

With Great Power Comes Great Irresponsibility: The Interaction Between Corporate Social
Irresponsibility and Employee Morals on Employee Motivation and Organizational Commitment

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ABSTRACT

WITH GREAT POWER COMES GREAT IRRESPONSIBILITY: THE INTERACTION BETWEEN CORPORATE SOCIAL IRRESPONSIBILITY AND EMPLOYEE MORALS ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

By

SAM MCCULLOUGH

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Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has developed a robust body of research while there has been a lack of research focusing on its counterpart, Corporate Social Irresponsibility (CSI). This is especially true when it comes to how employees view these behaviors. Perceptions of CSR and CSI behaviors are important in understanding how employees' are impacted by their employers' good or bad behaviors. This study had two primary objectives: 1) develop the first functional measure of CSI perceptions, and 2) contribute to the body of literature within CSI research. With a sample of 371 full-time workers recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk, this study explored several relationships. Predictor variables included both CSR and CSI with self-importance of moral identity tested as a potential moderator between CSI and organizational outcomes (i.e. employee motivation and organizational commitment). The CSI measure created for this study proved effective and worthy of further validation. Results indicated that CSI perceptions negatively related to autonomous employee motivation (i.e. identified regulation and intrinsic motivation) and organizational commitment (i.e. affective commitment and normative commitment). Employee self-importance of moral identity had a positive relationship with these outcomes. Self-importance of moral identity moderated the relationship between CSI and

organizational commitment, such that those with higher self-importance of moral identity saw more severe declines in organizational commitment when CSI behaviors were high. This moderation was not found for CSI and autonomous employee motivation. The practical implications of this research, future research directions, and the limitations of the present study are discussed.

Keywords: corporate social irresponsibility, corporate social responsibility, moral identity, motivation, self-determination theory, organizational commitment

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a hot topic in our current political climate, where a focus on environmental sustainability and human rights often drive political action and public opinion (Murphy & Schlegelmilch, 2013). While positive CSR has been linked to a variety of positive workplace outcomes (Agarwal, Yadav, & Acharya, 2014; Heslin & Ochoa, 2008), little has been studied about the dark side of the concept, known as corporate social irresponsibility (CSI) (Riera & Iborra, 2017). Researchers argue that companies can conduct varying degrees of CSI and CSR behaviors, moving between the two extremes (Jones, Bowd, & Tench, 2009), or can conduct both at the same time (Strike, Gao, & Bansal, 2006). Their decisions impact how they are viewed through public opinion (Armstrong, 1977). However, one population that remains overlooked in this equation is the employees.

Instead of focusing on “objective” measures of actual CSR behaviors, employee perceptions of an organization’s CSR activity are considered to be the most proximal indicator of their reactions to that behavior (Ng, Yam, & Aguinis, 2018). It may be difficult to determine how workers feel about their organizations’ behaviors, especially when focusing on external CSR factors that do not directly impact the employees’ work experiences, such as charity work or environmental policies. While they may not feel the effects of their organizations’ environmental or social impact during their day-to-day work life, employees’ feelings toward their employers’ contributions could still be relevant, possibly impacting their motivation to

succeed (Skudiene & Auruskeviciene, 2012) and their commitment to the organization (Gupta, 2015).

However, not every employee will have the same core values and beliefs, meaning they may react differently to their employers' actions concerning CSR (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, & Skarlicki, 2013). When organizations adopt a CSI stance on an issue of importance, an employee's beliefs and values could play a determining role in how they react. With this in mind, understanding how an employee aligns with an organization's social values predict a variety of workplace outcomes.

The purpose of the present study is to delve deeper into the concept of corporate social irresponsibility and understand how it may affect employee outcomes. Since CSI is more than just the absence of responsible behavior, current measures developed for CSI are not applicable methods of measurement. Due to this, both a CSR and CSI scale were utilized to measure the two concepts fully. By utilizing these scales, participants reported their employers' actions in terms of CSI and CSR, separately. This study attempted to understand how these behaviors were related to employee workplace outcomes, specifically, motivation and commitment. These relationships were analyzed first on their own, and then with the addition of employee self-importance of moral identity as a moderator, improving our understanding of why certain employees are impacted by their employers' external CSR and CSI behaviors.

Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) refers to how companies should behave concerning economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations imposed by the society in which they operate (Carroll, 1979). This is just one of many definitions, however. The literature in this field lacks the consensus to put forward a definition that researchers can agree upon. Dahlsrud (2008)

analyzed 37 definitions of CSR and found that many of them differed in how CSR is constructed in specific contexts. This can also create a debate over the scope of CSR activities. Specifically, some argue that CSR and “just doing good” are often conflated and that CSR activities can bleed into other constructs such as reputation, image, identity, and brand (Harvey, 2014).

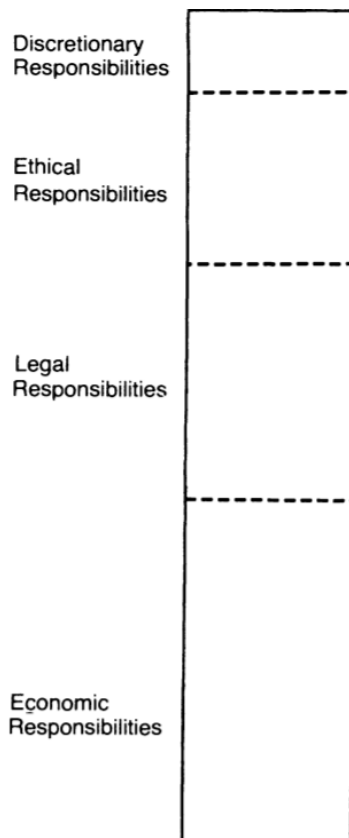
CSR can be operationalized as two different dimensions: external and internal. Internal CSR refers to practices that are directly related to the physical and psychological working environment of the employees. This can be understood as a concern for employee health and well-being, offering avenues for employee development, valuing employee participation, or creating an equal opportunity workplace (Ferreira & Oliveira, 2014). Additionally, internal CSR is concerned with pay equality within an organization, workplace safety, employee health, and the work environment (Agarwal et al., 2014). Internal CSR can lead to increased employee perceptions of CSR and employee engagement (Duthler & Dhanesh, 2018). Additionally, internal CSR has been shown to increase employee organizational commitment and organizational pride (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001).

In contrast, external CSR includes aspects of a company’s community contributions and philanthropy, and in general, focuses on interactions with the physical environment outside of the organization (Carroll, 1979). Research shows that positively managing external CSR, such as maintaining a philanthropic image, can lead employees to feel more positively towards, and more connected to, the organization (Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007; Glavas & Godwin, 2013). Additionally, external CSR can positively influence other work outcomes such as work engagement and organizational pride (Jia, Yan, Liu, & Huang, 2019).

The present study follows the theory of Carroll (1979), who states that CSR encompasses four responsibilities: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary (see Figure 1). Carrol asserts that

all four of these responsibilities are necessary to create positive relationships with stakeholders. Carroll's theory is considered to be one of the three leading approaches to studying CSR (Moisescu, 2014).

Figure 1. Total Social Responsibilities (Carroll, 1979)



Another main approach comes from the UN World Commission on Environment and Development. This approach considers CSR to be a three faceted construct, including economic, environmental, and social responsibilities (Moisescu, 2014). The third main approach comes from Freeman et al. (2010). This approach categorizes CSR activities based on their stakeholders and considers investors, customers, employees, and suppliers to be the most important. Other

stakeholders such as society and local communities are less central but are still considered to be important.

There are many approaches to defining CSR in the literature with much debate on how the construct should be measured. While this is the case, Carroll's (1979) framework is considered to be one of the main approaches identified in the literature (Moisescu, 2014). The present study will measure CSR within this framework, but it is important to acknowledge the theoretical debates presented in the literature.

In general, CSR has been linked to positive workplace outcomes such as employee commitment, retention, performance, satisfaction, and turnover (Heslin & Ochoa, 2008). Overall, employees have more positive attitudes toward organizations that focus on CSR, leading to these workplace outcomes and others. Organizations that value and promote CSR can see these favorable outcomes. While behaving in a socially responsible manner might be the right thing to do from an ethical standpoint, it can also be used strategically to benefit the organization by tackling social problems that can create a competitive advantage (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Corporate Social Irresponsibility

Within the study of CSR, it is important to discuss not only the presence of socially responsible behaviors but also socially irresponsible behaviors. Corporate social irresponsibility (CSI) is the other side of the coin. Researchers such as Lange and Washburn (2012) argue that literature focuses much more on responsible behaviors rather than on irresponsible behaviors. While it is often well-documented when companies behave socially irresponsibly, there is a lack of research specifically focusing on the concept of CSI (Riera & Iborra, 2017). Some common CSI issues in today's work environment include pollution, sustainability issues, and lack of involvement in the community (Murphy & Schlegelmilch, 2013). This is by no means an

exhaustive list, as any topic that the public finds important for organizations to consider may be pertinent.

One of the few research studies that pioneered research directed at CSI (Armstrong, 1977) argued that CSI could be categorized as an immoral decision made by a leader of a company to create shareholder profit at the expense of a larger group of people. The researcher asserts that for an act to be perceived as irresponsible, a vast majority of impartial observers would have to agree with that perception. It is especially important for these judgments to be made by those with no direct investment in the organization since this could lead to decision-making bias. In our current political ecosystem, public opinion plays the role of the “impartial observer” that shapes the expectations thrust upon organizations.

As mentioned, some researchers believe that in past literature, CSR and CSI are often conflated, and ask that a greater distinction be made between the two (Jones et al., 2009). To explain, they assert that in both research and practice, CSR is, most commonly, but incorrectly, brought up when problems arise within a company, not when good is being done. This means that a large portion of the discussion of CSR uses the term to describe the socially irresponsible decisions made by organizations. This complicates the topic by blurring conceptual boundaries between CSR and CSI, leading to differing definitions and research that cannot be easily compared. Jones et al.’s CSI-CSR model (2009) serves to identify the differences between the two constructs using a bi-polar dynamic perspective. The model states that CSI is about reactivity rather than being proactive when addressing how corporate issues impact the larger society. For example, this could involve making a change in an organization’s policy only after being placed under public scrutiny.

Additionally, CSI might involve breaking the law, which can lead to serious social, economic, and business consequences for businesses that choose to operate in this way. While CSI issues encompass a broad array of topics, the following example focuses specifically on environmental sustainability, which is just one aspect of CSR. For instance, companies that take CSI stances on issues may believe that environmental issues are inevitable and not their concern. Similarly, they can believe that sustainability should directly relate to business survival, profits should be achieved at any cost, or business requires minimal community involvement (Jones et al., 2009). Companies that choose to behave in a socially responsible manner may have viewpoints that oppose this line of thinking, believing that it is important to raise awareness of environmental issues and commit to an action plan to improve conditions. They may maximize opportunities for community involvement and promote sustainability as a way to improve the business, environment, and community. Opposing the views of CSI companies, CSR companies believe profit should be considered an important goal for the business but should not be achieved at the downfall of society.

With Jones et al.'s theoretical model (2009), CSI and CSR fall on opposite ends of a spectrum, and organizations are capable of moving between the two extremes. Movement between the two positions can be guided by external factors such as politics, the economy, culture, and other societal issues. The model acts as a tool that allows organizations to understand where they fall on a continuum, and potentially fix issues with CSI practices. The model also helps to differentiate between business models that tend to favor one side of the continuum over another. For instance, when focusing on a shareholder centric model, where increasing company profit is the sole driver of success, CSI practices can be much more

prevalent. Some researchers consider this the “old” business model, as it tends to ignore the power of public opinion in favor of profit (Friedman, 1962).

Opposite the shareholder business model is the stakeholder business model, which values profit but also addresses other societal concerns (Freeman, 1984). Companies considered to be socially responsible are more likely to have adopted this stakeholder business model, moving away from the idea of profit at any cost. While it is arguable that the most important aspect of a business is its bottom line, researchers argue that profit and ethics are not mutually exclusive (Jones et al., 2009).

Riera and Iborra (2017) discuss this topic in their research by systematically identifying literature to conceptualize CSI more accurately for future research. They searched for studies relating to CSI between 1956 and 2016 searching for themes such as “Fraud,” “Bribery,” “Corruption,” or “Social Irresponsibility.” They also selected studies from journals centered on the study of ethics and sustainability in business. Using this method, Riera and Iborra (2017) argue that while CSI was coined almost 40 years ago, it has not received much attention in the last 10 years of research. However, recent social and business issues have led to a resurgence of interest in CSI research.

While some can argue that CSI is only a lower level of CSR and not a construct on its own, evidence suggests that companies that perform socially responsible behaviors might only do so to compensate or divert attention from some of their socially irresponsible behaviors (Riera & Iborra, 2017). This finding lends itself to the idea that these are separate concepts that can react with one another, and that companies can conduct responsible practices and irresponsible practices at the same time. In other words, an organization should not be characterized as “good” or “bad,” as the concepts of CSI and CSR are more complex than that.

Another study shows that in some cases, CSI behaviors lead to CSR behaviors, potentially as a mechanism for reparations (Kang, Germann, & Grewal, 2016). When looking at perceptions the public holds about an organization, it is also important to consider how the employees themselves feel about their employer. It may be important to consider the ethical and moral values of the employees and how these can vary across companies and individuals. With this in mind, it is also important to understand what behaviors the public considers to be irresponsible.

Wagner, Bicen, and Hall (2008) researched business practices to understand what is considered socially irresponsible in the eyes of consumers. The researchers utilized the literature to develop a list of potentially irresponsible behaviors that an organization can commit. Participants were asked to rate these different activities based on their perceptions of irresponsible behaviors. The list consisted of 14 aspects of business that could encompass irresponsible behaviors, such as societal rules, foreign labor, employee discrimination, and natural environments.

Participant responses were ranked by the researchers to show which behaviors were considered to be most irresponsible from the customer perspective. The most irresponsible behaviors consisted of those involving societal rules (e.g., paying bribes or cheating on taxes), employee discrimination (e.g., discrimination based on race or gender), local working conditions (e.g., having employees work in unsafe environments), and dishonesty (e.g., making false claims to customers). The behaviors perceived to be least irresponsible included behaviors within offensive material (e.g., exposing customers to provocative or “not family-friendly” images), foreign economies (e.g., selling a majority of products that are built overseas), and sales practices (e.g., selling customers they cannot afford or do not need). Wagner et al.’s (2008) research was

one of the first attempts to work toward a scale of CSI, with the intention of this list of behaviors to be utilized to create measures for the construct in the future. These items were utilized to create a CSI scale to measure how CSI relates to organizational outcomes such as employee motivation.

Self-Determination Theory


Self-determination theory (SDT) is a motivational theory in the realm of positive psychology that focuses more on the quality of motivational resources than the sheer amount of motivation. A vital piece of SDT is the distinction between controlled and autonomous motivation. Autonomy can be undermined through the use of rewards, threats, competition, or any external factors that create a sense of control over an individual (Sheldon & Watson, 2011). Additionally, unethical behaviors may also play a role in undermining the internalization process, as valuing extrinsic rewards has been linked to unethical behavior in previous research (Tang & Chiu., 2003).

SDT outlines three basic psychological needs that, when met, will enhance autonomous motivation, and when undermined, will thwart autonomous motivation. These needs include competence, autonomy, and relatedness, and are considered essential nutrients that are required to thrive (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Perceived competence relates to a sense of efficacy, or confidence in one's abilities. Feelings of competence alone will enhance intrinsic motivation unless accompanied by autonomy (Ryan, 1982). With this in mind, individuals will not only need to be confident in their abilities but also feel that they are in control of what happens to them. Relatedness is the third piece of the puzzle. Relatedness is the sense of security facilitated by interpersonal relationships in specific contexts (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These three

psychological needs are important for intrinsic motivation and can negatively impact motivation when undermined.

Motivation through an SDT lens is not viewed as an additive process, but rather a process with external and internal motivation on opposite ends of a continuum (Gagné & Deci, 2005). This autonomy continuum created by Ryan and Deci (2000) is utilized to understand different levels of motivation and is especially important for differentiating between forms of extrinsic motivation (See Figure 2). This model is not meant to be treated as a progressive process that moves through stages of development but should instead be used as an index to understand one's motivational reasoning (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Figure 2. SDT Autonomy Continuum (Ryan & Deci, 2000)

Quality of Behavior	Nonself-determined					Self-determined
Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Type of Regulation	Non-regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation

The continuum spans from amotivation to intrinsic motivation and lays out the internalization process as motivation becomes more or less self-determined. According to the autonomy continuum, controlled types of motivation can be internalized through one's values and attitudes, reducing or eliminating the need for external contingency (Gagné & Deci, 2005). This means that while a behavior might still be considered extrinsically motivated due to a lack

of enjoyment from completing the task, it can still be internalized as important and become more self-determined.

The left-most side of the continuum (Ryan & Deci, 2000) comprises the extrinsic types of motivation, first being external regulation. This is what one would typically consider when thinking of the classic definition of extrinsic motivation. External regulation is contingent upon rewards and punishments for motivation to occur. Without a relationship between a behavior and a desirable reward or avoidance of punishment, the behavior will not occur. Immediately to the right of external regulation includes three other types of extrinsic regulation, increasing self-determination as they move across the continuum.

Introjected regulation is a less controlled type of extrinsic motivation, meaning that the drive to complete a task is not explicitly provided, but the task is not accepted as their own. Individuals motivated in this way may conduct a behavior to feel pride, boost their ego, or avoid shame. While the reward for completing the task is not coming from an external source, there is still an extrinsic component to the motivation style since they are doing so based on their interactions with others (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Identified regulation is more internalized since tasks are completed due to their perceived importance (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Individuals who exhibit this type of motivation complete tasks due to how they align with their values and personal identities. With identified regulation, reasons do not directly relate to the task at hand and are not instrumentally important for achieving higher-level personal goals.

The most internalized form of extrinsic motivation on the autonomy continuum is integrated regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This is stronger than identified regulation as it requires a deeper alignment with other aspects of one's life. This is the process of one fully identifying with a particular task, so much so that the behavior becomes a fundamental part of

who they are (Gagné & Deci, 2005). An individual with integrated regulation not only recognizes the necessity of a task, but also considers it essential to attaining their personal goals. While this model is not intended to show progression, integrated regulation is considered the highest quality and most internalized form of extrinsic motivation. In sum, employees with extrinsic motives are motivated by the internal feeling that the behavior is vital to who they are as a person.

Along with integrated regulation, SDT asserts that there is one other type of autonomous motivation, intrinsic motivation. Researchers define intrinsic motivation as the foundation of lifelong psychological growth function (Deci & Ryan, 1980), which is propelled by an interest in the activity itself (Gagné & Deci, 2005). While sharing some similarities to integrated regulation, unique to intrinsic motivation, an individual finds enjoyment from the behavior itself, not how it aligns with their sense of self. There are no feelings of pressure brought about to complete the behavior since this type of motivation is entirely volitional.

While intrinsic motivation is ideal, it is not always practical to assume someone wholeheartedly loves what they are doing when completing a behavior. It is more likely they consider the behavior to be a centrally important behavior for living their core values. Integrated regulation serves as this motivator due to the internalization of behaviors that allows one to maintain their core beliefs.

Corporate social responsibility and internalized motivation

Researchers, such as Rupp, Williams, and Aguilera (2010), highlight the utility of applying an SDT approach to employee reactions to CSR. They assert that employees can advocate for or participate in CSR activities due to perceived external pressures (external regulation), feelings of guilt (introjected regulation), feelings that the cause is personally

important (identified regulation), or simply feelings of intrinsic interest (intrinsic motivation). If an organization's CSR stances do not align with the values of an employee, we would not expect to see increases in ethical decision making or goal commitment in that employee since the values are not internalized (Rupp et al., 2010).

Research demonstrates the benefits that organizations can expect when prioritizing CSR (Brammer et al. 2007; Gupta, 2015; Glavas & Godwin, 2013; Peterson, 2004). For instance, both internal and external CSR have been correlated with increases in employee internal motivation (Skudiene & Auruskeviciene, 2012). However, internal CSR has shown higher correlations with employee motivation compared to external CSR. Nevertheless, external CSR still had a significant positive relationship with employee motivation, with customer-related activities having a stronger relationship than local communities and business partner-related activities (Skudiene & Auruskeviciene, 2012).

CSR can also motivate employees to participate in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), such as helping others with their work and volunteering to take part in extra-role behaviors (Evans, Goodman, & Davis, 2010). This refers to an individual's workplace behavior that improves the work environment but is not directly related to or recognized by the formal reward system (Organ, 1988). This is especially important in highlighting that CSR does not only motivate employees to internalize and take ownership of their job tasks, but also influences their likelihood of committing other positive behaviors that might not be rewarded directly (Ong, Mayer, Tost, Wellman, 2018). Other research (Agarwal et al., 2014) shows similar results, highlighting a positive correlation between the display of socially responsible behavior by the organization and employees' internal motivation. Both internal and external CSR had significant positive relationships with employee motivation as well.

Within Ong et al.'s (2018) research, it was found that task significance was an important moderator in the relationship between CSR and employee motivation. In other words, employees will be more highly motivated by CSR if they feel their tasks are important. Task significance could be operationalized as the importance the employee feels when considering how their work fits into the bigger picture of organizational goals. Another view might be that an employee feels their tasks are significant because they care about the work that is being done. This can be felt either intrinsically, through pure enjoyment of the task, or internalized extrinsic motivation, feeling a deep connection between the work and one's core values.

On the opposite end of this spectrum, research has shown that for those who do not internalize moral values, money may be a strong external motivator for conducting certain work behaviors. As stated previously, Tang and Chiu (2003) identified that the love of money can lead to unethical behaviors at work when it is stronger than self-importance of moral identity. These results highlight the importance of identifying what motivates an individual and can help us further understand important work attitudes, such as one's commitment to an organization.

Hypothesis 1a: Increased CSR perceptions will be positively related to employee identified regulation.

Hypothesis 1b: Increased CSR perceptions will be positively related to employee intrinsic motivation.

While the connection between CSR and autonomous employee motivation is made clear through the literature, less is known about how CSI relates to aspects of motivation when researched through an SDT framework. While no previous research has focused on how CSI perceptions can influence employee motivation directly, several assumptions can be made based on the literature to inform a hypothesis on the topic. As mentioned, externally regulated

motivation, such as extrinsic motivation, would require one to be compliant, putting effort into their job simply to attain rewards and avoid punishments (Ryan & Deci, 2000). As postulated by Ryan and Deci (2000), this type of motivation should become prevalent when one's basic needs are undermined (i.e., competence, autonomy, relatedness). With increased CSI perceptions, these psychological needs may be threatened. For instance, if an employee does not align themselves with the behaviors of the organization, they may feel outcasted, creating a lack of interpersonal relatedness. This would decrease autonomous motivation, requiring the organization to control them to meet organizational goals.

Hypothesis 2: Increased CSI perceptions will be positively related to employee extrinsic motivation.

Employee Moral Identity

Moral identity is a mechanism that motivates moral action and can be associated with one's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Aquino & Reed, 2002). One's concept of moral identity is unique to themselves and can differ depending on the person (Blasi, 1984). Blasi (1984) states that, in some individuals, morality, or being a good person, may not be central to their self-concept. This indicates that some people do not value morality as highly as others, meaning that their actions are not driven by moral reasoning. However, those who do centrally identify with moral beliefs are likely to translate these beliefs into action (Damon & Hart, 1992).

Similarly, self-importance of moral identity has been recognized as a predictor of both moral cognition and behavior (Aquino & Reed, 2002). This indicates that the weight one places on their moral identity translates well into their thinking and actions. Yet, there are situations where one's moral identity and behaviors do not align. This dilemma would cause cognitive dissonance, a psychological state in which someone's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors are

conflicting (Elliot & Devine, 1994). This tension motivates an individual to resolve the inconsistencies through a variety of techniques, including rationalization. In other words, a behavior that violates one's moral code creates a threat that will have to be addressed.

For instance, cognitive dissonance could occur if a vegetarian accepted a position as a chef at a steakhouse. If their vegetarianism is based on their values rather than dietary restrictions, then a steakhouse would conflict with this. The individual could justify it in several ways, such as saying they only cook the food and do not eat it, or that it was the only job they could get. While they disagree with their actions, they will add a caveat to their belief to accommodate their new behavior. Nevertheless, the incongruence between one's own beliefs and that of their employers can adversely impact their job satisfaction (Singhapakdi, Lee, Sirgy, & Senasu, 2015). This could potentially be exacerbated if an individual who centrally identifies with their moral code works for an organization that takes CSI stances on issues that matter to them. In sum, for individuals with high importance on moral identity, working for an organization with CSI stances should cause cognitive dissonance.

This argument is supported by Locke's (1976) range of affect hypothesis, which states that when someone values a job facet, they are more greatly affected by changes in that facet, either positively or negatively. Rice, Gentile, and McFarlin (1991) also discussed the value of facet importance, identifying that those who place high importance on a facet will have greater changes in satisfaction concerning that facet compared to those who placed low importance on it. By this logic, if someone values the moral aspect of their job, they will be especially impacted by an employer that does not place a high value on self-importance of moral identity.

Corporate social responsibility and employee morality

As previously discussed, internal CSR focuses on topics such as employee well-being and the direct working environment (Brammer et al., 2007). With external CSR, the influence of this behavior depends on the values and beliefs an employee holds towards issues that might not influence them directly (Carroll, 1979), such as volunteerism, sustainability, or animal rights (Brammer et al., 2007). At first glance, it may seem easier to predict how an employee will react to internal CSR since it concerns how they will be impacted by their organization directly. However, it can be argued that self-importance of moral identity may not be measured accurately using measures of internal CSR since it primarily relates to employee benefits. In other words, employees may be more concerned with their well-being rather than the well-being of external stakeholders due to factors outside the realm of moral identity.

With this in mind, research suggests that external CSR also holds significant importance to employees. While the employees are not directly impacted by the external actions of the organization, evidence shows that employees react to how others are treated by their place of work (Rupp & Bell, 2010). This thinking fails to consider employees' self-importance of moral identity as an individual difference. Understanding an employee's unique values is especially important to understand how they will react to either CSR or CSI practices.

With the assertions made by Blasi (1984) that morality is not necessarily central to a person's self-concept, organizations that take CSI stances might see advantages of hiring employees who do not consider morality to be a guiding factor in their lives since their motivation and commitment to the organization would not be impacted by socially irresponsible behaviors. Similarly, it would be to the advantage of a highly socially responsible organization to hire employees who share those same values as well. This idea is supported by the Attraction, Selection, Attrition Model (ASA), which states that individuals join organizations whose

employees are like themselves (Schneider, 1987). In essence, this model advises that organizations should be viewed as a product of those who are attracted to the company, are selected by the company, and are retained.

Schneider (1987) theorizes that this cycle determines why organizations look different from one another. If an organization does not hold moral identity as a core value and instead opts to conduct business unethically, then one would assume, through the ASA framework, that individuals who fit this culture will be most successful within the organization. With this in mind, treating self-importance of moral identity as an individual difference variable may help understand the mindset of an employee working for an organization with a history of CSI business practices.

Hypothesis 3a: For those with lower self-importance of moral identity, CSI perceptions will have less of a negative impact on employee identified regulation.

Hypothesis 3b: For those with lower self-importance of moral identity, CSI perceptions will have less of a negative impact on employee intrinsic motivation.

Previous research has focused on the self-importance of moral identity of CEOs as a key variable in predicting CSR and CSI practices. Research by Ormiston and Wong (2013) discovered that moral identity moderates the positive relationship between CSR and CSI. Specifically, CEOs with high scores on moral identity symbolization saw a greater positive relationship between CSR and CSI compared to those with low scores on the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity measure (Aquino & Reed, 2002). In this study, archival data from 49 Fortune 500 firms were utilized to understand the self-importance of moral identity of those organizations' CEOs. While this study used socially irresponsible practices as an outcome variable based on past CSR performance rather than a predictor, their use of self-

importance of moral identity to moderate the relationship is especially relevant to the current study. Other research by Rupp, suggests that employees are likely to see positive effects of CSR if they have a morality-based value structure that puts weight on social responsibility (Rupp et al., 2013).

Research shows that employees are more willing to conduct unethical or even illegal workplace behavior if they place a higher value on money rather than their morals (Tang & Chiu, 2003). Conversely, employees who believe in the high importance of social responsibility had stronger relationships between CSR behaviors and outcomes such as corporate citizenship and organizational commitment compared to those that did not (Peterson, 2004). The core values one holds about the world serve as fundamental pillars of their cognition that guide their thoughts and behavior. This process of centrally identifying with a set of principles is known as internalization. Internalization is important when examining an individual's motivation for performing a behavior or completing a task and is often discussed in the realm of self-determination theory. As mentioned, employee motivation is one organizational outcome that could be related to CSR and CSI behaviors. Organizational commitment is another important organizational outcome to consider.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the connection employees feel with their organization and also the reasons for which they stay. Organizational commitment can be broken up into several categories based on Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model: namely continuance, affective, and normative. Researchers argue that these three aspects of commitment vary somewhat independently of one another and reflect distinct psychological states. While continuance commitment has shown to be relatively independent of the other two

components, the normative and affective commitment subscales were significantly correlated; however, not so much as to indicate they are measuring the same aspect of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Continuance commitment is denoted by a perceived cost of leaving the organization, such as not being able to survive without staying employed there (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This type of commitment may be considered low-quality, in that the psychological connection to the organization itself is not a factor in determining whether an employee will continue to work in their role. In this instance, their commitment is solely guided by necessity, such as pay or benefits that they cannot do without. The continuance component is measured on two factors: the size and number of investments made, and the perceived lack of alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1990). These side bets require a commitment to the organization to fulfill. Similarly, continuance commitment pertains to sunken cost when the employee feels their investments cannot be transferred to another organization. Research shows that continuance commitment alone is negatively related to job performance and positively related to work-family conflict, self-reported stress, and withdrawal behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). To this end, the researchers advise avoiding the creation of continuance commitment in favor of other forms of commitment.

Affective commitment refers to how much an employee wants to stay at the organization. This type of commitment is characterized as identification with, or an emotional attachment to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Affective commitment is considered high-quality since it is directly related to and can be influenced by positive work experiences. Additionally, this type of commitment is positively associated with workplace outcomes such as OCBs, attendance, employee health and well-being, and job performance. Conversely, affective

commitment is negatively related to actual turnover and turnover intentions (Meyer et al., 2002).

Normative commitment refers to a perceived obligation one feels to remain at an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In other words, an employee does not feel like they want to be there, but rather that they ought to be there. This type of commitment can be brought on based on one's perceived investment or social experiences in the organization. This type of commitment is also highly correlated with affective commitment, as normative commitment is also positively related to OCBs, job performance, and job attendance as well as employee health and well-being (Meyer et al., 2002). It is also negatively related to turnover intentions and actual turnover.

While the current study will measure organizational commitment through the three-component model, measuring organizational commitment through profiles is a modern approach worth mentioning. This method builds on the three types of commitment identified by Meyer and Allen (1991) to construct distinct profiles outlining how the types of commitment interact with each other. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) outline eight profiles that researchers should expect to see. Research has been successful in finding distinct profiles based on this theory.

One study by Wasti (2005) found that combinations of affective, normative, and continuance commitment developed into six clusters: Highly committed, Non-committed, Neutral, Affective dominant, Continuance dominant, and Affective-Normative. Later research (Somers, 2010) found seven of these clusters. Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012) found six of these profiles and also found that these groups differed on measures of affect, engagement, OCBs, well-being, and need satisfaction. These results show the value of future research using this methodology to study organizational commitment.

Corporate social responsibility and organizational commitment

Throughout the literature, CSR has been closely linked to organizational commitment. Commitment research shows that companies who behave in a socially responsible way will see a byproduct of increased organizational commitment from their employees (Gupta, 2015). Employee attitudes, such as organizational commitment, can be formed based on an employee's perception of their employer's social responsibility or irresponsibility (Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006). In one study (Brammer et al., 2007), external CSR was positively related to organizational commitment in general and contributed to the construct as much as, or more than, job satisfaction. This result displays the sheer importance of CSR in increasing organizational commitment.

Other research has shown that CSR is especially important for promoting commitment in the eyes of long-time employees and those who hold senior job roles (Hamid & Zubair, 2016). When examining internal CSR (i.e. the employees' working environment), research shows that it can enhance employees' affective commitment, while having smaller effects on normative commitment (Mory, Wirtz, & Göttel, 2015). Similarly, human resource practices, along with trust in management, can help build employee commitment internally (McElroy, 2001). Similar studies have concluded that whether directed at stakeholders, employees, or customers, CSR is a significant predictor of organizational commitment (Turker, 2009).

An organization's stance on issues, either internal or external, can shape an employee's opinion of them. In cases where CSR is integrated well into the organizational culture, employees will have increased 'buy-in' and will identify with their organizations' stances more fully (Collier & Esteban, 2007). An important aspect of commitment is an individual's perceptions of justice and fairness in their organization concerning CSR.

Principle-based work climates that hold generosity and kindness as key features of the organization's strategy can lead to employee internalization of those values and responsibilities, leading to greater employee commitment to the organization (Cullen, Praveen, & Victor, 2003). Additionally, top management support of CSR practices is not only important but vital to ensuring employee commitment as a means to embed the organization's stances into meaningful action (Weaver, Trevino, & Cochran, 1999).

Hypothesis 4a: Increased CSR perceptions will be positively related to employee affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4b: Increased CSR perceptions will be positively related to employee normative organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5a: Increased CSI perceptions will be negatively related to employee affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5b: Increased CSI perceptions will be negatively related to employee normative organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6a: For those with lower self-importance of moral identity, CSI perceptions will have less of a negative impact on employee affective commitment.

Hypothesis 6b: For those with lower self-importance of moral identity, CSI perceptions will have less of a negative impact on employee normative commitment.

Measure Validation

The present study intended to elaborate on previous research of CSR and CSI, specifically focusing on the external aspect of these constructs. This study utilized findings on the connection between CSI-CSR and other variables to shed additional light on the potential impact of CSI as a unique construct. While the impacts made on employee motivation (Agarwal

et al., 2014; Skudiene & Auruskeviciene, 2012) and organizational commitment (Brammer et al., 2007; Hamid & Zubair, 2016; Turker, 2009) are well-tested when examining the positive side of CSR, less is known about how these variables are impacted by socially irresponsible organizations. This study intended to fill the gap in this literature and also research an individual difference variable of potential importance, employee self-importance of moral identity. Employee self-importance of moral identity may have the potential to influence how one views a socially irresponsible organization.

This study identified how employee self-importance of moral identity might impact commitment and motivation for employees in these organizations. Employee motivation was operationalized through a self-determination theory framework, looking specifically at what type of motivation is present (controlled vs autonomous) and where individuals fall on the autonomy continuum. Organizational commitment was tested broadly and then examined based on its three subcategories (i.e. affective, continuance, and normative) to explore more about the specific impact of CSI.

An additional goal of this study was to replicate previous findings concerning the relationship between CSR and CSI. In a study by Kang et al. (2016), CSI and CSR were found to be positively correlated. This result was deemed a “penance mechanism,” meaning that CSR behaviors trailed CSI behaviors as a way to make amends for past wrongdoings. Some research supports the idea that CSI and CSR can happen at the same time (Strike et al., 2006), while other research has found past CSR predicts future CSI behaviors (Ormiston & Wong, 2013). These studies have found a positive relationship between the two variables, while other research asserts that CSR can be used as a good management mechanism (Hull & Rothenberg, 2008), indicating that CSI and CSR should be negatively related.

Specifically, some argue that an organization with a CSR focus is additionally focused on avoiding irresponsible behavior (Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013). With these results in mind, it is clear that the literature lacks consensus in predicting the expected relationship between CSR and CSI, either temporally or directionally. Due to these conflicting results, the current study intends to find a relationship of some kind without predicting the direction of the relationship.

Hypothesis 7: There will be a significant relationship between CSR and CSI.

The CSR measure adapted for this study is an adaptation of a measure created by Turker (2008). This scale is built on the findings of other researchers, such as Maignan and Ferrell (2000). Turker considered the scale created by these researchers to be the most important in the literature but believed it had limitations to be improved on through further scale development research. Specifically, Maignan and Ferrell's (2000) scale emphasizes only three primary stakeholders, namely customers, employees, and the public, but makes note that these stakeholders are not the only groups that can impose responsibility and be directly affected by the organization's decisions.

Turker expanded this model to include more inclusive groups, including employees and customers, society, government, and competitors, natural environment and future generations, and non-governmental organizations. This led to a new tool to measure CSR perceptions that is an improvement on previous measures. Because the measure adapted for this study is a version of Turker's measure (2008), it should correlate with Maignan and Ferrell's (2000) measure as well.

Hypothesis 8: The adapted CSR measure will correlate positively with existing measures of CSR.

In a study by Lenz, Wetzel, and Hammerschmidt (2017), CSI was found to attenuate the relationship between CSR and positive organizational outcomes. The present study intends to

replicate these results as a means to validate the proposed measure. In the current study, the positive organizational outcomes will be represented by employee motivation and organizational commitment, variables that are already central to the study.

Hypothesis 9a: The relationship between CSR and employee identified regulation will be attenuated by CSI.

Hypothesis 9b: The relationship between CSR and employee intrinsic motivation will be attenuated by CSI.

Hypothesis 9c: The relationship between CSR and employee affective commitment will be attenuated by CSI.

Hypothesis 9d: The relationship between CSR and employee normative commitment will be attenuated by CSI.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants were recruited from a Master of Business Administration program from a public university in the Midwest area of the United States to conduct a pilot study of the adapted and proposed CSR and CSI measures. This sample consisted of 52 participants largely comprised of working professionals who were completing their MBA online. The participants were given a few points of extra course credit in exchange for their participation.

Participants for the main study were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which is a crowdsourcing marketplace that allows individuals to complete virtual tasks, such as surveys, in exchange for a small monetary incentive. While concerns have been raised about the use of MTurk data collection in some situations, research outlines advantages and best-practice recommendations for properly using the service for industrial/organizational psychology studies (Woo, Keith, & Thorton, 2015).

A total of 483 responses were collected through the data collection process. Some responses were removed due to several reasons. Sixty-six responses were removed for either skipping the attention checks or answering any of the three incorrectly. An additional 23 were removed for indicating they worked less than 35 hours per week, and one response was removed because they did not indicate they were employed in the United States. Ten other responses were removed because the respondents had not worked in their organization for at least six months. Finally, 12 others were removed for failing the English language check. This left 371 usable

responses. For this sample's gender makeup, 156 participants selected male (42.2%), 212 selected female (57.3%), one selected transgender (.3%), and one selected neither male, female, nor transgender (.3%).

For ethnicity, 295 participants selected Caucasian (79.5%), 25 selected black/African American (6.8%), 17 selected Hispanic (4.6%), 24 selected Asian/Pacific Islander (6.5%), 2 selected Native America (.5%), and 7 selected other (1.9). Within the 'other' category, 6 of the participants indicated some form of biracial or multiracial ethnicity, while one participant opted not to self-disclose. Respondent ages fell between 23 to 74, with a range of 51 and an average age of 41.05 ($SD = 11.04$). Nineteen respondents opted not to disclose their age. For time spent at their current organization, respondents indicated between .5 years and 41 years, with a range of 40.5. The average time spent at their current organization was 7.67 years ($SD = 6.13$).

Procedures

The number of participants necessary for this study was calculated using a power analysis tool called G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). This online program computes the statistical power needed for many different statistical tests. For the bivariate correlations, with an alpha value of .05, a power of .95, and a medium effect size of .30, the program identified a minimum sample size of 115 participants. For the regression analyzes, the alpha value and power stayed the same, but the effect size was reduced to a moderate effect of .15. The calculations indicate a minimum sample size of 74 participants.

With these calculations in mind, this study required at least 115 participants to expect satisfactory responses. Upon signaling their interest in participation, participants provided other demographic information and responded to a variety of measures, including CSR and CSI scales,

a self-importance of moral identity scale, a motivation scale, and an organizational commitment scale. Once data were retrieved, it was analyzed based on the hypotheses asserted in this study.

Scale development

When creating a scale, it is important to pick items that are rooted in theory and match the level of specificity necessary for the scale. As one of the first theorists to discuss the importance of content validity, Cureton (1951) advised that a representative sample of items is comprised of those that accurately represent aspects relevant to the idea in question. Items chosen should be part of a broader list of items relating to the construct so that the content can encompass as much of the construct as possible (DeVellis, 2017). These items may have redundancies, but only enough to strengthen the scale rather than weaken it. This would be less of a problem early on in the scale development process, as it may be beneficial for items to have similarities to determine the best wording and phrasing choices. Creating a representative list of items that encompass the whole concept will help establish content validity.

The multitrait-multimethod matrix (Campbell & Fiske, 1959) is a useful tool for measuring construct validity. The procedure involves measuring more than one construct using various methods to infer construct validity. With this method, similar constructs using similar methods should have the highest correlations, with similar constructs using different methods with the second-highest correlations. This would indicate that what is being measured is more influential than how it is being measured. In contrast, constructs expected to be unrelated should not be correlated, especially when using different measurement techniques (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Additionally, correlations can be used to understand the extent to which a new scale measures the desired construct. One can predict a pattern based on how a construct should relate, or not relate, to other constructs based on theory. In other words, for a scale to show construct

validity, correlations should match predictions made concerning how the construct should behave when measured alongside other constructs (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

Measures

Table 1. CSR and CSI Measures Discussed in the Present Study

Measure Name	Author	Additional Information
Corporate Social Irresponsibility (CSR) Scale	Turker, 2008	A well-validated CSR scale that was adapted for the present study.
Adapted CSR Scale	McCullough	Based on the CSR scale by Turker (2008). Adapted to English with internal CSR items removed.
Corporate Citizenship Scale (CCS)	Maignan and Ferrell, 2000	A measure used to validate the adapted CSR scale.
List of CSI Items	Wagner et al. 2008	An empirically tested list of items to determine consumers' perceptions of irresponsible behavior in an organization. This developed a foundation for a CSI perceptions scale.
Proposed Corporate Social Irresponsibility (CSI) Scale	McCullough	Based on the research of Wagner et al. 2008. Only included items associated with external CSI.

Supplementary and demographic variables

Demographic questions. Demographic data was collected to include gender, age, ethnicity, and employment information (see Appendix A). Gender information was collected using the recommended response options from The GenIUSS Group (2014) to be more inclusive. There were demographic restrictions to ensure participants were at least 18 years of age, were employed full-time in the United States, were fluent in English, and had been working at the

same organization for at least six months. There were no restrictions based on gender, ethnicity, employer, or type of job one holds. An open-ended question was used to check if participants were fluent in English. The question read, “In no less than two complete sentences, describe how important your company’s values are to your daily working life.”

Internal CSR. Internal CSR was measured using Maignan and Ferrell’s (2000) Corporate Citizenship Scale (CCS). The scale includes items to measure both external and internal CSR. The two parts were measured separately to understand how each would correlate with the CSR scale adapted for the present study. While the adapted scale for the present study only measures external CSR, measuring both internal and external CSR from a well-validated measure such as the CCS helps support the construct validity of the adapted scale. Participants responded to the measure on a 1 to 6 Likert scale, ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to strongly agree.’ Internal CSR components of the measure included statements such as “we have programs that encourage the diversity of our workforce,” and “our business supports employees who acquire additional education.” Cronbach’s alpha for the internal CSR items for the current study was .90.

Independent variables

Corporate social responsibility. To measure CSR, a scale developed by Turker (2008) was adapted (see Appendix B). The original CSR scale contains 17-items pertaining to a variety of socially responsible practices that organizations can do. Participants are asked to report their perceptions of their employers' CSR practices by rating their level of agreement to a list of statements using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree.’ Statements are presented in terms of the participant’s company in which they work, such as “our

company protects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements,” and “customer satisfaction is highly important for our company.”

Turker (2008) validated this measure using a sample of 269 business professionals employed in Turkey. Additionally, this scale reflects Carroll’s (1979) four basic expectations of social responsibility in its four subscales: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities. These responsibilities can be ranked by importance based on the relative magnitude of each (see Figure 2). To explain, items were rated by participants on a 7-point scale to gauge their importance. Researchers then ranked the items based on the participant ratings. The scale has shown high internal consistency, with a Cronbach’s Alpha of .90 (Turker, 2008).

To adapt the scale to be used in the present study, five items from the original scale were removed that focus specifically on internal CSR. Additionally, all instances of the phrase ‘our company’ were changed to ‘my employer’ in an attempt to better capture the responses of employees who do not feel connected to their place of work. In addition, grammatical errors were corrected that may have been created when the measure was first translated to English. For instance, “our company encourages its employees to participate to the voluntarily activities” was revised to read “my employer encourages their employees to participate in volunteer activities.” The goal of this change was to make the items clearer for an English-speaking sample to read, while still capturing the intended content of the item.

The adapted CSR scale contained 12 items that encompassed Carroll’s (1979) four factors of social responsibility: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary (see Appendix C). Economic responsibility is the highest-weighted and includes the responsibility to produce a good or service that can be sold for a profit. In the CSR measure, this was clear in the statement, “my employer targets sustainable growth which considers future generations.” This is an

example of economic responsibility since the organization would be responsible for economic growth to support the future workforce. The second highest-weighted responsibility is legal responsibility, following the rules and regulations under which the business is permitted to operate. This was shown in the statement, “our company complies with the legal regulations completely and promptly.” Ethical responsibility is the next highest-weighted part of the model. It may be more difficult to assess, as it is largely driven by the public opinion’s views, which may change over time.

Ethical responsibilities are defined as the expectations of an organization, placed on them by a society that requires the organization to go above and beyond legal requirements alone (Carroll, 1979). This was shown in an item that read, “our company implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment.” The last responsibility is discretionary responsibility, which refers to purely voluntary contributions that have not yet been described by the first three components of the model. These behaviors are entirely volitional and do not relate to the societal expectations of a business or legal compliance. Rather, they are guided solely by the organization’s desire to help (Carroll, 1979). One example of this was in the statement that “our company contributes to the campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.” In the current study, the adapted measure of CSR had a Cronbach’s alpha of .91, which compares well to Turker’s original measure, which was shown to have a Cronbach’s alpha of .90 (Turker, 2008).

Establishing construct validity. To validate the adapted CSR scale, it was tested alongside another measure of CSR developed by Maignan and Ferrell (2000). Since the adapted CSR scale exclusively measures external CSR, the Maignan and Ferrell measure was split into internal and external CSR items. When looking at measures relevant to the current study based on the

literature, we expected the adapted CSR perceptions scale to be highly correlated with other well-established CSR measures. To show construct validity of the adapted CSR measure, it was compared to an existing measure of CSR that also followed the theoretical concepts of Carroll (1979) (i.e. economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities), and looked at both internal and external corporate behaviors. This measure was developed by Maignan and Ferrell (2000) for use in the United States and France (see Appendix D). The scale includes 18 items with a Cronbach's alpha of .94 in the United States sample of 120 participants (Maignan & Ferrell, 2000). In the current study, the full scale had a Cronbach's alpha that compares to previous reliability testing at .93. When just testing external CSR items, Cronbach's alpha was .83 for the current study.

While the adapted measure only included statements about external CSR, the expectation was that the well-validated measure and the adapted measure would be highly correlated. As noted earlier, internal CSR was measured as a control variable, as this study was primarily focused on external CSR. This was accomplished using internal CSR questions presented in the Maignan and Ferrell (2000) scale. Participants responded to both scales, but only the adapted CSR scale was used for statistical analyses.

Corporate social irresponsibility. While some research has been done to determine what types of behaviors the public considers irresponsible business practices (Wagner et al., 2008), a complete scale had not yet been created to measure this construct. Because of this, a functional CSI scale was developed for the present study, building on Wagner et al.'s (2008) previous research. Wagner et al. (2008) empirically tested a list of items to understand what the public considers to be irresponsible behavior by an organization. The 51 items presented in Appendix E were empirically tested using a group of 331 participants to determine consumers'

perceptions of irresponsible behavior in an organization. Wagner et al. (2008) gave participants a list of statements and were asked to respond to the question, “In my opinion, retail companies act socially irresponsible when...”, and rate their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1, ‘I disagree completely,’ to 7, ‘I completely agree’ (Wagner et al., 2008).

The items loaded onto 14 factors. Items associated with societal rules, employee discrimination, local working conditions, dishonesty, and pricing policies were the highest rated in terms of corporate irresponsibility. The researchers attributed this to the fact that many of the items associated with these factors have issues associated with legality rather than ethicality. Items associated with natural environments, employee benefits, foreign labor, employee wages, local businesses, and local employment were also highly rated, which can be attributed to common ethical concerns frequently discussed by the media and activist groups (Wagner et al., 2008). Items concerning offensive material, foreign economies, and sales practices were rated the lowest since some participants viewed these as irresponsible, while others did not.

Since the current study is specifically focusing on the impact of the external components of CSI, items that loaded onto factors such as local employment, employee benefits, employee wages, local working conditions, employee discrimination, and foreign labor were removed. Additionally, all items that refer to the lowest-ranked factors, pricing policies, and offensive material, were also removed. When considering the language and formatting for the CSI scale, it is important to note that the original items were intended for use in retail-specific organizations. Because of this, changes were made to ensure the items apply to a variety of industries. For instance, retail jargon such as ‘products’ were replaced by ‘products and/or services.’

Sentence stems were added to the list of items to match the format of the accompanied CSR measure. Stems of all statements began with ‘my employer...’. This change was intended to

improve consistency and clarity across the two scales, as no stem was provided with Wagner et al.'s (2008) CSI items. Additionally, participants were asked to rate their level of agreement with the statements on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

The adapted 16-item measure (See Appendix F) was designed to parallel Carroll's (1979) methods to include statements that fit the four facets of corporate social responsibility. The items "my employer makes economic decisions that are irresponsible," and "my employer makes economic decisions that are unsustainable" were added to represent economic irresponsibility. Legal irresponsibility was outlined in existing statements, such as "my employer cheats on taxes." Ethical irresponsibility was also shown in items such as "my employer makes misleading claims to customers through advertising."

Discretionary irresponsibility may be difficult to reflect, since it is, by definition, optional. However, this was attempted with statements added to the measure, such as "my employer negatively impacts the members of its local communities," and "my employer contributes to campaigns and/or projects that negatively impact the well-being of society," since organizations may use their position to help or harm the communities in which they operate (Birch, 2002). In total, five items were added to the original items validated by Wagner et al. (2008). Items bolded in Appendix E were added to the scale, with the logic presented below each item. For the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the proposed measure of CSI was .94.

Establishing construct validity. Since other measures of CSI had not been developed, the proposed CSI scale was expected to correlate with other relevant constructs identified throughout the literature. The literature identifies a relationship between CSR and CSI (Kang et al., 2016; Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013; Ormiston & Wong, 2013; Strike et al., 2006). Other research also shows that CSI attenuates the relationship between CSR and positive outcome variables. As noted

previously, the present study intended to replicate these results to help provide construct validity for the proposed measure of CSI.

Self-importance of moral identity. Research suggests that it is not necessary to uncover a large number of traits that might comprise a person's unique moral code. Instead, one scale can be used that can activate a subset of moral traits that are linked to other traits that would be more central to the person's moral identity (Kihlstrom & Klein, 1994). Because of this, the 10-item Self-Importance of Moral Identity Scale by Aquino and Reed (2002) can effectively measure moral code across the spectrum based on the concept that moral traits form a network of connections (see Appendix G). This scale has been utilized in previous research to predict CSI behaviors. Specifically, one study measured moral identity with the Self-Importance of Moral Identity Scale to test the variable as a potential moderator between the CSR and CSI relationship (Ormiston & Wong, 2013).

This scale begins by asking participants to imagine someone that possesses a variety of positive characteristics (e.g. caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, and kind). They are instructed to think about how someone with these characteristics would think, feel, and act, and then they must respond to a set of statements while thinking about what that person would be like, on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree.'

Participants rate their level of agreement to statements encompassing two aspects of moral identity: internalization and symbolization. Internalization includes statements that reflect how central to oneself the traits are, such as "it would make me feel good to be a person that has these characteristics." Statements focused on symbolization include public choices that convey an outward appearance of having these traits, such as "I am actively involved in activities that

communicate to others that I have these characteristics.” The Cronbach’s alpha reliability for the internalization scale was .78 and was .69 for the symbolization scale (Aquino & Reed, 2002). In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha for the internalization scale was .77 and was .88 for the symbolization scale.

Dependent variables

Organizational commitment. To measure organizational commitment, participants provided self-reported data on their agreement to statements that related to three components of organizational commitment (i.e. affective, continuance, and normative). The questionnaire used for this research was created by Allen and Meyer (1990) and provides separate scores for the presence or absence of all three components. This measure consists of 18 items with 6 items for each component of commitment (see Appendix H). The level of agreement with the 18 statements is measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree.’ Affective commitment comprises the first set of statements, such as “the organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me,” which highlights the emotional aspect of commitment.

For continuance commitment, participants rated their level of agreement to statements such as “too much of my life would be disrupted if I leave my organization,” which indicates a necessity to stay due to a cost-benefit analysis of the situation. Normative commitment can be measured through statements such as “Even if it were to my advantage, it would not feel right to leave,” which displays a sense of loyalty or guilt when one considers leaving their organization. Cronbach’s alphas were .87 for affective, .75 for continuance, and .79 for normative (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In the current study, Cronbach’s alphas were .92 for affective, .83 for continuance, and .91 for normative commitment.

Employee motivation. For this study, participants provided self-reports of their relative autonomy, which is one facet of SDT. The construct of relative autonomy can be visualized by a continuum, known as the Relative Autonomy Continuum (RAC). All motivated behaviors can be located on the RAC from feeling a complete lack of self-determination to feeling completely self-determined as defined by SDT. The behaviors that comprise the types of motivation present on the RAC can be measured by the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) (Gagné et al., 2014). This scale contains six subscales and 19 items (see Appendix I). The six subscales represent categories of motivation associated with SDT. The scale has been validated in seven languages and across nine countries. Additionally, the stem question more strongly emphasizes the reasons behind putting effort into work and separates external regulation into two unique subscales (Gagné et al., 2014).

Participants are prompted with the question: “Why do you or why would you put effort into your current job?” The types of motivation and sample items include amotivation (e.g., I don’t know why I’m doing this job, it’s pointless work); extrinsic - social (e.g., To avoid being criticized by others); extrinsic – material (e.g., Because I risk losing my job if I don’t put enough effort in it); introjected (e.g., Because I have to prove to myself that I can); identified (e.g., Because I personally consider it important to put efforts in this job); and intrinsic (e.g., Because I have fun doing my job). On a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "not at all" to "completely," participants considered their level of agreement to the items and responded accordingly.

The MWMS does not include an integrated regulation subscale due to the inability for this type of motivation to be statistically differentiated from identified and intrinsic motivation subscales (Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009). Cronbach’s alphas for previous research of the English version of the scale showed .90 for intrinsic, .75 for identified,

.70 for introjected, .76 for extrinsic, and .79 for amotivation (Gagné et al., 2014). In the current study, Cronbach's alphas were .93 for intrinsic, .89 for identified, .79 for introjected, .82 for extrinsic, and .79 for amotivation.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Pilot Test

A pilot test was completed using the adapted and proposed CSR and CSI scales. Cronbach's alpha values for the CSR and CSI measures were .92 and .97, respectively. A two-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the correlation between responses for the CSR and CSI scales for the pilot test. The two scales showed a small, negative correlation, $r(52) = -.29, p = .04$. This was similar to the negative correlation found between CSI and CSR in the main study.

Two independent samples t-tests were run to determine if there were any significant differences between responses for the CSR and CSI scales for the pilot test and the main study. The first t-test was close to finding a significant difference between CSR for the pilot study and CSR for the main study, but did not meet the p-value requirement, $t(421) = 1.86, p = .06$. On average, participants in the pilot study ($M = 3.83, SD = .83$) did not have significantly different scores than participants in the main study ($M = 3.61, SD = .78$). The second t-test also did not find a significant difference between CSI for the pilot study and CSI for the main study, $t(421) = .82, p = .41$. On average, participants in the pilot study ($M = 1.78, SD = .95$) did not have significantly different scores than participants in the main study ($M = 1.69, SD = .69$).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pilot Study Variables

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2
1. CSR Pilot ^a	52	3.83	.83	-	
2. CSI Pilot ^a	52	1.78	.95	-.29*	-

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

^aVariables were averaged from 1 to 5 with higher scores indicating more.

Descriptive Statistics

As shown in Table 3, several of the study variables were not normally distributed. When attempting to transform variables that violated assumptions, variables behaved in ways that were not expected. For instance, affective commitment and normative commitment are known to be positively correlated, but after accounting for the skewness of the affective commitment variable, correlations were reversed, indicating a negative correlation of the same strength. A similar result was found with identified regulation, which was negatively skewed. The transformed variable and the non-transformed variable displayed an almost perfect negative correlation.

Additionally, even with log and square root transformations, CSI still violated assumptions. Similar findings were consistent across all study variables that were not normally distributed. Some researchers, such as Feng et al. (2014), advise against transforming variables to fix skewness. Due to the issues brought about when transforming the study variables, it was decided that analyses would be conducted using the non-transformed variables, and skewed data would be cited as a limitation of this study.

Table 3. Skewness and Kurtosis of Main Study Variables

Variables	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Affective Commitment	-.385	.127	-.754	.253
Continuance Commitment	-.257	.127	-.498	.253
Normative Commitment	-.142	.127	-.839	.253
CSR	-.376	.127	.056	.253
CSI	.997	.127	.491	.253
Self-Importance of Moral Identity	-.601	.127	.923	.253
CCS	-.614	.127	.311	.253
Amotivation	1.533	.127	1.591	.253
Extrinsic Motivation - Social	.087	.127	-.439	.253
Extrinsic Motivation - Material	-.155	.127	-.584	.253
Introjected Motivation	-.228	.127	-.506	.253
Identified Motivation	-.593	.127	-.273	.253
Intrinsic Motivation	-.150	.127	-.827	.253

There were several notable correlations to mention for the present study. Respondents' age had small, negative correlations with CSI perceptions $r(352) = -.15, p < .01$, and amotivation, $r(352) = -.25, p < .001$. This indicates that younger participants were less motivated and perceived CSI perceptions more often. Age also had small positive, correlations with self-importance of moral identity, $r(352) = .13, p = .01$, and identified regulation, $r(352) = .19, p < .001$. This indicates that older participants were more motivated by identifying their work with their values and also considered morality to be more self-important. Other notable correlations include those found with gender. Gender had small, positive correlations with continuance

commitment, $r(370) = .16, p < .001$, self-importance of moral identity, $r(370) = .13, p < .001$, extrinsic motivation – social, $r(370) = .16, p < .001$, and intrinsic motivation $r(370) = .16, p < .001$. This indicates that females were slightly more likely to respond to higher levels of these constructs compared to men. A partial correlation was run to determine the relationship between study variables when controlling for age and gender. Overall, significance cutoffs were not impacted when controlling for these two demographic variables. Additionally, correlation effect sizes were also not impacted.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Main Study Variables (N = 371)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Affective Commitment ^a	3.33	1.08	-															
2. Continuance Commitment ^a	3.26	.93	.05	-														
3. Normative Commitment ^a	3.06	1.07	.84**	.25**	-													
4. CSR ^a	3.61	.78	.59**	.03	.54**	-												
5. CSI ^a	1.69	.69	-.40**	.02	-.31**	-.44**	-											
6. Self-importance of moral identity ^a	3.80	.61	.40**	.13*	.40**	.45**	-.30**	-										
7. CCS ^b	4.46	.90	.58**	.02	.52**	.82**	-.51**	.38**	-									
8. Amotivation ^c	1.86	1.24	-.35**	.09	-.26**	-.26**	.43**	-.33**	-.34**	-								
9. Extrinsic Motivation -Social ^c	3.86	1.49	.14**	.39**	.27**	.18**	.05	.21**	.11*	.08	-							
10. Extrinsic Motivation -Material ^c	4.35	1.49	.14**	.29**	.22**	.18**	-.10*	.13*	.18**	.03	.57**	-						
11. Introjected ^c	4.47	1.50	.41**	.16**	.42**	.33**	-.12*	.32**	.29**	-.19**	.46**	.26**	-					
12. Intrinsic Motivation ^c	4.23	1.73	.68**	-.02	.56**	.51**	-.27**	.38**	.51**	-.28**	.11*	.09	.48**	-				
13. Identified Motivation ^c	5.10	1.53	.60**	-.001	.48**	.49**	-.32**	.42**	.45**	-.45**	.20**	.14**	.67**	.70**	-			
14. Years Worked	7.67	6.13	.12*	.07	.06	.04	-.08	.11*	.08	-.13*	-.01	.02	.04	.07	.10	-		
15. Gender ^d	1.59	.52	.07	.16**	.08	.07	-.07	.13**	.01	-.03	.15**	.07	.16**	.09	.11*	.07	-	
16. Age	41.05	11.04	.10	.02	.05	.02	-.15**	.13*	.10	-.25**	-.09	-.01	.07	.09	.19**	.41**	.08	-

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

^aVariables were averaged from 1 to 5 with higher scores indicating more. ^bVariables were averaged from 1 to 6 with higher scores indicating more.

^cVariables were averaged from 1 to 7 with higher scores indicating more. ^dGender was coded as male = 0, female = 1.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1a and 1b predicted that increased perceptions of CSR would be positively related to identified regulation and intrinsic motivation, respectively. A one-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the accuracy of these hypotheses. Perceptions of CSR had a moderate, positive correlation with identified motivation, $r(371) = .49, p < .001$. Perceptions of CSR also had a strong, positive correlation with intrinsic motivation, $r(371) = .53, p < .001$. These results fully support hypotheses 1a and 1b.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that increased perceptions of CSI would be positively related to extrinsic regulation. A one-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the accuracy of this hypothesis. Perceptions of CSI were not significantly correlated with material extrinsic regulation in the hypothesized direction, $r(371) = -.1, p = .05$. Perceptions of CSI were not significantly correlated with social extrinsic regulation, $r(371) = .05, p = .38$. These results do not support hypothesis 2.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b predicted that CSI perceptions would have less of a negative impact on identified regulation and intrinsic motivation for those with lower self-importance of moral identity. These relationships were tested using Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro. Two moderated regressions were performed with CSI perceptions as the independent variable, self-importance of moral identity as the moderator, with identified regulation as the dependent variable in the first regression, and intrinsic motivation as the dependent variable of the second regression.

The first model included identified regulation as the dependent variable and tested significant $F(3, 367) = 28.71, p < .001, R^2 = .22$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for self-importance of moral identity, $\beta = .91, t(367) = 5.36, p < .001$, and a significant main

effect for CSI, $\beta = -.45$, $t(367) = -3.44$, $p < .001$. However, the model did not show a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSI perceptions and self-importance of moral identity, $\beta = .12$, $t(367) = .50$, $p = .62$. Hypothesis 3a was therefore not supported.

The second model included intrinsic motivation as the dependent variable and tested significant $F(3, 367) = 22.84$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .17$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for self-importance of moral identity, $\beta = .91$, $t(367) = 5.15$, $p < .001$, and a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.45$, $t(367) = -2.92$, $p < .01$. However, the model did not show a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSI perceptions and self-importance of moral identity, $\beta = -.20$, $t(367) = -.70$, $p = .49$. Hypothesis 3b was therefore also not supported.

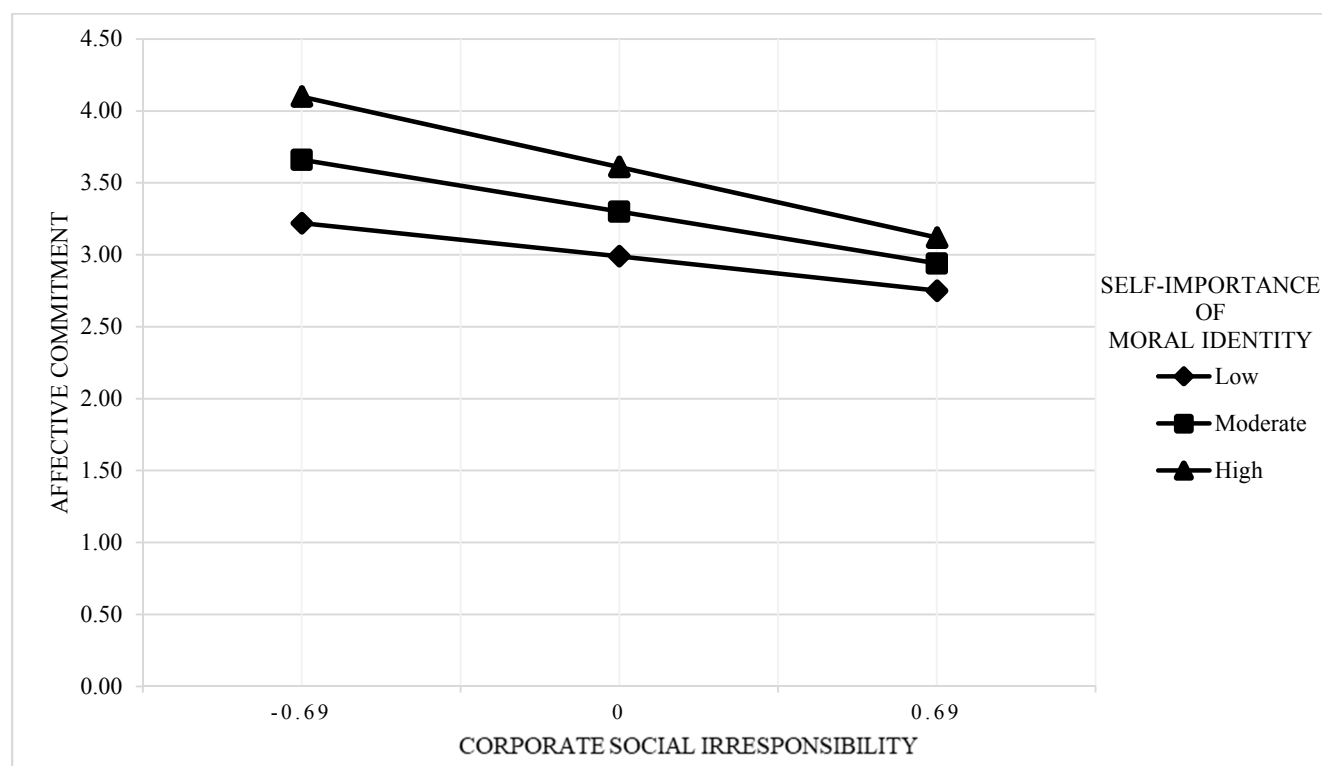
Hypothesis 6a and 6b predicted that CSI perceptions would have less of a negative impact on affective and normative employee commitment for those with lower self-importance of moral identity. These relationships were also tested using Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro. Two moderated regressions were performed with CSI perceptions as the independent variable, self-importance of moral identity as the moderator, with affective commitment as the dependent variable in the first regression, and normative commitment as the dependent variable in the second regression.

The first model included affective commitment as the dependent variable and tested significant $F(3, 367) = 40.41$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .26$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for self-importance of moral identity, $\beta = .51$, $t(367) = 5.21$, $p < .001$, and a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.52$, $t(367) = -6.32$, $p < .001$. The analysis also showed a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSI perceptions and self-importance of moral identity $\beta = -.30$, $t(367) = -1.98$, $p = .05$. Simple slopes show significant moderation effects when self-importance of moral identity is low, $\beta = -.34$, $t(367) = -3.34$, $p < .001$, when self-importance

of moral identity is moderate, $\beta = -.52$, $t(367) = -6.32$, $p < .001$ and when self-importance of moral identity is high, $\beta = -.70$, $t(367) = -5.01$, $p < .001$.

Figure 3 shows the significant interaction, which is in the proposed direction, and shows that the impact CSI has on affective commitment is lessened when self-importance of moral identity is lower. Figure 3 also shows that those with higher self-importance of moral identity generally have higher levels of affective commitment than those with lower self-importance of moral identity. Individuals are more negatively affected by their organizations' CSI behavior when they place higher importance on moral identity. When self-importance of moral identity is low, CSI perceptions have less of an impact on an individual's affective commitment. These results fully support hypothesis 6a.

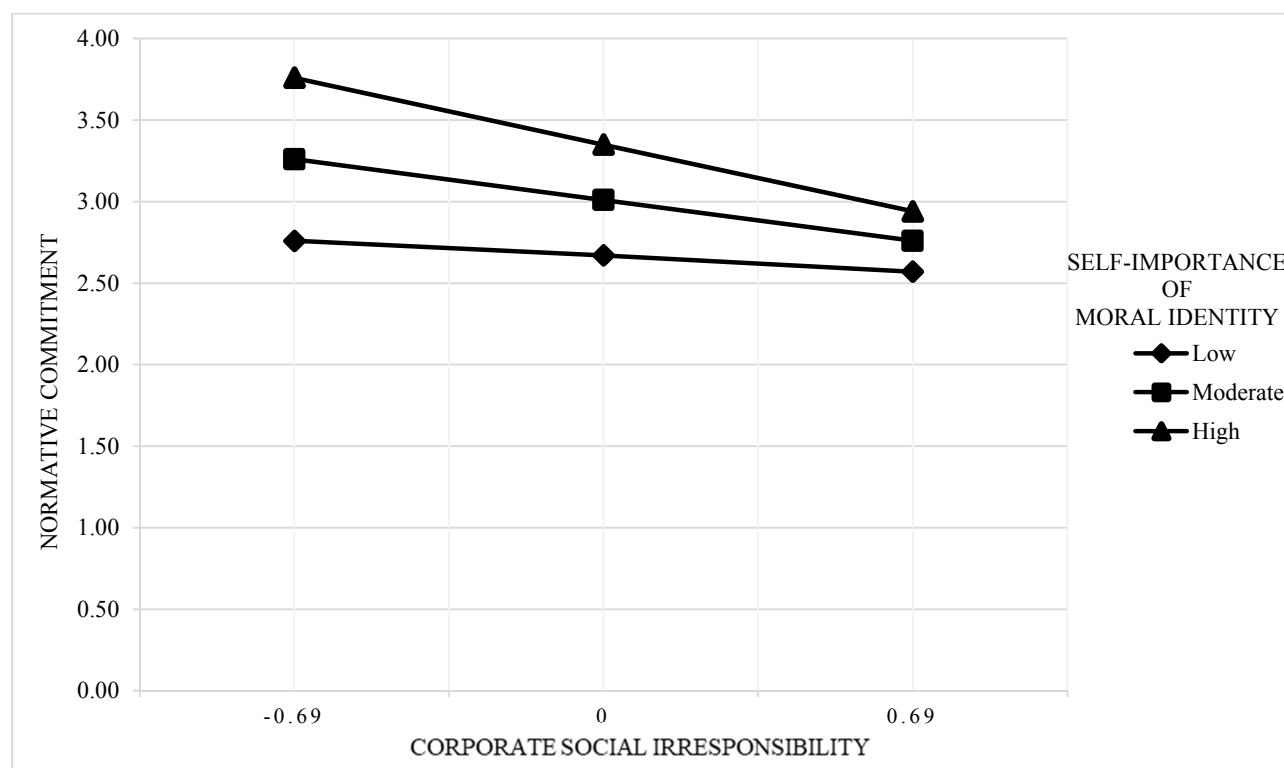
Figure 3. The Interaction Between Moral Identity and CSI Perceptions on Affective Commitment



The second model included normative commitment as the dependent variable and tested significant, $F(3, 367) = 29.90, p < .001, R^2 = .22$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for self-importance of moral identity, $\beta = .56, t(367) = 5.68, p < .001$, and a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.36, t(367) = -3.59, p < .001$. The analysis also showed a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSI perceptions and self-importance of moral identity $\beta = -.37, t(367) = -2.18, p = .03$. Simple slopes show significant moderation effects when self-importance of moral identity is moderate, $\beta = -.36, t(367) = -3.59, p < .001$ and when self-importance of moral identity is high, $\beta = -.59, t(367) = -3.29, p < .001$, but not when self-importance of moral identity is low, $\beta = -.14, t(367) = -1.37, p = .17$.

Figure 4 shows the significant interaction, which is in the proposed direction, and shows that the impact CSI has on normative commitment is lessened when self-importance of moral identity is lower. Figure 4 also shows that those with higher self-importance of moral identity generally have higher levels of normative commitment than those with low self-importance of moral identity. Individuals are more negatively affected by their organizations' CSI behavior when they place higher importance on moral identity. When self-importance of moral identity is lower, CSI perceptions have little impact on an individual's normative commitment. Hypothesis 6b is fully supported by these results.

Figure 4. The Interaction Between Moral Identity and CSI Perceptions on Normative Commitment



Hypothesis 4a and 4b predicted that increased perceptions of CSR would be positively related to employee affective and normative organizational commitment, respectively. A one-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the accuracy of these hypotheses. Perceptions of CSR had a strong, positive correlation with normative commitment, $r(371) = .54, p < .001$. Perceptions of CSR also had a strong, positive correlation with affective commitment, $r(371) = .59, p < .001$. These results fully support hypotheses 4a and 4b.

Hypothesis 5a and 5b predicted that increased perceptions of CSI would be negatively related to employee affective and normative organizational commitment, respectively. A one-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the accuracy of these hypotheses. Increased CSI perceptions had a moderate, negative correlation with normative commitment, $r(371) = -.31, p <$

.001. Increased CSI perceptions also had a moderate, negative correlation with affective commitment, $r(371) = -.40, p < .001$. These results fully support hypotheses 5a and 5b.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that there would be a significant relationship between CSR and CSI. A two-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the accuracy of this non-directional hypothesis. Perceptions of CSR and perceptions of CSI had a moderate, negative correlation, $r(371) = -.44, p < .001$. These results support hypothesis 7, indicating a negative relationship between the two variables.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that the adapted measure of CSR would have a positive correlation with existing measures of CSR. A one-tailed Pearson correlation was run to determine the accuracy of this hypothesis. The adapted CSR measure had a strong positive correlation with an existing measure of CSR, $r(371) = .82, p < .001$. This correlation used the combined internal and external CSR items. Table 5 shows the correlations when Maignan and Ferrell's (2000) corporate citizenship scale (CCS) was split into internal and external items. Results show high correlations between CSR and both the CCS internal scale, $r(371) = .77, p < .001$, and CCS external scale, $r(371) = .84, p < .001$. These results fully support hypothesis 8.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for CSR and CCS Scales (N = 371)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. CSR ^a	3.61	.78	-			
2. CCS ^b	4.46	.90	.82**	-		
3. CCS Internal ^b	4.47	.93	.77**	.99**	-	
4. CCS External ^b	4.44	.92	.84**	.94**	.86**	-

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

^aVariables were averaged from 1 to 5 with higher scores indicating more.

^bVariables were averaged from 1 to 6 with higher scores indicating more.

Hypothesis 9a through 9d predicted that the relationship between CSR and several positive organizational outcomes would be attenuated by CSI. These positive organizational outcomes include autonomous employee motivation and organizational commitment, both of which are divided into two subscales: identified (9a) and intrinsic motivation (9b) subscales, and affective (9c) and normative commitment (9d) subscales, respectively. These relationships were tested using Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro. Four moderated regressions were performed using CSR perceptions as the predictor variable, CSI perceptions as the moderator, and either affective commitment, normative commitment, identified regulation, or intrinsic motivation as outcome variables.

The model for hypothesis 9a included identified regulation as the dependent variable and tested significant, $F(3, 367) = 35.48, p < .001, R^2 = .25$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for CSR, $\beta = .85, t(367) = 7.42, p < .001$, and a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.27, t(367) = -2.16, p = .03$. However, the model did not show a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSR and CSI, $\beta = .04, t(367) = .25, p = .80$. Given the results of this model, hypothesis 9a was not supported.

The model for hypothesis 9b included intrinsic motivation as the dependent variable and tested significant, $F(3, 367) = 47.51, p < .001, R^2 = .29$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for CSR, $\beta = 1.12, t(367) = 9.35, p < .001$. However, the model did not show a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.13, t(367) = -.91, p = .36$, or a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSR and CSI, $\beta = -.13, t(367) = -.84, p = .40$. Given the results of this model, hypothesis 9b was not supported.

The model for hypothesis 9c included affective commitment as the dependent variable and tested significant, $F(3, 367) = 80.12, p < .001, R^2 = .38$. The analysis revealed a significant

main effect for CSR, $\beta = .70$, $t(367) = 10.51$, $p < .001$, and a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.28$, $t(367) = -4.22$, $p < .001$. However, the model did not show a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSR and CSI, $\beta = -.03$, $t(367) = -.47$, $p = .64$. Given the results of this model, hypothesis 9c was not supported.

The model for hypothesis 9d included normative commitment as the dependent variable and tested significant, $F(3, 367) = 55.76$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .30$. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for CSR, $\beta = .69$, $t(367) = 9.53$, $p < .001$. However, the model did not show a significant main effect for CSI, $\beta = -.13$, $t(367) = -1.74$, $p = .08$ or a significant moderation effect on the relationship between CSR and CSI, $\beta = .003$, $t(367) = .04$, $p = .97$. Given the results of this model, hypothesis 9d was not supported.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study intended to meet two ultimate goals: 1) develop the first functional measure of CSI perceptions, and 2) contribute to the CSI literature. To accomplish goal one, previous research by Wagner et al. (2008) that developed a list of potential items for a CSI scale was utilized. The findings of the present study suggest that both the adapted CSR scale and the proposed CSI scale were effective at measuring the desired construct, respectively. This is an important step toward a well-validated measure to be used in future research to measure CSI perceptions of employees. For goal two, the present study researched two organizational outcomes (i.e., employee motivation and organizational commitment) and utilized previous research to better understand how these outcomes relate to CSI. Additionally, the present study contributes to the CSI literature by identifying self-importance of moral identity as a potential moderator for the relationship between CSI and organizational outcomes.

Hypotheses 1a and 1b correctly predicted that increased perceptions of CSR would be positively related to identified regulation and intrinsic motivation, respectively. This result is expected as many studies have shown the positive organizational outcomes that can relate to CSR behaviors (Brammer et al. 2007; Gupta, 2015; Glavas & Godwin, 2013; Peterson, 2004). In the realm of motivation research, Skudiene and Auruskeviciene (2012) and Agarwal et al. (2014) found that CSR behaviors associated with higher employee internal motivation. In the study by Skudiene and Auruskeviciene (2012), internal CSR seemed to be more effective than external

CSR in influencing employee internal motivation. The current study only measured CSR with external items, highlighting that external CSR also holds some importance.

Hypothesis 2 was found to be non-significant. Increased CSI perceptions were not positively related to employee extrinsic motivation. The current study expected extrinsic motivation to become more prevalent when autonomous motivation was not congruent with an organization's irresponsible behaviors. However, this was not the case. Interestingly enough, CSI perceptions were significantly related to every type of motivation on the SDT continuum besides extrinsic motivation. Table 4 shows a positive correlation with amotivation, and negative correlations with introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivation.

An explanation for this could be that CSI perceptions may lead individuals to lose autonomous motivation when it is present, and instead of gaining extrinsic motivation, lose motivation altogether. To explain, Gagne and Deci (2005) discuss that amotivation stems from an impersonal orientation toward one's work environment, while extrinsic motivation would stem from a controlled orientation. With this in mind, an employee with high autonomous motivation who perceives irresponsible behaviors would likely lose motivation if extrinsic motivators were not present.

While there was not a significant interaction found between CSI perceptions and self-importance of moral identity when predicting aspects of autonomous motivation (i.e. identified regulation and intrinsic motivation), both CSI perceptions and self-importance of moral identity had significant main effects. While CSI perceptions had a negative effect on autonomous motivation, self-importance of moral identity was not a moderating factor. This non-significant result may stem from the personalized nature of autonomous motivation. It may not be dependent on the organization, but rather on the job itself. Meaningful work is considered to be a

key outcome of autonomous motivation (Allan, Autin, & Duffy, 2016). Finding meaningful work, or “one’s calling” can lead to a commitment to one’s career (Duffy & Dik, 2013). On one hand, this dedication to one’s career could transcend any negative feelings towards an organization, limiting the impact of self-importance of moral identity on autonomous motivation in high CSI organizations. On the other hand, meaningful work can be generated by contributing to the greater good (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012), meaning that those with high self-importance of moral identity may look to their work rather than their employer to meet their needs in situations where their employer’s behavior conflicts with their beliefs.

Another explanation for this non-significant result could have been due to a lack of representation within this sample of employees who have high self-importance of moral identity and also experience high CSI. Only 19 people of the sample of 371 fit this profile. This created difficulty when attempting to measure effects on motivation. Since only a small number of people fit the high self-importance of moral identity-high CSI profile, the moderated regression did not find a significant difference between high and low self-importance of moral identity employees, possibly due to low statistical power. There may very well be an interaction between these variables, but the current study lacks statistical power to find it. This would be an issue to consider in the future when measuring perceptions of CSI.

While statistical power was problematic when measuring aspects of autonomous motivation, this did not cause a problem when measuring organizational commitment. Support for hypotheses 6a and 6b showed that when self-importance of moral identity was low, both affective and normative commitment were less impacted by CSI perceptions. In cases of low self-importance of moral identity, CSI still was negatively related, but far less so than compared to those with high self-importance of moral identity. These results hint at the damage that can be

done in highly moral individuals if they witness or perceive irresponsible behaviors. One rationale for this result is that organizational commitment is inherently context dependent. This means that an organization's values must align with their employees for them to build a sense of loyalty (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). This creates a predisposition to commitment based on having those values met (Wiener, 1982). The perception of irresponsible behaviors would conflict with the values of individuals that place high importance on moral identity.

This conflict would be significantly more impactful for people with high self-importance of moral identity since the responsibility of their employer would be more important to them. In one study, one's ethical concern about an organization's behavior predicted an increase in moral anger towards that organization (Cronin, Reysen, & Branscombe, 2012). Other research has also found similar results, finding that the moral motivations of relevant stakeholders drive their responses to an organization's irresponsible behaviors (Peifer & Winkler, 2018). The current study complements these findings, demonstrating that self-importance of moral identity is critical when predicting how one's commitment will be impacted by an irresponsible employer.

Perceptions of CSR were positively related to both employees' affective and normative organizational commitment. This supports the assertions made in hypotheses 4a and 4b. These findings are well-supported through previous research (Brammer et al., 2007; Gupta, 2015; Turker, 2009). Mory et al. (2015) found that internal CSR was related to employees' affective commitment and normative commitment but had a stronger relationship with affective commitment. The present study looked exclusively at external CSR and found similar results. The correlation for affective commitment was slightly higher than that of normative commitment, but both correlations were very strong.

Perceptions of CSI were negatively related to both employees' affective and normative organizational commitment. This supports the assertions made in hypotheses 5a and 5b. Due to the clear link between CSR and organizational commitment throughout the literature, the present study suggests that CSI has the opposite relationship with organizational commitment. This connection between CSI and organizational commitment does not have support from the literature. As a meta-analysis by Riera and Iborra (2017) shows, most research on CSI focuses on antecedents and mechanisms without a comprehensive research background to draw from, it seems to be a logical assertion that as CSR relates to increased commitment, CSI would relate to decreased commitment. More research will need to be conducted to understand the extent of this relationship.

One point to remember about the present study is that CSR and CSI perceptions were measured using scales developed specifically for this study. While a robust validation study has not been conducted for these measures, they were modeled after the work of previous researchers. To reiterate, the CSR measure was adapted from a translated version of Turker's (2008) CSR scale. Minor changes were made to grammar and sentence stems, but the essence of the items remained the same. The CSI scale was based on a list of items by Wagner et al. (2008) that were empirically tested to determine what the public viewed as irresponsible behavior. For both the CSR and CSI scales, all items related to internal CSR were removed. This was done to avoid issues created by one's own financial or self-serving stake in their company's CSR behaviors. In other words, the present researcher wanted to ensure that measurements of self-importance of moral identity would not be confounded by self-preservation.

With these considerations, the adapted and proposed CSR and CSI measures appear to have performed as intended. One indication of this was the support that was found for hypothesis

7. A correlation was found between CSR and CSI behaviors. While the results of the current study show a negative correlation between CSR and CSI, this was predicted as a non-directional hypothesis.

As noted, previous research has found varying results, with the only real consensus being that these two variables are related in some way. Notable research has found positive relationships between the two, indicating that CSR can be either a penance mechanism to make up for bad behavior (Kang et al. (2016), or a preemptive way to minimize the negative impact of future bad behavior (Ormiston & Wong, 2013). Studies that use more objective data of CSR and CSI behaviors are likely to find information than would generally be known by an employee of those organizations. Rather than using the perceptions of one stakeholder group, the Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini Inc.'s (KLD) social ratings can be used as a comprehensive measure of multiple stakeholder needs (Ormiston & Wong, 2013). The KLD includes organizations' strengths to measure CSR and weaknesses to measure CSI. The scores are determined using key stakeholder benchmarks and can be assigned ratings by researchers based on the presence or absence of a particular behavior. This can help determine a clearer picture of actual CSR and behaviors from a 3rd party perspective rather than relying on an internal employee's subjective view.

This contrast to the current study could be explained by the way CSR and CSI behaviors were measured. For the present study, CSR and CSI behaviors were reported based on the perceptions of their employees, meaning that their view of the organization might only include a small sample of the good or bad things their employer does. In other words, employees are limited by their point-of-views. They may overvalue the information they believe to be true, leading to a halo error when asked to assess their employers responsible or irresponsible

behaviors. A halo error could occur if employees make assumptions about CSR or CSI behaviors based on limited information. For instance, if an employee lacks knowledge about their employer's specific CSR or CSI behaviors, they may use their pre-existing opinions about the company to fill in gaps. An employee with a positive view of their employer may perceive only responsible behaviors when negative behaviors also exist. This has been found in consumers when asked to rate organizations' CSR behaviors (Smith, Read, & López-Rodríguez, 2010). Researchers found that people make inferences about an organization's CSR performance when lacking evidence. This could explain the negative relationship between CSR perceptions and CSI perceptions when considering why hypothesis 7 was supported in this way.

Another indication that the measures worked as intended was due to the support of hypothesis 8. Hypothesis 8 served as another method to help validate the CSR measure. As stated previously, the measure created by Maignan and Ferrell (2000) was used as a validation tool for the adapted measure of CSR. This well-validated measure includes items that discuss both internal and external aspects of CSR. Since the adapted measure of CSR only includes items that represent external CSR, analyses with the Maignan and Ferrell (2000) scale controlled for the internal CSR items. This allows for a clear comparison between the two measures. As the results show, there was a strong correlation, indicating that the adapted scale was effective at capturing the external aspects of CSR. This supports the validity of the adapted measure, indicating that it performed as intended.

However, one issue with the current research points to a potential problem with the proposed CSI measure. While the CSR measure was compared to a well-validated measure of CSR, the same could not be done for CSI, since no other measures exist. Hypotheses 9a through 9d intended to replicate the results of Lenz et al. (2017) as a means to validate the proposed

measure of CSI. However, in the current study, CSI was not found to significantly impact the relationship between CSR and any of the study variables (i.e. identified regulation, intrinsic motivation, affective commitment, and normative commitment). Lenz et al. (2017) and the present study had some methodological differences that could have resulted in the non-significant findings. They collected a large sample of empirical studies that allowed for the collection of data from 4,500 firms across 19 years. Many of these studies used more objective measures of actual CSR and CSI rather than employee perceptions. For instance, research by Luo and Bhattacharya (2006), Jayachandran, Kalaignanam, and Eilert (2013), and Kotchen and Moon (2012) all used KLD data to capture organizations' activities. As mentioned previously, the KLD social ratings are comprehensive across multiple stakeholder needs rated based on an organization's attainment of certain pre-determined benchmarks (Ormiston & Wong, 2013). This difference between actual behaviors identified by researchers and perceived behaviors based on employee views could be responsible for the lack of support for hypotheses 9a through 9d.

Practical Implications

The main practical implication for this research is for organizations to consider the negative impact that employee perceptions of CSI behaviors can have on employees. Looking back at Table 4, higher perceptions of CSI correlated positively with amotivation, meaning that employees who perceived more irresponsible behaviors from their employers did not put much effort into their jobs. CSI perceptions correlated negatively with the more autonomous forms of motivation as well as age. Younger workers were more likely to see higher perceptions of CSI, indicating that the younger workforce may carry a more stringent view of what constitutes irresponsible behaviors. Another explanation could be that younger workers are doing different work than older workers, showing them a different view of the organization. An organization

that carries a history of social irresponsibility should consider adapting their behaviors or changing perceptions of their organization to accommodate a younger workforce.

The present study found that individuals that perceived CSI behaviors were more likely to lose motivation altogether rather than be motivated by extrinsic factors. With this in mind, organizations need to consider the potential impact CSI behaviors may have on their employees' motivation. Since individuals are likely to lose motivation under these conditions, it is important for leaders in organizations that commit irresponsible behaviors to promote extrinsic motivators. As noted previously, CSI behaviors were also negatively correlated with autonomous types of motivation (i.e., identified regulation and intrinsic motivation), which further emphasizes the value of extrinsic motivators in this context.

As mentioned, the CSR and CSI scales adapted and developed for this study focused exclusively on external CSR and CSI, respectively. This highlights the importance for organizations to not just promote internal CSR activities, but also external activities. Organizations may think that internal behaviors, such as giving employees access to continued education or providing a good work-life balance, are chiefly important to employees. The present study shows that employees are also concerned with how their employers treat the outside world, not just their immediate workers. In essence, employees still care about their organizations' responsible or irresponsible behaviors, even if they are not personally impacted. Organizations should consider this when creating CSR policies or attempting to avoid CSI behaviors.

It is also important for organizations to consider the importance of employees with high self-importance of moral identity when concerned with organizational commitment. While CSI perceptions had a negative impact on both high self-importance of moral identity and low self-importance of moral identity employees, those with higher self-importance of moral identity

were more committed in general. Despite the bigger impact of CSI felt by those with higher self-importance of moral identity, they were still more committed to the organization compared to those with low self-importance of moral identity. More broadly, self-importance of moral identity correlated with all aspects of motivation and was negatively correlated with amotivation. These results give strong indications that self-importance of moral identity may be an important variable to consider when hiring. Hiring those that place high importance on their self-importance of moral identity would be ideal for organizations that promote CSR policies and work to avoid CSI behaviors, especially if the organization is concerned with issues with organizational commitment.

Limitations

This study has several limitations, one of which was the scales used to measure CSR and CSI. With both of these measures being adaptations of previous research, some reassurances come with that. For the most part, the proposed and adapted measures behaved as intended. However, without a robust validation study, it may be difficult to fully trust the results of this study. With this being the first use of the CSI measure, it may suffer from unknown issues simply due to a lack of previous research.

Another limitation is that this study only measured employee perceptions of CSR and CSI rather than obtaining more objective measures of organizational behaviors. As previously mentioned, KLD social ratings can provide stronger data for actual CSR and CSI behaviors rather than relying solely on employees' perceptions of those behaviors (Ormiston & Wong, 2013). This is problematic since individuals at the organization might not know how to think accurately about their employer's CSR and CSI activities. Additionally, those who seek out information about their employer's responsible and irresponsible behaviors may already have an

increased interest in the topic. Likewise, those that do not know about their organization's CSR and CSI activities might just not care, which could speak to their self-importance of moral identity or a completely different construct altogether, such as conscientiousness or the desire to seek out new information. Since participants were gathered through Amazon Mechanical Turk, it would not have been feasible to get more objective CSR and CSI data for each of their employers.

Another limitation of the current study is the presence of statistically skewed data. As mentioned, several variables were not normally distributed, one of these was CSI perceptions, which was positively skewed. A majority of survey respondents reported very-low levels of CSI perceptions, leading to a substantial floor effect. The data was skewed enough that transformations improved the data somewhat but did not improve the data enough to warrant the transformation. As noted, transformations caused additional issues when analyzing the data, causing more harm than good in most cases. The lack of representation in individuals with high levels of CSI perceptions was problematic when running parametric statistics, such as moderated regressions, that assume normally distributed data. When considering the results of the present study, it is important to acknowledge this limitation.

Measuring organizational commitment with the three-component model (Meyer & Allen, 1991) instead of with profiles should be considered a limitation of the present study. The three-component model has been considered the best way to study organizational commitment for many years, but commitment profiles are a modern approach that should be utilized in the future. This shifts organizational commitment to a person-centered approach, rather than a variable-centered approach, which can help discern more meaningful differences among groups (Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, & Wright, 2005). This framework provides a more detailed map of how the

three-components of commitment can interact with each other and offers a better alternative to the three-component model used in the past (Somers, 2010).

It is important to remember that this data was taken from a sample of diverse individuals, varying in age, ethnicity, tenure, and industry. The positive skew may indicate a broader issue when attempting to measure CSI perceptions in a sample of real employees. One possibility as to why this might happen stems from the idea that individuals who think their employers behave irresponsibly might not last long at these organizations. In essence, individuals who fit this profile may be hard to find when taking a cross-section of the population. Future studies that measure CSI perceptions in real employees may need to account for this limitation as well.

Future Research

Future research could focus specifically on the employees from a few organizations with the intention to obtain more objective CSR and CSI behaviors as well as their employees' perceptions of those behaviors. The current study surveyed a broad array of people, all from varying organizations and industries. Future research could take more of a case study approach to see how employees feel about a specific organization's CSR or CSI behaviors, particularly when something bad happens. For example, this could be an organization with recent bad press due to a mishandled environmental or social issue. This would address the limitations of the present study by identifying a large group of employees working for an organization with growing concerns about CSI behaviors.

In addition to this, future research could not only focus on how employees feel about a specific organization's behaviors but also the extent of what they know or understand about those behaviors. For instance, the current study found a negative correlation between CSR perceptions and CSI perceptions, meaning that some employees may only see some aspects of

their organization's behavior, when in reality, much more lies beneath the surface. Research from Glavas and Godwin (2013) supports this statement, as they found that CSR perceptions were more important than organizational realities in predicting an employee's identification with the organization.

Due to the prominence and proven utility of commitment profiles (Somers, 2010), future research should focus on measuring organizational commitment with this framework. As mentioned, one limitation of the present study is its reliance on the three-component model for measuring organizational commitment. Replicating this research with commitment profiles may lead to an increased understanding of what individual differences in commitment relate to CSR and CSI perceptions as well as self-importance of moral identity.

According to the findings of the current study, the proposed CSI measure might be the first of its kind to identify CSI perceptions in employees. Without other measures of CSI to compare to, future research should focus on enhancing the presented CSI measure through a robust validation study. The utility of the CSI measure demonstrated in the current study serves as a strong case for the measure to be researched further and improved upon.

While this current study focused only on employee motivation and employee organizational commitment as outcome variables, future studies could look further into other variables associated with positive work experiences, such as objective performance, job satisfaction, various other job attitudes, or organizational support. The body of research focused specifically on CSR behaviors is vast, while research on CSI behaviors is lacking. Understanding how different organizational outcomes relate to CSI could help shed light on the construct and help us understand its influence on employees' feelings and attitudes towards their job and their employer.

Future research could also improve upon the present study to address preemptively some of these limitations. One of the most important ways to improve the current study would be to address the floor effects found when measuring CSI perceptions. As the current study suggests, it may be difficult to find individuals who perceive high levels of irresponsible behaviors by their employers, who also stay employed there. Future research will need to determine a method for finding these individuals or develop a way to simulate it in a lab study.

Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to understand the impact employees' CSI perceptions have on organizational outcomes (i.e., employee motivation and organizational commitment). With little known about the impact of CSI on these outcomes, employee self-importance of moral identity was included as a potential moderator for this relationship. CSI perceptions were found to impact negatively autonomous employee motivation (i.e., identified regulation and intrinsic motivation) and organizational commitment (i.e., affective commitment and normative commitment). Employee self-importance of moral identity was found to have a positive impact on these outcomes. The study found that self-importance of moral identity moderated the relationship between CSI and organizational commitment but did not moderate the relationship between CSI and autonomous employee motivation. This study developed the first useable scale of CSI, which should be validated further through future research. This development will hopefully lead to more discoveries in the field of CSI research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

1. How do you describe yourself?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Transgender
 - d. Do not identify as female, male, or transgender
2. What is your age?

3. “In no less than two complete sentences, describe how important your company’s values are to your daily working life.”
4. Which of the following most closely represents your ethnicity?
 - a. White/Caucasian
 - b. Black/African American
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Asian/Pacific Islander
 - e. Native American
 - f. Other _____
5. Are you currently employed in the United States?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
6. What industry does your employer represent?

7. How many hours do you typically work in a week?

APPENDIX B

UNEDITED CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY SCALE BY TURKER (2008)

CSR to social and non-social stakeholders

1. Our company participates to the activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment.
2. Our company makes investment to create a better life for the future generations.
3. Our company implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment.
4. Our company targets a sustainable growth which considers to the future generations.
5. Our company supports the non-governmental organizations working in the problematic areas.
6. Our company contributes to the campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.

CSR to employees

7. Our company encourages its employees to participate to the voluntarily activities.
8. Our company policies encourage the employees to develop their skills and careers.
9. The management of our company primarily concerns with employees' needs and wants.
10. Our company implements flexible policies to provide a good work and life balance for its employees.
11. The managerial decisions related with the employees are usually fair.

12. Our company supports employees who want to acquire additional education.

CSR to customers

13. Our company protects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements.

14. Our company provides full and accurate information about its products to its customers.

15. Customer satisfaction is highly important for our company.

CSR to government

16. Our company always pays its taxes on a regular and continuing basis.

17. Our company complies with the legal regulations completely and promptly.

APPENDIX C

ADAPTED CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY SCALE

“Rate your level of agreement to the following statements based on your experiences at your current employer.”

The scale is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

1. (1) My employer participates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment.
2. (2) My employer makes investments to create a better life for future generations.
3. (3) My employer implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment.
4. (4) My employer targets sustainable growth which considers future generations.
5. (5) My employer supports non-governmental organizations working in problematic areas.
6. (6) My employer contributes to campaigns **and/or** projects that promote the well-being of the society.
 - a. This item was edited to remove a double-barreled statement concerning about ‘campaigns and projects’.
7. (7) My employer encourages its employees to participate in volunteer activities.
8. (13) My employer protects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements.
9. (14) My employer provides full and accurate information about its products and/or services to its customers.
10. (15) Customer satisfaction is highly important to my employer.
11. (16) My employer always pays its taxes on a regular and continuing basis.

12. (17) My employer complies with the legal regulations completely and promptly.

APPENDIX D

MIGNAN AND FERRELL'S (2000) CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP SCALE

Participants are asked to rate their agreement to the following statements based on a 1 to 6 Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

1. We have been successful at maximizing our profits.
2. We strive to lower our operating costs.
3. We closely monitor employees' productivity.
4. Top management establishes long-term strategies.
5. The managers of this organization try to comply with the law.
6. Our company seeks to comply with all laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.
7. We have programs that encourage the diversity of our workforce (in terms of age, gender, and race).
8. Internal policies prevent discrimination in employees' compensation and promotion.
9. Our business has a comprehensive code of conduct.
10. We are recognized as a trustworthy company.
11. Fairness toward co-workers and business partners is an integral part of the employee evaluation process.
12. A confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any misconduct at work.
13. Our salespersons and employees are required to provide full and accurate information to all customers.
14. Our business supports employees who acquire additional education.
15. Flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work and personal life.

16. Our business gives adequate contributions to charities.
17. A program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in our business.
18. We encourage partnerships with local businesses and schools.

APPENDIX E

UNEDITED CORPORATE SOCIAL IRRESPONSIBILITY ITEMS BY WAGNER ET AL.

(2008)

Natural environment

1. Selling products whose production harms the natural environment
2. Producing extensive amounts of waste
3. Contributing substantially to environmental pollution

Local businesses

4. Forcing local small businesses into bankruptcy
5. Selling goods below cost to put local competitors out of business
6. Creating a local monopolistic position for themselves
7. Forcing local retailers into bankruptcy

Foreign economies

8. Shifting capital overseas
9. Selling a majority of products built overseas
10. Contributing significantly to the national trade deficit
11. Buying from companies overseas instead of domestic companies

Local employment

12. Increasing unemployment in local communities
13. Replacing existing jobs with lower wage jobs in local communities
14. Causing local businesses to reduce jobs in local communities
15. Reducing their own workforce in local communities

Societal rules

16. Cheating on taxes

17. Paying bribes

18. Ignoring the law

19. Breaking the law

Employee benefits

20. Providing very limited benefits to employees

21. Providing very limited medical insurance to employees

22. Making health-care coverage very expensive for employees

23. Referring employees to health care provided by the state instead of providing medical insurance themselves

Employee wages

24. Paying very low wages to employees

25. Not paying employees living wages

26. Paying employees less than the market average

27. Paying employees not more than minimum wage

Local working conditions

28. Having employees work in an unclean environment

29. Having employees work in an unsafe environment

30. Treating employees disrespectfully

31. Providing poor working conditions to employees

32. Not allowing employees to take sufficient breaks

Employee discrimination

33. Discriminating employees based on race

34. Discriminating employees based on gender

35. Discriminating employees based on age

36. Discriminating employees based on looks

Foreign labor

37. Paying extremely low wages to workers in developing countries

38. Having workers in developing countries work under very poor conditions

39. Having workers in developing countries work extensive hours

40. Having workers in developing countries do a very heavy workload

Sales practices

41. Selling customers products they cannot afford

42. Selling customers products they do not really need

43. Selling customers products that are bad for their health

Dishonesty

44. Making misleading claims to customers through advertising

45. Having salespeople make false claims to customers about products

Offensive material

46. Exposing customers to provocative images through advertising

47. Exposing customers to products that are offensive to some people

48. Exposing customers to products and images that are not family friendly

Pricing policies

49. Overpricing products to customers

50. Charging customers higher prices than originally advertised

51. Charging customers high prices due to a monopolistic position

APPENDIX F

PROPOSED CORPORATE SOCIAL IRRESPONSIBILITY SCALE

“Rate your level of agreement to the following statements based on your experiences at your current employer.”

The scale is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

New items are written in bold with logic displayed underneath to argue the necessity of their addition to the scale. The original item number is in parentheses for reference.

- 1. My employer makes economic decisions that are irresponsible.**
- 2. My employer makes economic decisions that are unsustainable.**
 - a. Items 1 and 2 oppose the CSR scale item “my employer targets sustainable growth which considers future generations.” These items are necessary to represent Carrol’s (1979) description of economic responsibility, which would be absent using only original items.
- 3. My employer produces goods and/or services that are bad for its customers’ health.**
 - a. Item 3 opposes the CSR scale item “This item serves a similar function to the original item “selling customers products that are bad for their health,” deemphasizing the consumers role in buying the product, which was identified by Wagner et al., (2008) as a potential reason why some did not find the practice to be irresponsible under the ‘sales practices’ factor.
- 4. My employer negatively impacts the members of its local communities.**
- 5. My employer contributes to campaigns and/or projects that negatively impact the well-being of society.**

- a. Items 4 and 5 build on previous items in the original measure such as “increasing unemployment in local communities “and “replacing existing jobs with lower wage jobs in local communities,” which load on the ‘local employment’ factor (Wagner et al. 2008). The new item serves to broaden the scope of the originals by deemphasizing the topic of hiring. This serves as a way to measure discretionary responsibility (Carroll, 1979), since they also oppose the CSR scale’s item “my employer contributes to the campaigns and/or projects that promote the well-being of the society.”
6. (1) My employer sells products and/or services whose production harms the natural environment.
7. (2) My employer produces extensive amounts of waste.
8. (3) My employer contributes substantially to environmental pollution.

Societal rules

9. (13) My employer cheats on taxes.
10. (14) My employer pays bribes.
11. (15) My employer ignores the law.
12. (16) My employer breaks the law.

Dishonesty

13. (41) My employer makes misleading claims to customers through advertising.
14. (42) My employer makes false claims to customers about products and/or services.
- a. Note that “salesperson’ was removed from this item to apply to a variety of industries.

Pricing Policies

15. (46) My employer overprices products and/or services to customers.
16. (47) My employer charges customers higher prices than originally advertised.

APPENDIX G

SELF-IMPORTANCE OF MORAL IDENTITY SCALE

“Listed below are some characteristics that might describe a person: caring, compassionate, fair friendly, generous, helpful, hardworking, honest, kind. The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment, visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, answer the following questions.”

1. It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics. (I)
2. Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am. (I)
3. I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics. (S)
4. I would be ashamed to be a person who had these characteristics. (I) (R)
5. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics. (S)
6. The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics. (S)
7. Having these characteristics is not really important to me. (I) (R)
8. The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations. (S) (R)
9. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics. (S)
10. I strongly desire to have these characteristics. (I)

I = Internalization, S = Symbolization, R = reverse coded.

APPENDIX H

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Affective Commitment Scale Items

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like 'part of my family' at this organization.
4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.

Continuance Commitment Scale Items

7. It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this organization right now even if I wanted to.
8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I leave my organization.
9. Right now, staying with my job at this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
10. I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my job at this organization would be the scarcity of available alternative elsewhere.
12. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice.

Normative Commitment Scale Items

13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my organization.
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave.

15. I would feel guilty if I left this organization now.
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my organization right now because of my sense of obligation to it.
18. I owe a great deal to this organization

APPENDIX I

THE MULTIDIMENSIONAL WORK MOTIVATION SCALE

“Why do you or would you put effort into your current job?”

1 = not at all, 2 = very little, 3 = a little, 4 = moderately, 5 = strongly, 6 = very strongly, 7 = completely.

Amotivation

1. I don't, because I really feel like I'm wasting my time at work.
2. I do little because I don't think this work is worth putting efforts into.
3. I don't know why I'm doing this job, it's pointless work.

Extrinsic regulation – social

1. To get others' approval (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients ...).
2. Because others will respect me more (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients ...).
3. To avoid being criticized by others (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients ...).

Extrinsic regulation – material

1. Because others will reward me financially only if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor ...).
2. Because others offer me greater job security if I put enough effort in my job (e.g., employer, supervisor ...).
3. Because I risk losing my job if I don't put enough effort in it.

Introjected regulation

1. Because I have to prove to myself that I can.

2. Because it makes me feel proud of myself.
3. Because otherwise I will feel ashamed of myself.
4. Because otherwise I will feel bad about myself.

Identified regulation

1. Because I personally consider it important to put effort in this job.
2. Because putting effort in this job aligns with my personal values.
3. Because putting efforts in this job has personal significance to me.

Intrinsic motivation

1. Because I have fun doing my job.
2. Because what I do in my work is exciting.
3. Because the work I do is interesting.