statistical analyses. PuE= Public Evaluation, PrE= Private Evaluation, IntS= Interconnection to Self, BI= Behavioral Involvement, CogA= Cognitive Awareness, Sel= Sense of Interdependence, FT= Fit, Society MT= Society Motivation, Firm MT= Firm Motivation, IN= Investment, AT= Attitudes, PSA= Personal Social Action, OCB= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.



**Table 4.8 Scale statistics (Revised Model)**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	AVE
<b>PuE</b>				.92	.79
	PuE1	.86	.91		
	PuE2	.79	.84		
	PuE3	.85	.91		
<b>PrE</b>				.94	.83
	PrE1	.87	.91		
	PrE2	.86	.91		
	PrE3	.87	.91		
<b>IntS</b>				.83	.62
	IntS2	.73	.81		
	IntS3	.76	.80		
	IntS4	.72	.76		
<b>BI</b>				.85	.59
	BI1	.63	.80		
	BI2	.72	.69		
	BI3	.63	.81		
<b>CogA</b>				.85	.66
	CogA1	.68	.75		
	CogA2	.74	.84		
	CogA3	.74	.84		
<b>SeI</b>				.92	.85
	SeI1	.77	.89		
	SeI2	.81	.95		

**Table 4.8 Cont.**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	AVE
<b>FT</b>				.89	.74
	FT1	.85	.84		
	FT3	.78	.78		
	FT5	.94	.94		
<b>Society MT</b>				.92	.79
	MT2	.82	.82		
	MT3	.91	.91		
	MT4	.95	.95		
<b>Firm MT</b>				.94	.89
	MT5	.97	.97		
	MT6	.92	.92		
<b>IN</b>				.96	.84
	IN1	.94	.94		
	IN3	.94	.94		
	IN4	.90	.90		
	IN6	.90	.90		
<b>AT</b>				.87	.70
	AT3	.84	.84		
	AT4	.79	.79		
	AT5	.88	.88		
<b>PSA</b>				.87	.70
	PSA2	.81	.81		
	PSA3	.80	.80		
	PSA4	.89	.89		

**Table 4.8 Cont.**

Construct	Item	Item-to-Total Correlation	Factor Loading	Construct Reliability	AVE
<b>OCB</b>				.92	.72
	OCB3	.79	.79		
	OCB5	.88	.88		
	OCB6	.82	.82		

Note: PuE= Public Evaluation, PrE= Private Evaluation, IntS= Interconnection to Self, BI= Behavioral Involvement, CogA= Cognitive Awareness, SeI= Sense of Interdependence, FT= Fit, Society MT= Society Motivation, Firm MT= Firm Motivation, IN= Investment, AT= Attitudes, PSA= Personal Social Action, OCB= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

**Table 4.9 Correlation matrix**

	PuE	PrE	IntS	BI	CogA	SeI	FT	Society MT	Firm MT	IN	AT	PSA	OCB
<b>PuE</b>	1.00												
<b>PrE</b>	0.81	1.00											
<b>IntS</b>	0.53	0.75	1.00										
<b>BI</b>	0.49	0.56	0.72	1.00									
<b>CogA</b>	0.49	0.52	0.61	0.66	1.00								
<b>SeI</b>	0.38	0.51	0.76	0.56	0.54	1.00							
<b>FT</b>	0.27	0.39	0.42	0.39	0.29	0.34	1.00						
<b>Society MT</b>	0.51	0.59	0.56	0.48	0.35	0.42	0.75	1.00					
<b>Firm MT</b>	-0.01	-0.04	0.15	0.18	0.16	0.10	0.21	-0.14	1.00				
<b>IN</b>	0.46	0.50	0.55	0.56	0.37	0.44	0.65	0.80	0.11	1.00			
<b>AT</b>	0.20	0.16	0.20	0.23	0.21	0.18	0.39	0.42	0.04	0.43	1.00		
<b>PSA</b>	0.36	0.39	0.50	0.76	0.51	0.40	0.42	0.46	0.19	0.57	0.38	1.00	
<b>OCB</b>	0.43	0.36	0.32	0.48	0.39	0.38	0.33	0.45	-0.05	0.33	0.45	0.36	1.00

Note: PuE= Public Evaluation, PrE= Private Evaluation, IntS= Interconnection to Self, BI= Behavioral Involvement, CogA= Cognitive Awareness, SeI= Sense of Interdependence, FT= Fit, Society MT= Society Motivation, Firm MT= Firm Motivation, IN= Investment, AT= Attitudes, PSA= Personal Social Action, OCB= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

**Table 4.10 Measurement model**

	$\chi^2$	df	p-value	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
<b>Original Model</b>	2601.645	1406	<.001	.06	.06	.87	.86
<b>Revised Model</b>	924.834	587	<.001	.05	.04	.94	.93

#### 4.4. Hypothesis Testing

The next step in the data analysis was to test the hypotheses that were developed in Chapter 2. In order to test the hypotheses, SEM and LMS (see Chapter 3) via Mplus 6.0 were utilized. For this stage, the second data split (n = 300) was used. The hypotheses for this research study were:

H<sub>1</sub>: Employees' perceptions of CSR are positively related to organizational identification.

H<sub>2</sub>: Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

H<sub>3</sub>: Organizational identification is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.

H<sub>4</sub>: Organizational identification is positively related to personal social action.

##### *4.4.1 Assessment of the Structural Model*

When assessing the structural model, organizational identification was considered a second order factor but employees' perceptions of CSR was not. The reason for this is that past studies found statistical support for the second order factor structure of organizational identification (e.g., Alfaro-Barrantes et al., 2010; Heere & James, 2007; Heere, et al., in press). However, this study is the first one to utilize four factors that assess employees' perceptions of CSR. Therefore, before assessing the structural model, it was necessary to examine first the correlation between the employees' perceptions of CSR factors (i.e., fit, society motivation, firm serving motivation, and investment).

After examining the correlation (see Table 4.11) between the employees' perceptions of CSR factors, it became evident that the factors were not closely related enough to consider a second order factor structure. Consequently, the researcher examined again the conceptual background of the factors as well as the items used to assess each factor and determined the factors were also not conceptually close enough to consider them a second order factor. For example, perception of CSR fit deals with the perceived fit that employees' recognize between the organization and its CSR initiatives. Perception of CSR investment deals with the employees' perceptions of the amount of money, effort, and time the employer organization invests in their CSR initiatives. In addition, perceived CSR society motivation and perceived CSR firm

motivation were not correlated. Conceptually this makes sense because the latter factor focuses on the organization's altruistic motives for engaging in CSR, while the other factor focuses on ulterior motives. However, from a statistical point of view, the lack of correlation among these factors represents a problem when considering a second order factor structure. As a result, when testing the impact of employees' perceptions of CSR on organizational identification, the impact of each of those four factors was assessed separately. After this decision was made, the researcher proposed additional hypotheses derived from the first and second hypotheses. The additional hypotheses reflect the modifications made to the model.

H<sub>1</sub>: Employees' perceptions of CSR are positively related to organizational identification.

H<sub>1a</sub>: Employees' perceptions of CSR fit are positively related to organizational identification.

H<sub>1b</sub>: Employees' perceptions of CSR society serving motivation are positively related to organizational identification.

H<sub>1c</sub>: Employees' perceptions of CSR firm serving motivation are negatively related to organizational identification.

H<sub>1d</sub>: Employees' perceptions of CSR investment are positively related to organizational identification.

H<sub>2</sub>: Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

H<sub>2a</sub>: Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR fit and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR fit and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

H<sub>2b</sub>: Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR motivation (society serving) and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR society serving motivation and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

H<sub>2c</sub>: Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR motivation (firm serving) and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR firm serving motivation and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

H<sub>2d</sub>: Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR investment and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR investment and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).

**Table 4.11 Employees' perceptions of CSR correlation matrix**

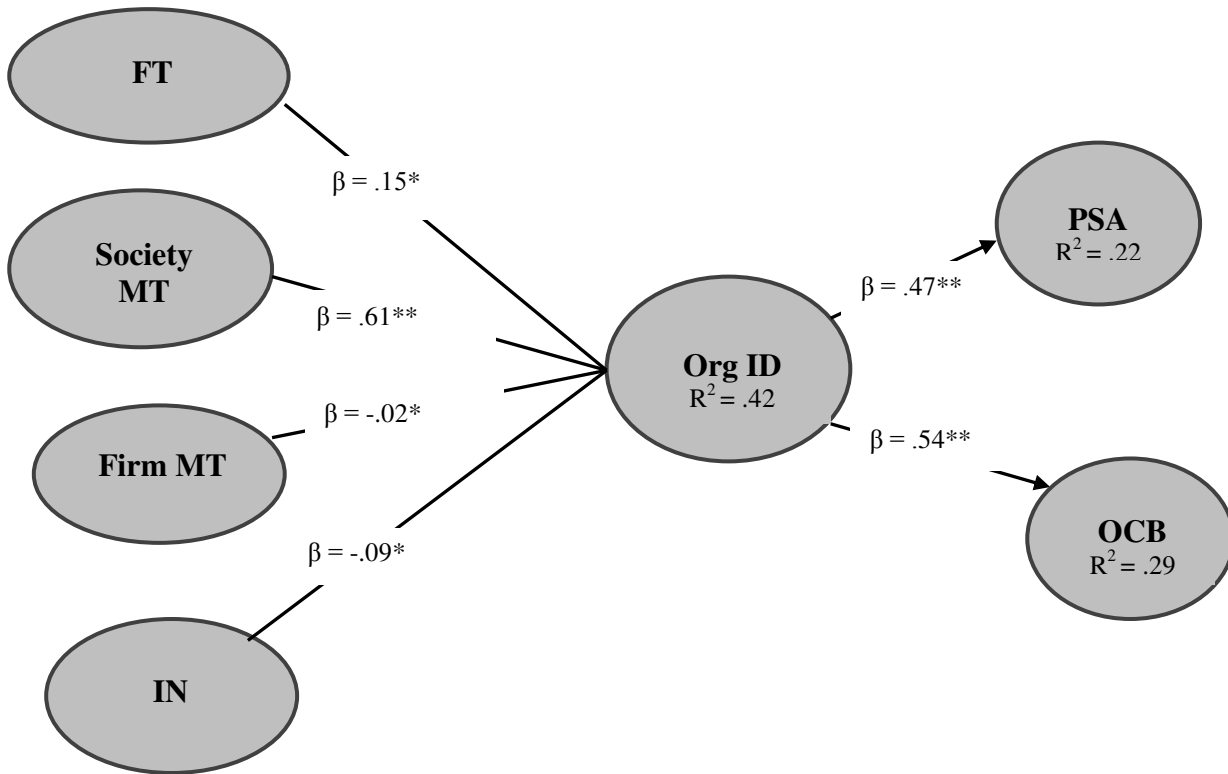
	FT	Society MT	Firm MT	IN
<b>FT</b>	1.00			
<b>Society MT</b>	0.73	1.00		
<b>Firm MT</b>	0.18	-0.14	1.00	
<b>IN</b>	0.73	0.84	0.01	1.00

A combinational approach was used when analyzing the model fit to the data (Hu & Bentler, 1998). This approach helps in providing more accurate model fit evaluation (Hu & Bentler). The chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio was 1.81 (1158.108/642), however, the chi-square statistic was significant, which was likely due to sample size. Both CFI and TLI values were .93, exceeding the suggested cutoff of .90 (Kline, 2005). The RMSEA value was .05 and the SRMR value was .07. Both values were below the suggested cutoffs of .08 and .10 respectively (Kline, 2005). Therefore, the goodness-of-fit indices indicated that the hypothesized structural model provided an acceptable fit to the data (see Figure 4.1).

In regards to hypothesis testing, the results provided only partial support for H<sub>1</sub> (see Figure 4.1). The path between fit (FT) and organizational identification (Org. ID) showed that employees' perceptions of CSR fit did not have a significant effect on organizational identification, because the p-value was .054 ( $\beta = .15$ ). This finding does not support H<sub>1a</sub>. It was found that society MT had a positive effect on Org. ID ( $\beta = .61, p < .01$ ), which supports H<sub>1b</sub>. The

path coefficients for firm MT and Org. ID ( $\beta = -.02$ ) and IN and Org. ID ( $\beta = -.09$ ) were negative, which suggests a negative relationship instead of a positive one. However, the p-value associated with each of those paths was greater than .05, which means that  $H_{1c}$  and  $H_{1d}$  were not supported. The hypothesized positive relationships between Org. ID and PSA ( $H_3$ ) ( $\beta = .47$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and Org. ID and OCBs ( $H_4$ ) ( $\beta = .54$ ,  $p < .01$ ) were supported.

The  $R^2$  values were used to assess the amount of variation accounted for in the endogenous variables by the exogenous variables. Employees' perceptions of CSR fit, firm motivation, society motivation, and investment explained 42% of the variance in organizational identification. Organizational identification explained 22% of the variance in PSA and 29% of the variance in OCBs (see Figure 4.1).



**Figure 4.1** Structural model.  $N=300$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 1.81$ ; CFI = .93; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .07; \* $p > .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .

#### 4.4.2. Moderation Effect

The next step in the data analysis was to test the hypothesized moderation effects.

Although the direct paths between FT, firm MT, IN and Org. ID were non-significant, the

question still remained whether employees' attitudes toward CSR could change that relationship. Therefore, the researcher decided to continue with the assessment of the hypothesized moderation effects.

The moderation effects were tested through LMS. LMS provides a stronger basis for evaluating the factor structure, controlling for measurement error, increasing power, and overall interpretation of the moderation effects (Marsh et al. 2006). Furthermore, LMS takes the non-normality of the data into account when testing the moderation effect (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000), and it is considered to be the optimal procedure when the hypothesized moderator is a latent and continuous variable (Klein & Moosbrugger), which is the case in the current study (i.e., employees' attitudes toward CSR).

LMS is considered a distribution-analytic approach (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000), that is, instead of creating product terms to test the moderation (i.e., interaction) effect of a variable, it uses the non-normality of the criterion variable to estimate model parameters (Schermelleh-Engel, Werner, Klein, & Moosbrugger, 2009). If a moderator effect exists, the criterion variable will not follow a normal distribution (Schermelleh-Engel et al.). In this study, Mplus was used to conduct LMS analyses. In Mplus, LMS uses the raw data instead of covariance matrices (Schermelleh-Engel et al.). Furthermore, Mplus uses a maximum likelihood estimator created specifically for LMS analyses (Muthén & Asparouhov, 2003).

Similar to SEM, the results are interpreted using the path coefficient and the p-value associated with the coefficient. In regards to hypothesis H<sub>2a</sub>, the moderation effect of employees' attitudes toward CSR on employees' perceptions of fit and organizational identification was not significant because the p-value was greater than .05 ( $\beta = -.02$ ). This finding does not support H<sub>2a</sub>. It was also found that employees' attitudes toward CSR did not moderate the relationship between society MT and Org. ID ( $\beta = -.03$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and firm MT and Org. ID ( $\beta = .01$ ,  $p > .05$ ). These findings do not provide support for H<sub>2b</sub> and H<sub>2c</sub>. Finally, the hypothesized moderation effect of employees' attitudes toward CSR on IN and Org. ID (H<sub>2d</sub>) was also not supported ( $\beta = -.01$ ,  $p > .05$ ). In summation, after a careful examination of the LMS results, it was evident that the hypothesized moderation effects of employees' attitudes toward CSR (H<sub>2</sub> and its derivatives) were not supported. All p-values related to the four different interaction effect coefficients were greater than .05, which means that the moderation effect, in all four cases, was not significant (see Table 4.12).



**Table 4.12 Moderation effect**

	xAttitudes	S.E.	p-value
<b>FT</b>	-.02	.04	.71
<b>Society MT</b>	-.03	.04	.38
<b>Firm MT</b>	.01	.03	.70
<b>IN</b>	-.01	.04	.72

*Note:* FT= Fit, Society MT= Society Motivation, Firm MT= Firm Motivation, IN= Investment.

#### 4.5 Summary of the Results

In this current chapter the researcher has presented the results of the pilot study and main study. Through the pilot study, the researcher was able to test the reliability of the scales. Although the alpha coefficients showed evidence of reliability, when taking a closer look through an examination of the item-to-total correlations, it was noticed that four items did not meet the criteria suggested by Osterlind (2006). Two of those items assessed interconnection to self and the other two PSA. Due to theoretical considerations, the two items assessing interconnection to self were retained and one new item was added. Due to theoretical considerations, the wording of one PSA item was changed and one item was deleted in order to improve the reliability of the scale for the main study.

Two samples were collected for the main study. The idea behind collecting two samples (sport and non-sport) was to test if the results varied by organizational context. However, the results of the mean difference tests suggested that there were not any differences among the employees of different organizations. Consequently, the samples were combined and treated as one sample for further analyses.

Reliability and validity assessments revealed that some changes could be made to the measurement model in order to improve the model fit to the data. One important change was to separate the motivation factor into two factors: perceived CSR society motivation and perceived CSR firm motivation. Further changes were made based on analyzing item-to-total correlations, factor loadings, the residual matrices, modification indices, and the theoretical background of several items. After several items were eliminated from the analysis, the measurement model showed good improvement (see Table 4.10).

Regarding hypothesis testing, the results are mixed. Although the structural model provided an acceptable fit to the data (see Figure 4.1), several of the hypotheses were not supported. Similarly, after assessing the moderation effect of employees' attitudes toward CSR,

it was shown that such effect was not statistically significant. To this end, only H<sub>1b</sub>, H<sub>3</sub>, and H<sub>4</sub> were fully supported. A summary of the hypothesis testing is included in Table 4.13. The results are discussed in depth in the next chapter of this dissertation.

**Table 4.13 Results of hypothesis testing**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	
<b>H<sub>1a</sub></b> : Employees' perceptions of CSR fit are positively related to organizational identification.	Not supported
<b>H<sub>1b</sub></b> : Employees' perceptions of CSR (society serving) motivation are positively related to organizational identification.	Supported
<b>H<sub>1c</sub></b> : Employees' perceptions of CSR (firm serving) motivation are negatively related to organizational identification.	Not supported
<b>H<sub>1d</sub></b> : Employees' perceptions of CSR investment are positively related to organizational identification.	Not supported
<b>H<sub>2a</sub></b> : Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR fit and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).	Not supported

**Table 4.13 Cont.**

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<b>Hypothesis</b>	
<b>H<sub>2c</sub>:</b> Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR motivation (firm serving) and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).	Not supported
<b>H<sub>2d</sub>:</b> Employees' attitude toward CSR moderates the relationship between perceptions of CSR investment and organizational identification such that as attitude toward CSR becomes more positive (negative), the positive relationship between perceptions of CSR and organizational identification becomes stronger (weaker).	Not supported
<b>H<sub>3</sub>:</b> Organizational identification is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.	Supported
<b>H<sub>4</sub>:</b> Organizational identification is positively related to personal social action.	Supported

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## **CHAPTER 5**

### **5.1 Discussion**

The main purpose of the present study was twofold: 1) to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification; and 2) to assess the potential moderating role of employees' attitudes toward CSR in the aforementioned relationship. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification?
2. Do employees' attitudes influence the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational identification?

Despite the recent increase in CSR-related research, the potential impact of CSR on employees' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors has been largely neglected (Kim et al., 2010). Therefore, the researcher attempted to fill this gap. An extensive review of literature was used with the purpose of developing a model that could be tested empirically. Several statistical analyses were conducted to test the proposed model. The results of those tests were presented in the previous chapter. Although the proposed model did not receive strong statistical support, the results provided noteworthy information. In this chapter the researcher addresses the interpretation and implications of the results, limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

### **5.2 Discussion of the Pilot Study Results**

The purpose of the pilot study was to assess the reliability of the scale. Although the items were tested in past studies, the researcher made significant changes to the wording of most items; therefore it was important to conduct a pilot study.

The results of the pilot study provided evidence of reliability overall for the measures included in the study. However, some changes were made to improve the psychometric properties of the measures for the main study. The changes involved the interconnection to self construct (identification scale) and the PSA construct. Due to the fact that two items measuring interconnection to self (i.e., "My organization is an important reflection of who I am" and "My organization successes are my successes"), had an item-to-total correlation lower than .40, a new item was added. According to Heere and James (2007), the interconnection to self dimension captures the importance of the connection of one's self image to the image of the group.

Therefore, when employees are highly identified with the organization, they may feel that the organization's successes are their successes, and may also feel that their organization is a reflection of who they are. So a new item was added for the main study that was believed to also capture the dimension. The new item was: "In general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self image." The researcher considered that this new item captured the concept of the dimension as specified by Heere and James. Furthermore, it was presumed that employees who were identified with their employer organization would agree with the statement as oppose to those employees who were not identified.

Two items assessing PSA showed an item-to-total correlation below .50. Those items were: "I donate blood at my organization-sponsored blood drives" and "I donate to a charity of my choice through work." The first item simply did not work in this study. It is important to note that Ellis (2008) developed her PSA items based on a specific organization. Hence, some of the PSA behaviors she assessed were specific to that organization. It is reasonable to consider that not all organizations sponsored blood drives and not all individuals are willing to donate blood. Consequently, some of the items she utilized are not suitable for other studies, like the present one. The decision was not to utilize this item for the main study.

The wording of the second item from the PSA construct was changed from, "I donate to a charity of my choice through work" to "I donate to a charity linked to my employer organization." It was determined that although some organizations offer the option to their employees to deduct their donations directly from their paycheck, other organizations do not do the same. Accordingly, the wording of the item was changed to reflect a more generic statement. Just like Ellis (2008) did in her study, the use of a more specific item may be successful when conducting a study with employees of organizations that have the donation payroll deduction option available to their employees. Moreover, more specific items can also be developed by researchers that assess other types of PSA, for example, participating in Habitat for Humanity initiatives, recycling, reading for children, etc. Due to the fact that there is a vast number of CSR initiatives implemented by organizations, when assessing PSA, future studies can adapt the items developed by Ellis or can create items that reflect the CSR initiatives of the organizations they are conducting their studies with.

### **5.3.1 Discussion of the Main Study Results**

The main study was conducted with the purpose of assessing the construct validity of the measurement model as well as to examine the research hypotheses through SEM. The discussion of the results of the main study is presented below.

#### *5.3.1 Mean Difference Tests*

For the main study, two samples were collected. One sample was composed of individuals working for non-sport organizations, while the other sample was composed of individuals working for sport organizations. Hantrais (1995) suggested that conducting such comparisons among samples will establish empirical evidence supporting whether organizational phenomena can be explained by the same causes or if it varies by organizational context. Moreover, as noted in previous chapters, CSR initiatives implemented by sport organizations seem to receive greater attention by the media and general public, thus, the researcher attempted to test if CSR can be considered a stronger predictor of organizational identification among individuals working for sport organizations than for individuals working in other industries.

After conducting mean difference tests (i.e., t-tests), the results showed that some tests were significant while others were not (see Table 4.4.). The problem with statistically significant t-tests is that they fail to tell us the magnitude of the difference (Field & Hole, 2003). For this reason, it is important to calculate the effect size. The effect size is a parameter that tells us how strong mean differences really are (Field & Hole). Based on Cohen's suggested cutoffs, it was evident that the effect sizes of all factors were very small (see Table 4.4.). Therefore, the researcher concluded that the mean differences between groups were not practically significant and perhaps those small mean differences shown in some of the t-tests were due to statistical noise. Accordingly, this study failed to provide evidence to support that employees' perceptions of CSR are a stronger predictor of organizational identification for individuals working for sport organizations than for individuals working in other industries.

Base on the results of the mean difference tests, it is possible that the argument proposed by the researcher that CSR initiatives implemented by sport organizations receive greater media attention is not necessarily true. For this reason, CSR cannot be considered a stronger predictor of organizational identification for individuals working for sport organizations. Another possible explanation for the results is that although all the respondents met the boundary condition for this study, that is they were aware of the organization's CSR initiatives, they may not care about

them. If this was the case, it would not matter if they are aware of the organization's socially responsible efforts because their lack of interest in such efforts will not have an impact on their organizational identification.

### *5.3.2 Measurement Model*

In order to examine the measurement model and subsequently test the hypothesized relationships, the sample was split into two subsets. The first subset (n=215) was used to test the measurement model. When assessing the item-to-total correlations and factor loadings, one of the first results that became evident was that the items used to assess perceived CSR motivation formed two different factors instead of one. Therefore, the items were divided into two factors: perceived CSR society motivation and perceived CSR firm motivation.

As explained in Chapter 3, the perceived motivation items were adapted from Speed and Thompson (2000) and Barone et al. (2000). Specifically, the items from Speed and Thompson's study assessed perceived society serving motives; which means that they assessed the extent to which employees perceive that the organization supports a social cause without seeking anything in return (Webb & Mohr, 1998). On the contrary, the items adapted from Barone et al.'s study measure the extent to which employees perceive that through CSR initiatives, the organization is simply pursuing its own self interest. In other words, employees perceive ulterior motives for engaging in CSR (e.g., increase media exposure) (Webb & Mohr). The items adapted from both studies were never used before to assess two dimensions of employees' perceptions of CSR motivation. Therefore, the results of this study provide evidence suggesting that future organizational-related studies may utilize the perceived CSR motivation items as an assessment of those two dimensions of perceived CSR motivation: society-serving and firm-serving.

The next step in the data analysis was to examine model fit. Modifications to the measurement model were necessary due to problems with some items. Such problematic items yielded poor model fit. Four problematic items were from the organizational identification scale. Specifically, two items were from the interconnection to self factor: "When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult" and "in general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self image." One item was from the behavioral involvement factor: "I participate in different activities outside work with my coworkers." One item was from the sense of interdependence factor: "My destiny is tied to the destiny of my

organization.” There are a few reasons that can explain why these items were problematic. These reasons are addressed below.

Regarding the first item from the interconnection to self factor, it is noteworthy that past studies that have used this identification scale have also had problems with this item (e.g., Alfaro-Barrantes et al., 2010). One reason could be the wording. The item contains two words that are perceived as negative (i.e., criticizes and insult). Hence, when reading the item, respondents may have been confused by the used of two perceived negative words, which are similar to a “double negative.”

Another reason could be explained by the concept of cutting-of-reflected-failure (CORFing). According to Cialdiani et al., (1976), fans of sport teams associated themselves with winning teams. This phenomenon is known as basking-in-reflected-glory (BIRGing) and reflects the premise of vicarious achievement (Cialdiani et al.). However, in order to protect their identity and to an extent their self-esteem fans tend to distance themselves from teams that fail. This phenomenon is known as CORFing (Snyder, Lassergard, & Ford, 1986). Two other items used to assess interconnection to self could be considered BIRGing items: “When someone compliments my organization, it feels like a personal compliment” and “my organization’s successes are my successes.” Both items performed just fine; which lead us to believe that, similar to sport fans, employees may also engage in BIRGing and CORFing processes. They bask-in-the-reflected-glories of the organization but tend to distance themselves when the organization fails or is under criticism. This could be an explanation for why the item “when someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult,” did not work in this study.

Regarding the second item that was eliminated from the interconnection to self factor (i.e., in general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self image), it is important to remember that this item was created by the researcher and it was added after the pilot study was conducted; therefore, it was not possible to test the item before conducting the main study. Although this item may seem similar to IntS3 (i.e., my organization is an important reflection of who I am), it is different in the sense that it asks about the employees’ self-image. Perhaps for the participants other social associations in their lives are more important for their self image rather than being associated with their organization. For example, for some individuals possibly being associated with their family, a sport team, or a group of friends may be a more important part of their self image than being an employee of a specific organization.



A rather simple perspective can be used to explain the reason why the item from the behavioral involvement factor (i.e., I participate in different activities outside work with my coworkers) did not work. It is possible that individuals do not socialize with their coworkers in activities outside their work. On the other hand, a sample-related issue may have had a negative impact on the item from the sense of interdependence factor (i.e., my destiny is tied to the destiny of my organization). Approximately 49% of the respondents said they had been working with their organization for less than four years. This may be considered a short period of time to feel that someone's destiny is tied to the organization. Furthermore, because of the economic crisis that the United States is currently facing, it is possible that some individuals are currently working for their organization because of the lack of alternatives; however, they might be considering leaving the organization if they find another job when they perceive that the economy is in a better state.

Other problematic items were part of the constructs that assessed employees' perceptions of CSR. Specifically, three items assessed perceptions of CSR fit: "There is a logical connection between my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in," "the image of my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in are similar," and "my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in fit together well." One item came from the perceived CSR society motivation factor: "The main reason my organization is involved in different social initiatives is because it cares about the well-being of society." Two items assessed perceived CSR firm motivation: "When my organization supports different social causes, my organization benefits more than the cause," and "when my organization supports different charities, my organization benefits more than the cause." Lastly, two items were from the perceived investment construct: "My organization seems to invest a great deal of money in different social initiatives" and "my organization seems to invest a great deal of money in supporting different charities." A number of reasons can explain why these items were problematic. These reasons are addressed below.

From a wording perspective, the three items from the perceived CSR fit construct and the one item from the perceived CSR society motivation construct shared the same problem. All of these items focused on the relationship between the organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in. The wording problem is the phrase: social initiatives. Perhaps respondents did not understand what social initiatives entail as the questionnaire did not provide any examples. The

items that were retained from both constructs asked about the organization and the charities that it supports. From a measurement perspective, all of those items that were retained in both constructs worked well. It may be that the respondents did not differentiate between supporting social initiatives and supporting a (or a variety of) charity. On the other hand, it could be possible that respondents were aware that their organization supports a (or a variety of) charity but were not aware of other social initiatives. Before sending the questionnaire to different organizations, the researcher found information about the different CSR activities that the organizations were engaged in; hence, the researcher is certain all organizations were engaged in social initiatives that went beyond charitable giving. In order to improve the perceived CSR fit measure, it is important that future studies provide examples of what type of activities are considered ‘social initiatives.’

Regarding the two items from the perceived CSR firm motivation construct (i.e., “when my organization supports different social causes, my organization benefits more than the cause;” “when my organization supports different charities, my organization benefits more than the cause”), it can be said that possibly the respondents did not think that the organization enjoyed great benefits when supporting a charity or a social cause. They may perceive that the charity or social cause benefited more than the organization itself. It is important to note that after these two items were removed from the analysis, only two items remained in the perceived CSR firm motivation construct. Due to the fact that the reliability and validity analyses suggested that this dimension existed, it is important that in future research new items are added in order to improve the assessment of the construct.

The explanation of the issues related to the two items from the perceived investment construct (i.e., “my organization seems to invest a great deal of money in different social initiatives;” “my organization seems to invest a great deal of money in supporting different charities”) could be rather simple. Respondents did not perceive that their organization invested a great amount of money in their CSR initiatives. However, the issue may also be related to CSR awareness. According to Pickens (2009), awareness plays an important role in the perception process, which means that being aware of the amount of money that organizations invest in CSR may have a positive or negative impact of employees’ perceptions of CSR. Being aware of the amount of money that the organization invests in its CSR initiatives may lead the employees to perceive that the organization cares about the well-being of society.

On the other hand, drawing from the premise of stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984), it can be argued that employees are stakeholders that are self-interested. Accordingly, it is possible that greater CSR investment can actually anger employees because they may perceive that the organization invests a lot of money in its CSR initiatives and not enough money in its employees. Perhaps this is one of the reasons why organizations avoid communicating the amount of money they invest in their CSR initiatives and as a consequence, employees perceive that the amount of money their employer organization invests in CSR is not a great deal.

The last few items that presented measurement issues were from the attitudes and behavioral constructs. Specifically, two items from the employees' attitudes toward CSR construct: "Being socially responsible is one of the most important things an organization can do" and "organizations have a social responsibility beyond making a profit." One item from the PSA construct: "I donate to a charity linked to my employer organization." Three items from the OCBs construct: "I consider the impact of my actions on my coworkers," "I try to help others who have been absent from work," "I often help to orient new people even though it is not required." A possible explanation addressing why these items were problematic is included below.

The two items from the employees' attitudes toward CSR construct (i.e., "being socially responsible is one of the most important things an organization can do" and "organizations have a social responsibility beyond making a profit") may be perceived to suggest that CSR should be one of the top priorities of a profitable organization. The other items that were retained, however, specifically asked if the organization should have CSR initiatives but do not place CSR on the priority list. Because the two items that were eliminated demonstrated measurement issues, it seems that respondents did not think that CSR should be on the priority list. These results may imply that employees think that organizations have other more important responsibilities. It is possible that the current American economic crisis also affected the way that employees responded to these items. Perhaps if the economy was in stronger position employees would have answered differently; however, because of the struggling economy, employees may perceive that nowadays organizations face more urgent and important demands from stakeholders than CSR (c.f., Agle et al., 1999).

Regarding the item from the PSA construct (i.e., "I donate to a charity linked to my employer organization"), it was explained in the previous chapter that perhaps its low loading and high residual values were due to the fact that possibly employees do not necessarily donate

to charities through their work. It is possible that they donate to charities but not necessarily to those charities linked to their employer organization.

In relation to the OCBs items that were removed (i.e., “I consider the impact of my actions on my coworkers;” “I try to help others who have been absent from work;” and “I often help to orient new people even though it is not required”), it is surprising that they had such high residuals (>4.21). As it was explained in the third chapter, other researchers have found that all items used in this study to assess OCBs were reliable and valid (e.g, Hall et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 1990). The main problem in this study was that the modification indices showed that those three items cross-loaded with items measuring PSA. This evidence was also surprising because the PSA items were very different from the OCBs items and they did not assess the same type of behavior.

According to Ellis (2008), PSA includes social activities that are created to benefit a particular group of people or the community as a whole and which “under favorable circumstances, produce actual empowerment, impact or social change” (Horvath, 1999, p. 221). PSA does not include CSR activities undertaken by the organization that “have no employee involvement such as community grants, donations, corporate-wide sustainability programs, and in-kind donations” (Ellis, p. 29). OCBs, on the other hand, are discretionary behaviors that are not directly or explicitly recognized by an organizational reward system (Organ et al., 2006). Hence, while PSA involvement is sponsored and promoted by the organization, OCBs involvement is not. In any case, only three items that assess OCBs were retained in this study. It is important to recognize, however, that the three items that were removed may work in other contexts, so future studies should use the six-item OCBs scale developed by Podsakoff et al. After all the items that presented measurement issues were removed, the measurement model provided better fit to the data. Examining the measurement model was necessary so that the structural model and all hypothesized relationships could be tested.

### *5.3.3 Structural Model*

Due to the fact that the measurement model provided an acceptable fit to the data, the next step was to examine the overall fit of the structural model. This step was necessary prior to examining the research hypotheses. Based on the combinational approach to model fit evaluation proposed by Hu and Bentler (1998), it was evident that most of goodness-of-fit indices fell

within the accepted cutoff values. This was indication that the hypothesized structural model provided an acceptable fit to the data (see Figure 4.1).

The assessment of the research hypotheses was conducted through an evaluation of each path coefficient in the structural model. The non-significant path coefficients will be addressed first. In regards to the path between employees' perceptions of CSR fit and organizational identification, the path coefficient ( $\beta = .15$ ) was positive but the p-value was .054. Given that the conventional p-value for significant results should be lower than .05, this result does not support the hypothesis that employees' perceptions of fit have a positive impact on organizational identification.

The p-value associated with the path coefficients between perceived CSR firm-serving motivation and organizational identification ( $\beta = -.02$ ) was higher than .05, which means that the hypothesized relationship is non-significant. Likewise, the hypothesized relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR investment and organizational identification was non-significant ( $\beta = -.09$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Interestingly enough, both path coefficients were negative, which might suggest that as both independent variables increase, organizational identification decreases. However, because both p-values were above .05, the negative relationship suggested by the negative path coefficient is not significant. In view of the fact that, as explained in Chapter 2, consumer behavior research found a positive relationship between consumers' perceptions of CSR fit, perceptions of firm-serving motivation, and consumers' attitudes and behaviors, the results obtained in this study are puzzling. Perhaps the issue that contributed to these non-significant results was that the researcher mainly utilized consumer behavior literature to postulate the relationships between the variables in this study.

After thinking back about the literature utilized, I have come to the conclusion that perhaps was incorrect to assume that because consumer behavior studies showed that consumers felt or reacted in a certain way to CSR, employees will do the same. This, I now think, was a rather simplistic assumption. Despite the non-significant results, I still believe that the perceived congruency between the organization and its CSR initiatives as well as the perceived firm-serving motives, may impact the sense of connection (i.e., identification) that employees have with their organization. There is literature supporting the notion that an organization's mission statement, values, work practices, organizational culture, activities toward the community, among others can impact employees' perceived person-organization fit (Kristoff, 1996).

Therefore, what continues to be necessary is to conduct more empirical organizational studies that examine the impact of CSR on employees' attitudes and behaviors.

In order to build better frameworks applicable to organizational contexts, I believe that those studies should be of qualitative nature. Qualitative studies can provide the insights of what employees think and perceive in relation to CSR fit and firm-serving motivation. For instance, Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) and Webb and Mohr (1998) suggested that if consumers perceived a good fit between the organization and its CSR initiatives and they perceive them as altruistic, then they will perceive such initiatives as sincere efforts to help society. If the concept of fit is examined through qualitative work, employees can provide more in-depth information about if perceiving a good fit between the organization's CSR initiatives and the organization's mission statement and organizational values is important to them. Furthermore, employees can also explain how important is to them that the organization's CSR initiatives are society-serving instead of firm-serving. Consequently, conducting such qualitative studies will aid researchers in creating better quantitative measurement tools to assess constructs such as fit and firm-serving motivation.

The results obtained between the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR investment and organizational identification were also likely due to assuming that consumer behavior "equates" to employee perceptions. As it was mentioned in previous chapters, this was the first study that examined the impact of perceived CSR investment in the context of organizational behavior. Regardless of the non-significant results obtained here, I still think that employees' perceptions of CSR investment can impact their organizational identification. If they perceive that the organization invests a lot of resources in their CSR initiatives, they may perceive that the organization really cares about the community and therefore, it cares about them and their families. The high correlation found in this study between society-serving motivation and investment ( $r = .84$ ) may support this contention. This perception may lead to sentiments of emotional connection to the organization which can also impact their organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

This relationship may become even stronger if individuals are highly identified with their communities, so there is a possibility that their community identification can positively influence their organizational identification if they perceive that their organization really cares about their community. On the other hand, if employees perceive CSR investments as a waste of resources,

then they can think that the organization does not care about its employees, which may lead to “disidentification” (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004). So, there is a potential impact (positive or negative) of employees’ perceptions of CSR investment on organizational identification, however, more studies—specially qualitative studies—are needed to develop frameworks that are applicable to internal stakeholders (i.e., employees).

In regards to the effect of perceived CSR society motivation on organizational identification ( $H_{1b}$ ), it was found that—after controlling for the other variables in the model—perceived CSR society motivation had a significant positive effect on organizational identification ( $\beta = .61, p < .01$ ). Previous consumer behavior research provided evidence supporting this finding (e.g., Speed & Thompson, 2000; Webb & Mohr, 1998). Scholars in the consumer behavior realm posited that consumers will develop affective emotions toward brands and organizations that support different social causes without seeking anything in return (Webb & Mohr). In other words, consumers are more likely to identify with brands and organizations that are perceived as having CSR initiatives driven by altruistic motives. Despite those findings in the consumer behavior literature, to my knowledge, this is the first study that operationalized and empirically examined this dimension of CSR in relation to employees’ perceptions. This finding provides evidence that this dimension exists and that employees’ perceptions of altruistic CSR do have a positive impact on their organizational identification. This finding is important because it shows that when organizations communicate their socially responsible efforts to their employees, they should do it in a way that employees perceive their efforts to be altruistic and not firm-serving.

Regarding the third and fourth hypotheses in this study, the author proposed a positive significant relationship between organizational identification and OCBs ( $H_3$ ) and between organizational identification and PSA ( $H_4$ ). The results also showed that organizational identification had a significant positive effect on OCBs ( $\beta = .54, p < .01$ ). Testing this relationship was necessary due to the fact that empirical evidence supporting this relationship was contradictory (c.f., O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Wagner & Rush, 2000). The results of this study showed a positive significant relationship between these variables, which supports the premise that when employees identify with the organization, they will behave in a way that is congruent with the organization’s objectives (Barney & Stewart, 2000). Therefore, if the organization promotes a cooperative environment among its employees, employees will more likely be

cooperative. If the organization engages in social responsible behavior and promotes this type of behavior among the employees, then the employees will likely behave in the same manner.

The results showed that organizational identification had a significant positive effect on PSA ( $\beta = .47, p < .01$ ). According to Ellis (2008), PSA includes all employees' social-related actions supported by and/or sponsored by the organization. In her study, Ellis hypothesized a positive relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and PSA, however, this relationship was not supported. Based on Ellis' study and the results of the present research, it is evident that employees' perceptions of CSR themselves do not lead to PSA but organizational identification does. Future studies could use the results presented here and examine if different levels of organizational identification impact PSA differently. For example, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that highly identified employees were more likely to engage in extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCBs). An extension of this finding to consider is the possibility that highly identified employees may be more likely to engage in PSA than employees with a lower level of identification.

#### *5.3.4. Moderation Effect*

The results of the moderation analyses were different from what was hypothesized. After a careful examination of the LMS results, it was evident that the hypothesized moderation effects of employees' attitudes toward CSR ( $H_2$  and its derivatives) were not supported. All p-values related to the four different interaction effect coefficients were greater than .05, which means that the moderation effect was not significant (see Table 4.8). The hypothesized moderation effect in this study was made based on the research conducted by Fazio and Williams (1986) and Raden (1985). According to these researchers, individuals' attitudes and the strength of those attitudes impact variables such as perceptions and behavior differently. Therefore, it was argued here that the influence of employees' perceptions on identification might change according to their attitude (positive or negative) toward CSR initiatives. However, the empirical results did not support this argument.

Perhaps the results were influenced by the fact that the questions that assessed attitudes were general statements about CSR and not about specific CSR initiatives that the organizations engaged in. It is also possible that self-response bias might have affected the proposed moderation effect. Based on the standard deviation of the construct ( $SD = 1.51$ ), it is evident that there was not much variation among the respondents; therefore, the moderation effect could have



been affected by the way employees responded to the questions. The results could also have been influenced by a more complicated and closer (i.e., highly correlated) relationship between perceptions and attitudes. Future studies should attempt to find if attitudes have a direct impact on perceptions, or if they moderate perceptions of CSR in a different way that was not captured in the present research.

#### **5.4 Contributions of the Study**

Regardless that the model proposed in this study did not receive overwhelming empirical support; the results still provide significant insights and contributions to the literature and practice. First, even though in recent years organizations have established more visible CSR programs, only a few studies have examined the impact of those programs on employees' attitudes and behaviors (Kim et al., 2010). This study has advanced the study of CSR and its impact on employees. Furthermore, according to Wolfe et al. (2005), within the field of sport management, organizational research studies are very limited. Due to the fact that a sample composed of employees working for sport organizations was used in this study, the results obtained contribute to the advancement of this subject within the sport realm.

As a second contribution to the literature, this study provided evidence suggesting that employees of sport organizations and non-sport sport organizations are not that different. Even though CSR initiatives implemented by sport organizations seem to receive greater attention by the media and general public, employees' perceptions of CSR—at least in this study—did not have a different impact on employees of sport organizations. This study provides some evidence supporting the proposition that organizational phenomena can be explained by the same causes or it does not vary by organizational context, a suggestion put forward by Hantrais (1995).

A third contribution of this study is the evidence suggesting if employees trust in the reliability and integrity of the organization's CSR initiatives, such initiatives can have a positive influence on employees' perceptions regarding an organization's motives for engaging in CSR. Based on the results obtained, if employees perceive CSR initiatives as sincere efforts to help society, such perceptions can contribute to identification with the organization. This finding is important for practitioners, because instead of just evaluating the financial and corporate image impact of CSR, practitioners can consider the positive effect that CSR can have on their employees' identification. As mentioned in the literature review, identification is important because its relationship with negative outcomes such as turnover intentions and absenteeism

(O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Moreover, the researcher also found that organizational identification has a positive impact on OCBs and PSA. Although OCBs are not explicitly rewarded within an organization, they are relevant to the efficient and effective function of the organization (Organ et al. 2006). Likewise, PSA is important because such behavior can contribute to the success of the CSR initiatives promoted and sponsored by the organization (Ellis, 2008). Therefore, it is imperative for practitioners to identify “tools” like CSR that can be utilized as a ways of developing employees’ organizational identification.

### **5.5 Limitations of the Study**

Like any other work, the present study is not without limitations. The first limitation, which I acknowledged in the discussion section, was the utilization of consumer behavior literature to draw hypotheses related to employees’ perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors. Although researchers can use literature from other fields to support their hypotheses, using mainly consumer behavior literature to draw the proposed relationships in this study, may have not truly represented the relationships among variables in the context of organizational behavior, specifically when examining employees and their perceptions of and attitudes toward CSR.

Moreover, due to the fact that the researcher only analyzed the relationship between the variables in one direction, the directionality/causality of the hypothesized relationships is also a limitation. For instance, if employees identify with their employer organization for reasons unrelated to CSR, their perceptions of the organization’s CSR and the attributions made about the CSR initiatives can also be impacted by their organizational identification. In other words, because the employees identified with their employer organization, there is a halo effect and how they view the organization’s CSR initiatives. This relationship needs yet to be further examined.

Another limitation of this study is that the data was cross-sectional, that is, the data collection occurred at one point in time (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The information gathered in a cross-sectional study is only representative of the sample at a single point in time; as a result, it is not possible for the researcher to discern employees’ more stable feelings, opinions, and/or perceptions from those that can be considered temporary (Yee & Niemeier, 1996). The sampling technique that was utilized also limits the generalizability of the current study. Convenience sampling is commonly used when the researcher does not have access to all the population, and includes participants that volunteer to participate in the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). When using a convenience sample the results cannot be generalized to the

population of interest because not everyone in the population has an equal chance to being included in the sample (Johnson & Christensen). Regardless of this limitation, a convenience sample was used in this study because it was impossible for the researcher to draw a random sample from the population of interest.

An additional limitation of the current study is the possibility of self-reporting bias. Although employees did not have to include information that could identify them, it is likely that they still believed that “there is at least a remote possibility that their employer could gain access to their responses” (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002, p. 247), even more so because one person from their own organization was responsible for sending the survey’s link to their email address. Consequently, they might have avoided reporting or under-reporting behaviors deemed unacceptable or inappropriate in an organizational context, and over-reporting behaviors that are considered appropriate (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone). However, self-reports are considered appropriate when measuring perceptions and attitudes because the “truth” resides in the participants’ minds and it cannot be accessed by a third objective source (Glick et al., 1986). The self-report bias limitation may be increased by the fact that only one method of data collection was used (i.e., survey). This limitation is known as common method bias. After acknowledging that this limitation does exist, the key is to control for it (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In order to control for this type of bias, the author gathered measures from different sources so that measures of the predictor and criterion variables were different. Furthermore, the order of the questions was counterbalanced, so that the participants were less likely to answer the same way to similar items (Podsakoff et al.).

### **5.6 Recommendations for Future Research**

Due to the fact that only part of the conceptual model was empirically tested (see Figures 1.1 and 1.2), future studies are needed in order to test all the proposed relationships. Furthermore, it is reasonable to believe that other variables also play a role in the relationships among the variables that were examined in this study. Variables such as organizational support, work-family conflict, working conditions, pay structure, employees’ needs, among others can also influence employees’ organizational identification. For example, regarding employees’ needs, content theories (i.e., need-based theories) suggest that different contents (e.g., the work environment) motivate employees to engage in specific behaviors (Chelladurai, 1999). Therefore, if organizational factors or actions (e.g., CSR initiatives) satisfy employees’ needs,

employees will be more likely to commit to the organization as well as engage in OCBs and PSAs. Future research could test if employees' needs moderate the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR, organizational identification, and organizational commitment.

Regarding the relationship between organizational identification and organizational commitment proposed in the conceptual model, future studies can be used to test if different levels of organizational identification exist and if so, whether such levels impact the different types of organizational commitment differentially. For instance, it could be possible that employees who are highly identified demonstrate lower continuance commitment but high affective commitment. Future empirical studies are needed to test contentions like this one.

Overall, the use of a multidimensional scale of organizational identification was neither detrimental nor beneficial to this study. Due to the way that the research hypotheses were written, when conducting the statistical analyses organizational identification was considered unidimensional. However, as it was mentioned in Chapter 2, there exists evidence suggesting that identification is a multidimensional construct (Heere & James, 2007). Future studies, however, could consider examining the impact of employees' perceptions of CSR on each dimension of organizational identification to test if, perhaps, the different factors of employees' perceptions of CSR impact each dimension of organizational identification differently. For instance, it could be possible that employees' perceptions of CSR society-serving motivation is a better predictor of behavioral involvement rather than cognitive awareness. Such relationships can be examined in future research.

As it was explained in the discussion section, it is possible that greater CSR investment can actually anger employees because they may perceive that the organization invests a lot of money in its CSR initiatives, and not enough money in its employees. This can have a negative impact on employees' identification, commitment to their jobs, OCBs, and PSA. Therefore, it is important for future studies to examine this potential negative impact of CSR. Additionally, there are organizations, such as Ben & Jerry's, where employees' CSR involvement is rewarded. However, the majority of organizations do not have a similar reward system in place. Future studies could examine if CSR impacts employees' identification differently depending on the organization's CSR reward system that they have (do not have) in place.

Due to the fact that the proposed model did not receive overwhelming empirical support, it is necessary to conduct more empirical organizational studies that examine the impact of CSR

on employees' attitudes and behaviors. However, as explained in the discussion section, in order to build better frameworks applicable to organizational contexts, I believe that those studies should be of qualitative nature. Qualitative studies can provide the insights of what employees think and perceive in relation to CSR. For instance, after completing the questionnaire, at least four participants sent an email to the researcher expressing that although they think that CSR is important, it is difficult for them to accept that their employer organizations had cut departments' budgets and had laid-off several of their employees, but their CSR programs still continue to receive a lot of (monetary) support. Comments like this one show that qualitative studies can capture what employees think about CSR and how they perceive CSR in a better way than do quantitative (i.e., survey) studies. Conducting qualitative studies will aid researchers in creating better quantitative measurement tools to assess the constructs examined in the present study.

Finally, through the analysis the researcher found evidence of a positive relationship between organizational identification and OCBs and PSA. Future studies could examine if different levels of organizational identification exist and if such levels impact OCBs and PSA differentially. Both of these behaviors are important because although OCBs are discretionary and not explicitly rewarded, they support the efficient and effective functioning of organizations (Organ et al., 2006). In addition, employees' participation in PSAs is important because they can contribute to the success of social initiatives sponsored by the organization (Ellis, 2008). For example, it is possible that highly identified employees participate in several of the organization's sponsored/promoted CSR initiatives. However, it is also possible that employees who are not highly identified do not participate as much or perhaps if they do participate in CSR activities they do so for shorter periods of time, or are responsible for easier tasks than those employees who are highly identified.

### **5.7 Conclusion**

CSR has become a prominent area of study in organizational and consumer research, and has taken on greater importance as organizations engage in socially responsible initiatives beyond those required by law (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Although the importance of CSR seems to have increased, research related to the impact of such initiatives on employees' attitudes and behaviors is still limited. Through the current study the researcher attempted to further the understanding of how CSR, specifically employees' perceptions of CSR, impact employee attitudes and behaviors. Despite the fact that the proposed model did not receive

overwhelming empirical support, the results provided insightful information that future research studies can utilize to advance the knowledge of this topic. For instance, the results provided evidence suggesting that when employees perceive that their organization engages in CSR for altruistic reasons (i.e., to help society), their organizational identification is positively impacted. In addition, this study provided evidence suggesting that organizational identification is positively related to employees' OCBs and PSA. Although the ideas and findings presented here merit further research, the current study represents an initial effort to provide researchers and practitioners with more information pertaining to CSR and its potential positive impact on employees' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors.

## **APPENDIX A**

### **Institutional Review Board Approval Notice**

Office of the Vice President For Research

Human Subjects Committee

Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742

(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

#### **APPROVAL MEMORANDUM**

Date: 9/23/2010

To: Priscila Alfaro-Barrantes

Address: 4280

Dept.: SPORT MANAGEMENT

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research

Employees' perceptions of CSR

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR § 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be

used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 9/21/2011 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the Chair of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Jeffrey James, Advisor

HSC No. 2010.4847



## APPENDIX B

### Consent Form



THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION  
*Department of Sport Management*

Dear Sir/Madam,

We are conducting a research study to better understand the impact that corporate social responsibility initiatives have on employees' attitudes and behaviors. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to examine the impact of corporate social responsibility initiatives on employees' attitudes and behaviors. We are requesting your participation, which will involve completing a questionnaire.

Please note:

- The questionnaire will take between 12-18 minutes to complete. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty.
- All participants must be at least 18 years old.
- This survey is completely anonymous and confidential. Your privacy is ensured. Your participation is voluntary. Be assured that only the main researcher will have access to individual responses, and they will be used for research purposes only. The researcher anticipates keeping the information gathered in this study for approximately 5 years.
- The results of the research study may be published, but neither your name nor any other type of identifiable information will be used. The records of this study will be kept private and confidential to the extent permitted by law.
- Although there are not direct risks and/or benefits for participating in this study, your participation in this study will provide researchers with a better understanding of employees' attitudes and behaviors.
- As a thank you for participation, we offer the opportunity to participate in a \$50 Visa gift card drawing. To be eligible for the drawing, the questionnaire must be fully completed.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact Priscila Alfaro-Barrantes, email: [xxxx@fsu.edu](mailto:xxxx@fsu.edu), or Dr. Jeffrey James at (850) 644-xxxx (email: [xxxx](mailto:xxxx)). If you have any further questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researchers, you are encouraged to contact the FSU Institutional Review Board at 2010 Levy Street, Research Building B, Suite 276, Tallahassee, FL 32306-2742, or 850-644-8633, or by email at [humansubjects@magnet.fsu.edu](mailto:humansubjects@magnet.fsu.edu).

***Return of the completed questionnaire will be considered your consent to participate.***

Sincerely,

Priscila Alfaro-Barrantes

Doctoral Student

B004 Tully Gym

Sport Management

Florida State University

Tallahassee, FL 32306-4280

Dr. Jeffrey James

Professor (Advisor)

Sport Management

Florida State University

Tallahassee, FL 32306-4280

FSU Human Subjects Committee Approved 9/22/10. Void after 9/21/11. HSC # 2010.4847

## APPENDIX C

### Questionnaire

Please rate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following items by circling the appropriate number in the scale beside each statement.

**When answering the following questions, please think about your current employer organization.**

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1. Overall, my organization is viewed positively by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I feel good about being a member of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I am actively involved in different activities promoted by my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. I am familiar with the history of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. What happens to my organization will have an impact on my own life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. In general, others respect the organization I work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I am proud to think of myself as a member of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. When someone compliments my organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I participate in different activities at work with my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. I know the in and outs of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. What happens to my organization will influence what happens in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. Overall, people hold a favorable opinion about my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. In general, I am glad to be a member of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. My organization is an important reflection of who I am.								
16. I participate in different activities outside work with my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17. I have knowledge of the successes and failures of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18. My destiny is tied to the destiny of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19. I participate in different activities that my organization supports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
20. My organization's successes are my successes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
21. When someone compliments my organization, it feels like a personal compliment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22. In general, being associated with my organization is an important part of my self image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

**Please continue onto the next page**

23. As far as you know, your organization: (select all that apply):

- Donates to charity.
- Contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.
- Gives back to the community in which does business.
- Has employee-volunteer programs.
- Participates in other socially responsible initiatives such as (please specify)

---

Does not participate in any socially responsible initiatives.

Please rate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following items by circling the appropriate number in the scale beside each statement.

**When answering the following questions, please think about the social causes that your employer organization supports.**

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
24. My organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in fit together well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
25. The main reason my organization is involved in different social initiatives is because it cares about the well-being of society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
26. When my organization supports different social causes, my organization benefits more than the cause.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
27. There is a logical connection between my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
28. My organization supports different social causes in order to increase revenue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
29. The image of my organization and the social initiatives that it is involved in are similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
30. The main reason that my organization donates to charity is because my organization believes in supporting the cause.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
31. There is a logical connection between my organization and the charities that it supports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
32. My organization supports different charities in order to increase revenue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
33. My organization and the charities that it supports fit together well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
34. When my organization supports different charities, my organization benefits more than the cause.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
35. The image of my organization and the image of the charities that it supports are similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
36. The social causes that my organization supports are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
37. Organizations have a social responsibility beyond making profit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
38. Companies should make regular donations to charity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
39. It is important to me that my organization is involved in different social initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. Being socially responsible is one of the most important things an organization can do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I am more likely to feel good about my organization if I know that it supports different social causes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. My organization seems to really care about the charities that it supports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. My organization seems to have a genuine interest in the social causes that it supports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>effort</u> in supporting different charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>money</u> in supporting different charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>time</u> in supporting different charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

47. It is important for me that my organization supports local charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Organizations should support different social causes by giving money, products, or other types of assistance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>effort</u> in different social initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>money</u> in different social initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. My organization seems to invest a great deal of <u>time</u> in different social initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Please rate how often you participate in the following:**

	Infrequently				Frequently		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. I participate in social benefit events that my organization promotes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. I donate to a charity link to my employer organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. I donate my expertise and skills to community organizations link to my employer organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. I volunteer in social benefit events that my organization promotes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. What other community or social causes do you participate in through your job? _____							

Please rate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each of the following items by circling the appropriate number in the scale beside each statement.

**When answering the following questions, please think about your role in your current employer organization.**

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. I consider the impact of my actions on my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. I try to help others who have been absent from work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. I try to help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. I often help to orient new people even though it is not required.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

61. I willingly help others who have work related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. I am always willing to lend a helping hand to those around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Please tell us a little about yourself by circling or filling in the appropriate response.**

- Your employer organization can be classified as which the following:
  - a. Health industry (e.g., health insurance, hospital, medical related, etc)
  - b. Retail (e.g., clothing store, supermarket, etc)
  - c. Food industry (e.g., restaurant)
  - d. Automobile
  - e. Insurance company (other than health insurance)
  - f. Sports
  - g. Entertainment
  - h. Technology
  - i. Consulting company, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
  - j. Other, please specify \_\_\_\_\_
  
- In what state is your organization located?
  - a. \_\_\_\_\_
  
- How long have you been working for this organization? \_\_\_\_\_(years)
- What is your annual household income before taxes?
  - a. Less than \$25,000
  - b. \$25,001 - \$49,999
  - c. \$50,000 - \$74,999
  - d. \$75,000 - \$99,999
  - e. \$100,000 - \$124,999
  - f. \$125,000 - \$149,999
  - g. \$150,000 or more
  - h. Would rather not say
  
- Gender: \_\_\_\_\_Female \_\_\_\_\_Male
- In what year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_
- Marital Status: Married \_\_\_\_\_ Single \_\_\_\_\_ Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Please continue onto the next page**

- How would you classify yourself?
  - a. Asian/Pacific Islander
  - b. Black/African American
  - c. Caucasian/White
  - d. Hispanic/Latino
  - e. Multiracial
  - f. Native American
  - g. Other \_\_\_\_\_
  
- What is the highest level of education you attained?
  - a. High School
  - b. Vocational degree
  - c. Associates degree
  - d. Bachelors degree
  - e. Masters degree
  - f. Doctorate degree
  - g. Professional certifications
  - h. Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you for your participation!**

As a thank you for your participation in the survey, you are invited to participate in the drawing of two \$50 Visa gift cards. In order to participate in the drawing, please provide an email address where we can reach you in case you are selected as the winner.

**Important:** To be eligible for the drawing you must complete the questionnaire.

For a chance to win a \$50 Visa gift card, please provide your email address:

Email: \_\_\_\_\_.

**\*\* Important:** Two winners will be selected of approximately 400 participants.

## REFERENCES

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## **BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH**

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