

Corporate social responsibility and employee performance: Mediation role of job satisfaction and affective commitment

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Abstract

The positive impact of corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices has been recognized over the past years. Recently, research has looked into the impact of CSR practices on employee behavior demonstrating positive results. Drawing from a sample of 190 supervisor-subordinate dyads, we studied the relationship between perceived CSR practices (external and internal) and employee performance (supervisor-rated) and two mechanisms that explain this relationship. Specifically, we studied if this relationship was mediated by employees' job satisfaction and affective commitment. Results indicate that there is a direct link between perceptions of external CSR and performance and that job satisfaction partially mediates this relationship. Also, perceptions of internal CSR are related to higher performance via job satisfaction, supporting full mediation. On the other hand, although both internal and external CSR were related to affective commitment, affective commitment did not act as a mediator for the CSR-performance relationship. Implications for practice and limitations of this study conclude the article.

KEYWORDS

affective commitment, external CSR, in-role performance, internal CSR, job satisfaction

1 | INTRODUCTION

Practitioners and scholars have been paying increased attention to the issue of ethics, morality, and sustainability in business, with most organizations responding with environmental and social initiatives (Carroll, 1991). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is considered crucial for business success (Carvalho, Sen, de Oliveira, & de Lima, 2010) and part of the organization's strategy in order to achieve competitive advantage (Latif & Sajjad, 2017). The European Commission defined CSR as "the responsibility of enterprises for their impact on society" (European Commission, 2019). Given the broad definition, CSR is often conceptualized by how different stakeholder groups interact with the organization and how much pressure these stakeholders put in them (Onkila, 2015). In fact, stakeholder theory is an integral part of the CSR concept (Mathis, 2007).

Studies have generally tested the impact that CSR has on different stakeholders. For example, as it concerns stockholders, CSR has been

linked to firm performance (Byus, Deis, & Ouyang, 2010; Cochran & Wood, 1984; McGuire, Sundgren, & Schneeweis, 1988; Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003) and organization reputation (Hur, Kim, & Woo, 2014). As it concerns customers, CSR has been linked to consumer satisfaction (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004) and customer extra-role behavior (Lii & Lee, 2012; Hur, Kim & Kim, 2018). More recently, studies have looked at the impact of CSR on employees by looking at many organizational behavior variables, for example, employee-company identification (McShane & Cunningham, 2012), organizational commitment (Bouraoui, Bensemmane, Ohana, & Russo, 2018), organizational citizenship behaviors (Ong, Mayer, Tost, & Wellman, 2018), general satisfaction (Valentine & Fleischman, 2008), turnover intention (Hansen, Dunford, Boss, Boss, & Angermeier, 2011), turnover (Ng, Yam, & Aguinis, 2018), team performance (Lin, Baruch, & Shih, 2012), job satisfaction (Zhou, Luo, & Tang, 2017), engagement (Rupp et al., 2018), and organization identification (De Roeck & Delobbe, 2012; Ghosh, 2018).

Although CSR has been positively related to many positive employee outcomes, its impact on employee performance has been studied to a much lesser extent. For example, Story and Neves (2015) found that the interaction between perceptions of CSR extrinsic and intrinsic predicted employee performance. Edwards and Kudret (2017) examined the impact of CSR perceptions on employee performance through justice and commitment perceptions. However, most organizations do not know how to use CSR in order to engage employees (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2008). Thus, this study contributes to the literature in CSR in many ways: first, we analyze how different types of CSR activities impact employees (i.e., aimed at internal and external stakeholders). Second, we look at the impact that these types of practices have on employee performance as rated by supervisors. Third, we look into two different mediating mechanisms that explain how the different types of CSR perceptions influence employee performance: via job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

2 | CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

CSR is related to business decisions related to economic concerns, ethical values, legal compliance, and respect towards all stakeholders relevant to a firm's operations (Carroll, 1991). In fact, CSRs are a set of corporate practices that go beyond economic interests that affect positively organizational stakeholders (Turker, 2009). Clarkson (1995) suggested that a firm's survival is related to how executives respond to stakeholder's needs. Verdeyen, Put, and Buggenhout (2004) categorized stakeholders as internal or external. Consequently, CSR can also be conceptualized as a way in which organizations respond to these stakeholders.

Therefore, *internal* CSR represent those organizational practices related to the betterment of working conditions. Specifically, career opportunities, family-friendly policies, training and development, and diversity management can be a form of these practices (Turker, 2009). However, this is not limited to psychological working environment, but also the betterment of the physical work environment. Although on the other hand, *external* CSR refer to those activities aimed at the protection of the environment, community development, sustainability, and philanthropic activities (Turker, 2009).

2.1 | CSR and individual performance

In-role performance is defined as the fundamental responsibilities the worker was hired to do in exchange for their compensation package. It refers to the behavior directed towards formal tasks, duties, and responsibilities that are written in their job description (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Research related to CSR and employee performance is scarce. Story and Neves (2015) found that the interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic CSR predicted employee performance. They specifically found that only when employees perceived that the organization was investing on practices that they saw as smart and congruent with their values, they reciprocated this behavior via in-role

performance. Edwards and Kudret (2017) examined the impact of CSR perceptions on employee performance through justice and commitment perceptions. In this study, we aim to explain how different types of CSR practices can influence individual performance.

Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) explains that individuals identify with a social entity in which they feel a connection with. In fact, employees may identify themselves with an organization in a way in which they establish a positive personal identity with it, as a result of how the organization communicate or behave towards the environment and the community. For example, employees who feel that the actions of their organization match their own values, beliefs, and morals are more likely to identify with their organization and perform better because of it. In fact, previous studies have supported the relationship between organization identification and performance (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007). Therefore we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1a. *External CSR is positively associated with employee performance.*

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), on the other hand, helps explain how internal CSR can influence individual performance as it emphasizes the reciprocity aspect of social interactions. That is, if employees perceive that the organization is investing in them by CSR activities, these practices should be rewarded as they are judged positively. With that, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1b. *Internal CSR is positively associated with employee performance.*

2.2 | Mediating effects of job satisfaction

Employee satisfaction (also referred as job satisfaction) is defined as a positive feeling about one's job and various aspects of it (Carrière & Bourque, 2009; Spector, 1997). More broadly, job satisfaction is the extent to which employees like or dislike their jobs (Furnham, Eracleous, & Premuzic, 2009) and is linked to the fulfillment and gratification that comes from work (Chapman, 1994). Locke (1976, p. 196) highlights that job satisfaction is the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experience". Generally speaking, job satisfaction stems from the job environment itself (e.g. organizational reputation or external CSR practices) and from the factors associated with the job itself (e.g. organizational leadership or internal CSR practices). In fact, jobs are ambiguous stimuli. Employee satisfaction with their jobs may be influenced by other factors that are not necessarily directly linked with their tasks (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). For example, how one feels about one's job is determined by social cues processed from the work environment. This means that the CSR perception may influence job satisfaction. Indeed, responsible activities of the firm can impact the degree to which employees are satisfied with their job (Tamm, Eamets, & Mötsmees, 2010; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008; Zhou et al., 2017).

In fact, employees feel more satisfied with their jobs in firms that commit themselves to socially responsible activities, whereas those

working for companies that do not invest in CSR feel less satisfied with many aspects of job (Tamm et al., 2010). Consequently, a positive link between external CSR and job satisfaction is expected. Internal CSR practices, on the other hand, are related to the betterment of working conditions. Therefore, these practices are related to the level of satisfaction one may have about their job. Indeed, the link between HRM practices and job satisfaction has also been established (Ting, 1997).

Additionally, we can expect that job satisfaction will have an impact on employee performance. The relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance has been extensively studied in management (for a meta-analysis and review see Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Based on the discussion above, we can argue that positive organizational activities related to external and internal CSR will lead to increased job satisfaction in employees, which consequently can impact employee performance. Thus, the following is hypothesized.

Hypothesis 2a. *Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between CSR external and employee performance.*

Hypothesis 2b. *Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between CSR internal and employee performance.*

2.3 | Mediating effects of affective commitment

Affective commitment is defined as “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p.226). Affective commitment is largely related to the result of work experiences (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a meta-analysis on organizational commitment and reported various antecedents of it, including demographic variables, tenure, perceived competence and ability, salary, protestant work ethic, job level, job characteristics, and leadership styles. In this article, we propose that both external and internal CSR to be important antecedents of affective commitment. For example, employees may feel prouder to be associated with a respectful and socially well-viewed organization; which may boost their self-esteem and, consequently, lead to positive work attitudes such as affective commitment. This is explained by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This link has been established in the literature (Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007; Collier & Esteban, 2007). Also, according to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) employees may perceive that internal CSR activities should be rewarded as they are judged positively. Thus, employees become more committed to their organization if they perceive the organization is committed to them.

Additionally, it can be expected that affective commitment will lead to higher in-role performance. This means that employees who feel a bond with the organization often perform better. Indeed, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Riketta (2002) in their meta-analysis

reported a relationship between organizational commitment and performance. Thus,

Hypothesis 3a. *Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between CSR external and individual performance.*

Hypothesis 3b. *Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between CSR internal and individual performance.*

3 | METHODS

3.1 | Sample and Procedure

One large and reputable financial institution in Latvia was sampled. Two basic criteria was used to select an organization: first, the organization had to have a substantial CSR program that was considered reputable—we used their CSR reporting as proxy for that information; second, the organization had to be open to research in order for us to collect data from both employee and their direct supervisors. After this criterion was met, we determined that our sample was very relevant as financial institutions are unique if you consider the effects of CSR practices (Forcadell & Aracil, 2017) and that very few studies have looked at the role of CSR on Baltic Countries.

Following the approval and encouragement from the HR department, surveys were sent via email to randomly select 200 employees and their respective supervisors from a variety of departments. Due to the encouragement of the HR department, we had a very high response rate (92%) resulting in a total of 190 employee-supervisor dyads. The employees were asked to rate their perceptions of the organization CSR practices (internal and external), their job satisfaction, and affective commitment whereas supervisors rated employee performance. Of the employee sample, 55% of respondents were female, 72% were 18–29 years old, and 66% had obtained Bachelor Degrees, and 20% Master degrees. The average tenure of employees was ranged between 1 and 6 years. Out of the supervisor sample, 53% were female, with average age between 30 to 39 years old (52%), 92% had a Masters degree with average tenure ranging from 3 to 10 years.

3.2 | Measures

CSR *Internal* was rated on six questions, 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* developed by Turker (2009)—subscale CSR to employees. Sample items include “this organization appears to encourage employees to participate to voluntarily activities” and “this organization appears to encourage its employees to develop their skills and careers.” Reliability analysis for this scale was $\alpha = 0.68$.

CSR *External* was rated on six questions, 5-point Likert-type scale of Turker (2009) subscale CSR to social and nonsocial stakeholders. Sample items include “this organization appears to participate in

activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment” and “this organization appears to contribute to the campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.” Reliability analysis for this scale was $\alpha = 0.80$.

3.2.1 | Job satisfaction

According to Saari and Judge (2004) job satisfaction can be faceted or global (one item—“how satisfied are you with your job”). If satisfaction is faced-based, overall job satisfaction is a sum of its facets, which has been sufficiently related to suggest that they are measuring a single construct (Judge & Hulin, 1993). Similar to how other studies have measured job satisfaction (attitudinal state to which people like and dislike aspects of their work), we measured job satisfaction by asking employees about their satisfaction with six different job areas: pay, relationships with coworkers, supervision, opportunity for promotion, and the work itself on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. These are the same facets that the Job Descriptive Index uses (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Sample items for this scale include “I am satisfied with the level of pay I receive” and “I have good working relationships with my co-workers” (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.74$).

Affective commitment was rated using the six items developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Sample questions include “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my life in this organization” and “I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization” (reversed). Cronbach's alpha was 0.82 for this scale.

3.2.2 | Job performance

In-role performance of employees was evaluated by the supervisors with five questions on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* developed by Williams and Anderson (1991)

to rate how subordinates' meet their job requirements. Sample items include “This person meets job functions adequately” and “This person meets formal requirements expected” (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.76$).

3.2.3 | Control variables

Following the recommendations of many scholars, including Brammer et al. (2007) we controlled for age, gender, education, and tenure as they can be related to individuals' reactions to CSR initiatives. Therefore, to look for confounding effects these variables were included in the model as control variables (see Table 1).

3.3 | Statistical analysis

To test for the structure of the measurement model, we used structural equation modeling with AMOS 17.0 software package (Arbuckle, 2008) and the maximum likelihood estimation method and the covariance matrix were used. Following established recommendations (Arbuckle, 2008), the evaluation of the overall goodness of fit of the models was based on the combination of several fit indices. Models were compared based on Chi-square difference tests and on other fit indices: the *standardized root mean square (SRMR)*, the *incremental fit index (IFI)*, the *Bentler comparative fit index (CFI)*, and the *root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)*. For IFI and CFI, values greater than 0.90 represent a good model fit, and for RMSEA, values less than 0.07 indicate a good model fit (Arbuckle, 2008). However, several authors pointed that in CFA and structural equation modeling parameter estimates, chi-square tests and SMRM are sensitive to sample size (Brown, 2015; Byrne, 2012; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, for a small N (<250) and a large number of estimated parameters (a complex model), the confidence intervals (CIs) must be wider. Accordingly, the cut off point for SMRM was 0.09.

Concerning measurement models, the full measurement model was initially tested (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This model (five-

TABLE 1 Descriptive statistics and study variable intercorrelations

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender (a)	1.54	0.50								
2. Age (b)	1.30	0.53	0.08							
3. Tenure (c)	3.28	1.04	0.10	0.29***						
4. Education (d)	3.40	0.91	-0.06	-0.04	-0.12					
5. CSR External	4.10	0.36	0.04	0.08	-0.06	-0.07				
6. CSR Internal	4.10	0.45	0.10	0.11	0.15*	0.13	0.20**			
7. Job satisfaction	4.08	0.45	-0.03	0.09	-0.09	0.05	0.45***	0.31***		
8. Affective commitment	3.78	0.54	0.17*	0.04	0.37***	-0.07	0.22**	0.51***	0.40***	
9. Performance	4.21	0.41	0.04	-0.03	0.11	0.08	0.27**	0.05	0.27***	0.06

Note. $N = 190$.

(a) Dummy variable coded 0 if female and 1 for male; (b) age was coded as an ordinal variable with 1 representing less than 29 years old, 2 from 30 to 39 years, 3 from 40 to 49 years, 4 from 50 to 59, and 5 more than 60 years old; (c) tenure was coded as an ordinal variable with 1 representing less than 3 months, 2 from 3 to 11 months, 3 from 12 to 35 months, 4 from 36 to 71 months, 4 from 71 to 120 months, 5 more than 120 months; (d) education was coded as an ordinal variable with 1 representing primary education, 2 secondary, 3 bachelors degree, 4 masters degree, and 5 representing PhD.

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

factor model) included all observed items loading on their respective latent variables (CSR external, CSR Internal, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job performance). The latent variables were allowed to correlate with each other. The full measurement model obtained a good fit ($\chi^2[346] = 546.61$, $p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.09; IFI = 0.91; CFI = 0.91; RMSEA = 0.06), and all standardized regression coefficients were significant at the 0.001 level.

To test for common method variance, we conducted a Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This test involves a CFA in which we loaded all variables onto one general factor (one-factor model). This model showed a mediocre fit to the data ($\chi^2[357] = 1328.60$, $p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.13; IFI = 0.55; CFI = 0.54; RMSEA = 0.12), indicating that a single factor does not account for the majority of variance in data. We then performed a second test, as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003), in which an unmeasured latent method factor was added to the five-factor model, allowing all items to load on their theoretical constructs, as well as on the latent methods factor. The method model obtained a good fit ($\chi^2[318] = 440.41$, $p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.09; IFI = 0.95; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.05). Because the five-factor model cannot be nested within this model, but both have the same observed variables, the comparison of the goodness-of-fit of these models was calculated by CFI difference. The change of CFI between both models was 0.03, which is below the suggested rule of thumb of 0.05 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1990). Therefore, one can conclude that including the method factor in the model does not significantly improve the overall fit of the model.

Finally, other nested models were computed to test alternative combinations of observed variables. First, a four-factor model was explored in which CSR external and CSR internal observed items were loaded onto a latent variable and the remaining observed items were loaded onto their respective latent variables (affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance). This model obtained a mediocre fit ($\chi^2[351] = 730.47$, $p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.11; IFI = 0.81; CFI = 0.81; RMSEA = 0.08). This model showed a significantly poorer fit to the data when compared with the five-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2[5] = 183.86$, $p < 0.001$; Δ CFI = 0.09). Second, another four-factor model was examined in which affective commitment and job satisfaction observed items were loaded onto a latent variable and the remaining observed items were loaded onto their respective latent variables (CSR external, CSR internal, and job performance). This model obtained a poor fit to the data ($\chi^2[351] = 756.35$, $p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.11; IFI = 0.81; CFI = 0.81; RMSEA = 0.08), significantly worse when compared with model ($\Delta\chi^2[5] = 209.74$, $p < 0.001$; Δ CFI = 0.10). Altogether, these analyses showed that the factor structures of the research variables were consistent with the conceptual model and also that the manifest variables loaded onto the latent variables, as intended.

To test our hypotheses we used a regression-based path analysis using PROCESS software, which is a computational tool for estimating and probing mediations with multiple mediators operating in parallel (Hayes, 2012). Process is a SPSS software macro that allows the test of the indirect effects *ab*, with a normal theory approach (e.g., the

Sobel test) and with a bootstrap approach to calculate CIs. According to MacKinnon, Lockwood, and Williams (2004) bootstrapping is recommended. Through the application of bootstrapped CIs, it is possible to avoid power problems introduced by asymmetric and other nonnormal sampling distributions of an indirect effect. Hypotheses were tested in two different models. In Model A, we examined the relationship between CSR external and performance (1a), and the specific indirect effects through job satisfaction (2a) and affective commitment (3a), and in Model B, we examined the relationship between CSR internal and performance (1b), and the specific indirect effects through job satisfaction (2b) and affective commitment (3b). To test these hypotheses, we estimated Model 4 in PROCESS using 10,000 bootstrap samples, 95% bias-corrected bootstrap CIs for all indirect effects. This model also incorporates the multistep approach proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986).

4 | RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 1. As expected, external CSR is positively related to individual performance ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$); however, internal CSR was not ($r = 0.05$, $p = 0.47$). Both external and internal CSR were positively related to job satisfaction ($r = 0.45$, $p < 0.001$ and $r = 0.31$, $p < 0.001$, respectively) and to affective commitment ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$ and $r = 0.51$, $p < 0.001$, respectively). Job satisfaction was related to supervisor-rated individual performance ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$), but contrary to our expectations, affective commitment was not ($r = 0.05$, $p = 0.44$).

4.1 | Test of specific indirect effects

Hypothesis 1a proposed that external CSR was associated with better supervisor-rated performance and that this relationship was mediated by job satisfaction (2a) and affective commitment (3a), as mediators operating in parallel (Model A). Table 2 shows that CSR external was positively associated with individual performance ($B = 0.24$, $t = 2.61$, $p < 0.01$), thereby supporting 1a. Furthermore, CSR external was positively associated with employee attitudes towards their job (job satisfaction: $B = 0.56$, $t = 6.65$, $p < 0.001$) and towards their organization (affective commitment: $B = 0.40$, $t = 3.99$, $p < 0.001$). In addition, job satisfaction was positively related with performance ($B = 0.19$, $t = 2.42$, $p < 0.05$), and we observed a significant indirect effect of CSR external on supervisor-rated performance through job satisfaction (indirect effect = 0.11; 95% CI from 0.01 to 0.20; $z = 2.25$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, results supported the hypothesis that the relationship between CSR external and individual performance was mediated by employee attitudes towards their job (2a supported). Contrary to our expectations, affective commitment was not significantly associated with individual performance ($B = -0.06$, $t = -0.83$, $p = 0.41$). This nonsignificant coefficient is consistent with previous analysis of correlations (Table 1) and precludes the test of 3a.

Concerning internal CSR, Hypothesis 1b proposed that internal CSR was positively associated with performance and that this

TABLE 2 Model A: The relationship between CSR external and performance, and the specific indirect effects through job satisfaction and affective commitment

Steps	B	SE	t	p
Job satisfaction regressed on CSR External (a1 path)	0.56	0.08	6.65	<0.001
Affective commitment regressed on CSR External (a2 path)	0.40	0.10	3.99	<0.001
Performance regressed on job satisfaction, controlling for CSR External and affective commitment (b1 path)	0.19	0.08	2.42	<0.05
Performance regressed on affective commitment, controlling for CSR External and job satisfaction (b1 path)	-0.06	0.08	-0.83	0.41
Performance regressed on CSR External, controlling for job satisfaction and affective commitment (c' path)	0.24	0.10	2.61	<0.01
Unstandardized value	Effect	SE	LL95%CI	UL95%CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect through job satisfaction	0.11	0.05	0.01	0.20
Effect through affective commitment	-0.02	0.03	-0.10	0.02
C1	0.13	0.07	0.01	0.27
Normal theory tests for specific indirect effects (Sobel)	Effect	SE	Z	P
Effect through job satisfaction	0.11	0.05	2.25	<0.05
Effect through affective commitment	-0.02	0.03	-0.79	0.43

Note. $N = 189$. Bootstrap sample size = 10,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit. C1 = specific indirect effects contrast definitions (job satisfaction minus affective commitment). CSR: corporate social responsibility.

relationship was mediated by job satisfaction (2b) and affective commitment (3b), as mediators operating in parallel (Model B). Table 3 shows that CSR internal was not significantly associated with individual performance ($B = -0.01$, $t = -0.17$, $p = 0.87$), thereby not supporting 1b. Nevertheless, CSR internal was positively associated with job satisfaction ($B = 0.33$, $t = 4.56$, $p < 0.001$) and affective commitment ($B = 0.59$, $t = 8.05$, $p < 0.001$). In addition, job satisfaction was positively associated with performance ($B = 0.27$, $t = 3.54$, $p < 0.01$), and normality theory tests confirmed a significant indirect effect of CSR internal on supervisor-rated performance through job satisfaction (indirect effect = 0.09; 95% CI from 0.03 to 0.17; $z = 2.75$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, results indicated a specific indirect effect through job satisfaction in the relationship between CSR internal and individual performance (2b supported). As previously observed, affective commitment was not significantly associated with individual performance ($B = -0.04$, $t = -0.48$, $p = 0.63$), therefore precluding the test of 3b.

In Figure 1, we summarize the main findings of our study.

TABLE 3 Model B: The relationship between CSR internal and performance, and the specific indirect effects through job satisfaction and affective commitment

Steps	B	SE	t	p
Job satisfaction regressed on CSR Internal (a1 path)	0.33	0.07	4.56	<0.001
Affective commitment regressed on CSR Internal (a2 path)	0.59	0.07	8.05	<0.001
Performance regressed on job satisfaction, controlling for CSR Internal and affective commitment (b1 path)	0.27	0.08	3.54	<0.01
Performance regressed on affective commitment, controlling for CSR Internal and job satisfaction (b1 path)	-0.04	0.08	-0.48	0.63
Performance regressed on CSR Internal, controlling for job satisfaction and affective commitment (c' path)	-0.01	0.08	-0.17	0.87
Unstandardized value	Effect	SE	LL95%CI	UL95%CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect through job satisfaction	0.09	0.04	0.03	0.17
Effect through affective commitment	-0.02	0.05	-0.12	0.06
C1	0.11	0.07	0.01	0.26
Normal theory tests for specific indirect effects (Sobel)	Effect	SE	Z	P
Effect through job satisfaction	0.09	0.03	2.75	<0.01
Effect through affective commitment	-0.02	0.04	-0.48	0.63

Note. $N = 189$. Bootstrap sample size = 10,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit. C1 = specific indirect effects contrast definitions (job satisfaction minus affective commitment). CSR: corporate social responsibility.

5 | DISCUSSION

This study tested the impact of perceptions of external and internal CSR practices on individual performance. Job satisfaction and affective commitment were also tested as mediating mechanisms for these relationships. We found that external CSR have a direct relationship with in-role performance, affective commitment, and job satisfaction. We also found that the relationship between external CSR and performance to be partially mediated by job satisfaction. Affective commitment did not correlate with in-role performance; thus, it was not an effective mediator. In terms of internal CSR, we found that it did correlate with affective commitment and job satisfaction. However, it did not have a direct relationship with in-role performance. Job satisfaction mediated the relationship between internal CSR and performance.

We found that perceptions of external CSR directly influence individual performance. This means that employees recognize that these practices are important and relevant and identify with their

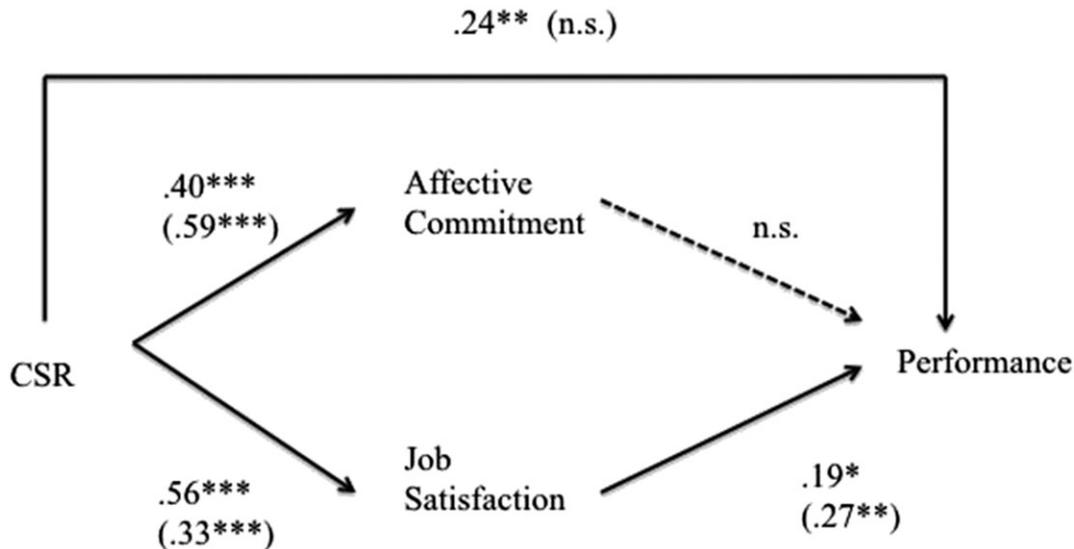


FIGURE 1 Main research findings. Coefficient values for Model A (corporate social responsibility [CSR] External) and Model B (CSR Internal—in parenthesis)

organizations. In fact, previous studies have found that CSR can be a source of pride for employees (De Roeck, El Akremi, & Swaen, 2016). Considering that CSR is connected to how reputable their organization may be, employees may also feel that they need to perform better to work in an organization that is perceived as reputable.

Surprisingly, we found that there was no direct relationship between internal CSR and performance, meaning that although individuals may appreciate these practices, they do not feel that they stimulate extra performance. Another way to interpret these is through the lens of Herzberg's theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman, 1959) in which there are work characteristics itself that must be in place for job satisfaction, considered *satisfiers* and those other aspects that we consider *motivators*. In this study, we could argue that external CSR practice acts as motivators, and CSR internal are potentially seen as satisfiers, necessary, but not key for exerting extra-effort.

The results also indicated that both external and internal CSR were relevant for workplace attitudes such as job satisfaction. External CSR had the largest impact on satisfaction; however, there was also strong relationship between internal CSR and satisfaction. This is in line with the work of Tamm et al. (2010) and Valentine and Fleischman (2008) that found that when an organization has a strong CSR plan, the workforce feels more satisfied at work. This indicates that job satisfaction is highly contextual, thus, indicating that the job environment (which can include CSR practices) may influence how one feels about their job. Job satisfaction was also considered an important mechanism that can help explain the CSR–Performance link. Thus, organizations that invest in CSR practices both externally and internally appear to have more satisfied employees, which in turn perform better.

Affective commitment was also correlated to both external and internal CSR. This variable also acted differently from job satisfaction, as the relationship between CSR internal and commitment was stronger than the relationship between CSR external. Thus, although CSR as a whole makes employees more committed to their organizations,

employees feel that this attachment is stronger when organizations invest on them versus on external stakeholders. However, in this study, there was no relationship between affective commitment and performance. This goes against the findings of the literature—two meta-analysis found that this relationship while small, it was significant (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Riketta, 2002). However, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) indicated that “commitment has relatively little direct influence on performance in most instances” (p. 184). Indeed, Becker, Billings, Eveleth, and Gilbert (1996) found that commitment to supervisor predicts performance better than commitment to organizations. Schoemmel and Jønsson (2014) found that although commitment to the job increased performance, commitment to the department and organization did not. We found similar results.

5.1 | Implications for research and practice

This study contributed to the literature in a number of ways. First, it looked at employee's perspectives from CSR practices aimed at them and aimed at the external environment. We used two theoretical mechanisms to justify these relationships, the first using social identity theory and the second using social exchange theory. Most studies looking at the impact of CSR on employees do not distinguish between the two types of practices aimed at two different stakeholders (external and internal). According to our findings, these different types of perceptions can help us understand a bit more of the nuanced relationship between how employees make sense of organization's CSR practices and how these affect their attitudes (job satisfaction and affective commitment) and behaviors (performance). Second, it studied the impact that these practices have directly on employee performance, as rated by supervisors. This makes this study more robust as it looks at two sources of data. The results of this study recognize CSR as an important antecedent variable for enhanced employee performance (via job satisfaction). This study

provides support that CSR practices benefit not only the society but also the organization; it does provide shared value (Porter & Kramer, 2011). The model analyzed can serve as a roadmap for studying how organizations, in doing well by doing good, can push their employees to engage in both efficient and effective behaviors.

In practical terms, managers should understand how important CSR practices aimed at the external environment are for employees. Not only employees are committed to their organization, they are more satisfied, and perform better. Therefore, managers should communicate external CSR practices to employees and better yet, involve employees in these practices. However, managers should also be extremely careful about the communication of external CSR as employees are very aware of what is going on in their organization and will be able to tell if the organization is doing a publicity stunt or marketing. If employees perceive that the organization is only acting to enhance their reputation, these practices might backfire (Keys, Malnight, & van der Graaf, 2009; Story & Neves, 2015).

Managers should also understand that although internal CSR practices did not lead to higher performance in this study, it does not mean that these practices are not important or relevant. If they are taken away, many negative possible consequences may emerge. In fact, internal CSR practices may not act as a motivator in terms of performance, but it can in fact attract employees to the organization (Story, Castanheira, & Hartig, 2016).

5.2 | Limitations and directions for future research

Although the findings of this study are unique and strong, there are a few limitations as well. The first limitation of this study is its generalization. We tested out hypothesis in a single organization in a banking industry in Latvia. Although it may not be possible to draw definite conclusions applicable for all businesses, the company was useful for examining the influence of CSR practices on important outcomes. Furthermore, we can make some inferences about the country as Huettinger (2008) found that Baltic Countries score much more similarly to Scandinavian countries than to Russia or Poland. Future studies should examine the impact of CSR on individual performance in different industries and countries. Findings should also be interpreted keeping these in mind.

In this study, external CSR practices had a direct impact on performance but internal CSR did not. It would be interesting to see if mediators such as engagement would connect these variables. In this study, we did not look into under what conditions these relationships would be stronger; therefore, future studies could include moderating variables such as human resources practices, leadership, or even dispositional variables would change these relationships.

Finally, it is important to highlight that we tried to minimize the effects of common method variance by following several of the methodological and statistical recommendations by Podsakoff et al. (2003). We collected data from supervisors and employees; however, both internal and external CSR, job satisfaction, and affective commitment were collected from the same source, the subordinate. To control

for potential confounding effects of common method variance, we conducted several CFA tests to our measurement model, including a Harman's single factor test and a methods' latent factor test. Together, results supported the conclusion that the *method* factor does not account for a significant part of the data variance. Furthermore, the findings were consistent with the literature, lending us additional confidence that there are not common method bias issues in this study. Nevertheless, future studies should consider longitudinal data and further test the causality among variables.

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