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Corporate social responsibility and individual outcomes: The mediating role of gratitude and compassion at work

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Abstract

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) policies and activities are aimed at, executed for, and witnessed by individuals, yet CSR literature has long overlooked assessing CSR outcomes at the individual level. Previous CSR research has focused primarily on macro and institutional level outcomes. The current paper addresses this issue by analyzing the influence of CSR on a crucial stakeholder for hospitality organizations: their employees. Specifically, gratitude and compassion at work were tested as parallel mediators between employees' perceptions of CSR and their well-being and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization (OCBO). Drawing from the affect theory of social exchange and moral emotions, this paper aims to understand how CSR leads to improving employees' well-being and OCBO through the underlying emotional mechanisms of gratitude and compassion. Survey data from two

independent samples were gathered to test the hypotheses. The findings revealed that employees' perceptions of CSR activities had a significant positive direct effect on eudaimonic well-being but not on hedonic well-being. Gratitude mediated the relationship between perceived CSR and OCBO as well as hedonic well-being. Compassion mediated the relationship between perceived CSR and hedonic well-being as well as OCBO. Besides theoretical contributions of testing these mechanisms together in a hospitality context and evaluating the influence of CSR efforts on certain dimensions of well-being, this research will be particularly relevant to hospitality managers when formulating CSR strategies and promoting a CSR culture.

Key words: corporate social responsibility, gratitude, compassion, well-being

Introduction

U.S. companies spend approximately \$880 billion on health care and another \$530 billion per year in lost productivity due to illness (IBI, 2018). Accordingly, U.S. companies have found a need to focus on health and well-being (BSR, 2013). Today, employees are working longer hours and are more connected to work via technology than ever before. Therefore, it is not surprising that work-family conflict is identified as a societal concern by many countries (Williams, 2010; French et al., 2018). The hospitality industry is not immune to the phenomenon. Long hours, stress and emotional labor are typical in the hospitality industry. Employee's poor health impacts the employer's bottom-line via more expensive group health insurance premiums, frequent absenteeism, and high turnover. Corporate social responsibility (CSR) can play a crucial role in addressing these challenges (BSR, 2013). For instance, Hilton recently launched Thrive@Hilton as part of their CSR efforts. Some initiatives include offering sabbatical time and \$5,000 to pursue a passion and offering relaxation rooms with calm music, books, magazines, refreshments, and board games for employees (Capano, 2018). After implementing the program, the results of Hilton's staff survey showed a positive correlation between well-being activities and performance (NewBery, 2017).

Employees are critical to implementing an effective CSR strategy, but questions regarding how CSR efforts can be more effective at the individual level remain unanswered (Glavas, 2016; Wang et al., 2016). In addition to understanding the impacts of CSR practice on external stakeholders (customers, sponsors, and suppliers), organizations should seek to understand how CSR can benefit internal stakeholders (employees). This research draws on affect theory of social exchange (ATSE; Lawler, 2001), and literature on moral emotions (Tangney et al., 2007; Grappi et al., 2013) to propose that CSR can produce employees'

gratitude, compassion, well-being, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) based on the emotional aspect of social exchange. We propose that gratitude and compassion at work are two main emotions that mediate the relationship between CSR perception and employees' outcomes. Previous studies have revealed the impacts of perceived CSR on employees' emotions and called for better understanding of the link between CSR and discrete emotions (Hur et al., 2016). Since experiencing compassion (Dutton et al., 2014) and gratitude (Fehr et al., 2017) in the workplace promotes a positive psychological state, we identified compassion and gratitude as emotional antecedents of individuals' well-being.

The objectives of this study are three-fold: 1) to examine the extent to which perceived CSR influences hedonic and eudaimonic well-being; 2) to examine whether perceived CSR influences employees' OCB; and 3) to test the mediational effects of gratitude and compassion resulting from perceived CSR on outcome variables. First, this paper introduces employees' compassion and gratitude toward the organization as two discrete moral emotions that are influenced by organizational CSR. Linking CSR with gratitude and compassion provides empirical evidence of how CSR is related to these emotions, thereby paving the way to a new understanding of the relational pattern of CSR. The few existing studies linking CSR with employees' well-being identified underlying cognitive mechanisms such as organizational trust and job satisfaction (e.g., Su & Swanson, 2019). However, the conditions in which CSR may influence employee emotions has yet to be considered. Second, the paper examines how CSR is related to two types of employee well-being (hedonic and eudaimonic), thus clarifying how CSR impacts employee well-being. Third, the research provides hotel managers with empirical evidence regarding how organizations can make the best of CSR practices to boost employees' work-related performance and general well-being.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

CSR and its effects on employees

Although varying CSR definitions exist, CSR is generally conceptualized as discretionary, context-specific, organizational practices and policies that take into consideration multiple stakeholders and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance (Aguinis, 2011; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Numerous studies have established that different stakeholders react favorably to an organization's CSR (e.g., Glavas, 2016). Yet, some stakeholder groups, such as employees, have not gained as much attention (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Understanding the relationship between CSR and employees is important, as employees are central to service delivery, connecting customers to the company (Dawson & Abbott, 2009; Rhou & Singal, 2020). Employees' well-being, engagement, satisfaction, and motivation are fundamental to offering a better customer experience. An increase in customer experience leads to the organization's success and competitive advantage (Chen et al., 2017; Serra-Cantalops et al., 2018). CSR as a company strategy benefits employees' work lives and has a spillover effect on their well-being (Kim et al., 2018).

Researchers have explained the relationship between CSR and employees' attitudes and behaviors through the lens of social exchange theory (SET, e.g., Kim et al., 2017; Slack et al., 2015). The main essence of SET is that: "social exchange comprises actions contingent on the rewarding reactions of other, which over time provide for mutually and rewarding transactions and relationships" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p.890). Specifically, in hospitality research, SET has been used to explain the relationships between CSR and customer orientation (Lee et al., 2013), OCB (Kim et al., 2017), and engagement (Park et al., 2018). Although SET helps in the understanding of reciprocal behaviors, it does not explain how and when emotions produced

by exchanges generate stronger or weaker ties. Lawler (2001) goes beyond the traditional social exchange foundations to explain that the intensity and form of emotional effects from social exchanges can vary, resulting in the ATSE. The ATSE emphasizes not only the exchange structure, but also the affective processes produced by such structures. Depending on the success of exchanges, individuals experience emotional highs or lows. These emotions also affect how the individuals perceive “their shared activity, their relation, and/or their common group affiliations” (Lawler, 2001, p. 322). This theory also argues that individuals attribute their exchange-based emotions to social units, as the exchange unites them around a collective endeavor (Lawler, 2001). This study argues that the ATSE expands the knowledge about the effect of CSR at the individual level, offering a conceptual background for understanding emotions connected to social exchanges. Positive social exchange related to CSR between the company and employees can generate emotions of gratitude and perceptions about compassion that will further influence employees’ outcomes, such as OCB and well-being.

CSR and moral emotions

While prior individual-level research on CSR has focused on employee cognitions, the possibility that CSR may also impact employees’ emotional experience has long been overlooked (Aguilera et al., 2007; Greening & Turban, 2000). CSR focuses on the ethical aspect of the organization, namely, the organization’s moral engagement (e.g., Kolk, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). Previous studies have linked CSR with organizations’ moral management of stakeholders by proposing that CSR is a pathway to cultivating both cognitive and emotional aspects of moral experience for employees (e.g., Supanti et al., 2015; Shen & Benson, 2016; Carroll, 1991). Literature on moral psychology suggests that one’s emotional experience often arises from and is

contingent on the moral aspects of the emotion-triggering situations or practice (Aguinis, 2011; Rupp et al., 2006). In other words, people react emotionally to morality-related experiences. One category of emotions, called “moral emotions,” is defined as “emotions that go beyond the direct interests of the self” and “are linked to the interests or welfare either of society as a whole or at least of persons other than the judge or agent” (Haidt, 2003; p. 853). Negative moral emotions have been found to result from either one’s own behavior that goes against the moral standards, resulting in guilt and shame, or one’s perception of others’ ethical violations, leading to an experience of anger or fear (e.g., Rozin et al., 1999; Kim, 2016). Accordingly, we expect an organization’s CSR to result in employees’ experiencing positive moral emotions. To date, very little research can be found linking CSR with employees’ moral emotions.

CSR and well-being

Researchers interest in the distinction between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being is growing, as it has been recognized that both concepts are central to produce greater individual well-being (Huta & Waterman, 2014; Turban & Yan, 2016). While hedonic well-being is associated with happiness and pleasure, eudaimonic well-being is associated with facing challenges in the process of goal attainment, which can be perceived as a demanding process but also related to feelings of engagement, growth, inspiration, and interest (Straume & Vittersø, 2012). Although researchers have supported the happy-productive worker proposition, most work-setting studies utilize the hedonic explanation of well-being (Turban & Yan, 2016). As researchers have been calling for studies investigating the hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions of well-being (Straume & Vittersø, 2012), we aim to explore the relationship between CSR and both well-being dimensions. We focus on personal growth as the eudaimonic element and on life

satisfaction as the hedonic element. These concepts are considered core elements of the well-being construct and essential to the understanding of eudaimonia and hedonia (e.g., Ryff, 1989; Straume & Vittersø, 2015). Personal growth can be understood as the need for continuous personal development and realization of one's potential. Life satisfaction is related to the idea of a good life that is familiar and easily achieved (Straume & Vittersø, 2015).

Hospitality organizations should be particularly concerned with their employees' well-being, since customers' satisfaction—and organizational success—depends on the interactions between employees and customers (Dawson & Abbott, 2009; Serra-Cantalalops et al., 2018). The high level of customer interaction that many hospitality jobs require means employees consistently face high stress and emotional imbalance (Jung & Yoon, 2014) that impact their personal and work lives. This paper argues that organizations that allocate resources to discretionary CSR can positively influence employees' well-being for the following reasons. First, CSR highlights organizations' social concerns and relationships with stakeholders; thus, employees' well-being make a fundamental part of internal CSR (Dežmar-Krainz, 2015). Second, as an increasing number of employees care about the organization's role in ethical practices, CSR is likely to be recognized by employees as the organization attempting to do good and see themselves as part of that. Third, CSR is likely to create an atmosphere of community and a sense of engagement by altruistically initiating a relationship between the organization and society (Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2009), bringing about a positive emotional experience for employees. For instance, Kim et al. (2017) found that CSR positively influenced hotel employees' quality of work-life, affective commitment, and OCB, which then influenced their job performance. In a subsequent study, Kim et al. (2018) found that philanthropic and economic CSR had a positive effect on hotel employees' quality of work-life, which in turn had a spillover

effect on their overall quality of life. Thus, we predict that employees' CSR perceptions will positively influence both their hedonic and eudaimonic well-being.

H1a: Employees' CSR perceptions will positively influence their hedonic well-being (life satisfaction).

H1b: Employees' CSR perceptions will positively influence their eudaimonic well-being (personal growth).

Gratitude

Gratitude is "part of a wider life orientation towards noticing and appreciating the positive in the world" (Wood et al., 2010, p. 891). This study maintains that gratitude involves more than appreciation for other people's support but also involves appreciating the positive aspects of the world, such as work-life. For instance, employees' feelings of gratitude may arise when a coworker does a favor or when a supervisor promotes an environment that stimulates employees' well-being, such as carefully planning employees' schedules in a way that respects their personal lives. Employees might also feel grateful for the opportunity to promote social good while volunteering, for example.

A few studies have explored connections between CSR and customers' emotional experience of gratitude (e.g., Park et al., 2016). Park et al. (2016) found that corporate philanthropy positively influenced consumers' gratitude and that gratitude mediated the relationship between corporate philanthropy and consumers' trust and commitment. The main argument supporting these findings is that when organizations invest resources in corporate philanthropy, it strengthens consumers' perceptions that the organization is concerned with their welfare, leading to feelings of gratitude.

We are concerned specifically with gratitude as an affective trait (McCullough et al., 2002), which is expected to emerge in employees when they have a disposition to experience recurrent and episodic gratitude that will directly influence their well-being (Fehr et al., 2017). Interdependent work structures increase the likelihood for gratitude at the individual level to emerge, as employees rely on each other to achieve customer satisfaction. For instance, servers rely on chefs' expertise when asking for specific changes to a dish. Customers judge their work collectively, and the group outcome influences customers' satisfaction. By the same token, an employee might feel grateful to work in an organization that is involved in activities such as sending partially used amenities to local shelters and helping local communities during natural disasters. Employees tend to feel grateful for working in an organization with strong CSR engagement, because they appreciate the organization's moral engagement in the environment and society. Through the organization's CSR, employees generate a sense of purpose, which helps develop a healthy mental state (Abuse, 2014).

According to the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, experiencing positive emotions can broaden one's view by interpreting situations and actions in a manner that helps build social and personal capital (Conway et al., 2012; Fredrickson, 2001). This can further bring about long-lasting benefits by contributing to psychological resilience and psychological well-being, specifically hedonic well-being (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). In particular, positive emotions can trigger upward psychological states. Gratitude positively influences coping approaches via innovative thinking, reducing the likelihood of experiencing negative emotions resulting from unexpected or unusual situations (e.g., Wood et al., 2007; Fredrickson, et al., 2003). This, in turn, may help establish a positive self-image with a positive prospect for personal growth, the basis of eudaimonic well-being (Ryff & Singer, 2000). Therefore, gratitude,

as a discrete positive emotion, should bring about well-being traditionally called forth by positive emotions (Emmons & Shelton, 2002). Taken together, we predict that gratitude mediates the relationship between CSR and both hedonic and eudaimonic well-being.

H2a: Employees' gratitude at work will mediate the relationship between CSR perceptions and their hedonic well-being (life satisfaction).

H2b: Employees' gratitude at work will mediate the relationship between CSR perceptions and their eudaimonic well-being (personal growth).

Compassion at work

Compassion is an altruistically motivated and other-oriented moral emotion that is generated out of the concern for others' welfare (Valdesolo & DeSteno, 2011). Compassion describes a psychological link between one's self-interest and the reality of others' situations (Nussbaum, 2003). Compassion at work can be defined as employees' emotional response to organizational situations and events that require empathic coordination (Dutton et al., 2006). Literature on compassion calls for understanding how organizational factors influence individuals' experience of compassion (Atkins & Parker, 2012). According to the cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991), individuals are more likely to develop strong emotional responses when environmental stimuli are more relevant to self-interest or congruent with their own values and beliefs, referred to as goal relevance (Scherer, 2001). As an increasing number of employees feel responsible for responding to global challenges, a greater percentage of employees are likely to develop positive moral emotions in response to organizational CSR.

This study expects that to the extent an employee endorses the value of CSR, the organization's engagement in CSR will positively impact the employee's perception about

compassion, since the organization's practice aligns with the employee's prosocial goal. Organizations with strong CSR engagement are exemplified by a prosocial work climate in which the other-oriented moral emotions and behaviors are encouraged (Atkins & Parker, 2012). The prosocial work climate promotes positive perceptions about organizational compassion. Tangney et al., (2011) found prosocial values to be positively associated with empathic concern. Organizations with a strong commitment to CSR demonstrate their concern for the welfare of various stakeholders and not just the organizations' own self-interests. Knowing the organization is prioritizing the welfare of society may help employees better understand the organization's values, which in turn generates compassion within the organization.

Compassion is an other-oriented moral emotion. It brings about positive outcomes in the person who feels it. The core of compassion is a caring and altruistic relationship, which is linked to better physical health (e.g., lower blood pressure, lower mortality), increased organizational commitment, and a sense of value and dignity (Grant et al., 2008; Dutton et al., 2012). Showing compassion is a way to demonstrate responsibility, commitment, and respect toward others (Kanov et al., 2004). CSR can be viewed as a company's compassionate action. However, little is known about the link between CSR and compassion in hospitality settings. Moon et al., (2014) study highlights the importance of this relationship. They found that employees' CSR perceptions positively influenced perceptions of how compassionate the organizations were.

Additionally, in their meta-analysis, Zessin et al., (2015) found that self-compassion is critical for individuals' well-being. Self-compassion is directed toward one's own suffering, whereas organizational compassion is how the organization manifest compassionate acts towards different stakeholders. The triggered emotion (e.g., compassion) can result in positive general

life-related outcomes because of the spillover effect (Lambert, 1990; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, we predicted that employees' positive perceptions of CSR practices can increase perceptions of compassion at work, which will lead to higher levels of hedonic well-being (life satisfaction) and eudaimonic well-being (personal growth).

H3a: Compassion at work will mediate the relationship between employees' CSR perceptions and their hedonic well-being (life satisfaction).

H3b: Compassion at work will mediate the relationship between employees' CSR perceptions and their eudaimonic well-being (personal growth).

CSR and organizational citizenship behavior

OCB can be defined as a desired discretionary workplace behavior that assists organizational functioning, even though it is not critical for the job (Lee & Allen, 2002). Because of consumers' demands and anticipation of service quality, OCB is considered to be extremely beneficial to the effectiveness of hospitality organizations (Fu et al., 2014). Employees can positively perceive an organization's discretionary CSR activities, since such activities help both their communities and society. As a result, employees might reciprocate these activities in the form of organizational behaviors, as observed by SET (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

OCB is usually operationalized as distinct forms of behaviors (e.g., helping behavior, voice behavior, and organizational loyalty) (Podsakoff et al., 2011) or by focusing on whom the behavior is directed towards (Supanti & Butcher, 2019), such as coworkers and customers, or even the organization (Lee & Allen, 2002). Since OCB dimensions are often highly correlated when studied together, and results might bring more practical applications if the behavioral dimensions of OCB are evaluated separately (LePine et al., 2002), this study focuses specifically

on OCB directed at the organization (OCBO). OCBO is influenced by what employees think about their organization. For instance, if employees have positive emotions about their organization, they are more likely to defend the organization when other employees criticize it. Such behaviors can have a more direct effect on work, while behaviors directed toward individuals might have more indirect implications in “maintaining the balance in the organization-employee transaction” (Lee & Allen, 2002, p. 133).

Building on the literature on moral psychology and positive psychology, this study establishes a link between CSR, serving as the environmental moral stimuli, and prosocial moral behavior (in the form of OCBO), mediated by employees’ positive moral emotions (gratitude and compassion). While the positive relationship between CSR and OCB depends largely on how both have been operationalized, researchers have shown that it does not depend only on the dimensions explored for each construct, but also on mechanisms that can influence such relationships (Supanti & Butcher, 2019). For instance, Supanti and Butcher (2019) found that hotel employees’ CSR perceptions and participation influenced OCB through meaningful feelings about work. Although other feelings produced by social exchanges (e.g., CSR) should increase solidarity effects (e.g., collaboration among actors, exchange of benefits, acceptance of incomplete contracts) (Lawler 2001), this relationship needs further analysis. McCullough et al. (2002) indicated that gratitude is not only a moral barometer, but also a moral reinforcer, motivating people to conduct prosocial behaviors based on reciprocal altruism. Gratitude has been found to be positively associated with extra-role job behavior (Ford et al., 2018). Researchers have long argued that gratitude encourages prosocial behaviors (Fehr et al., 2017; McCullough et al., 2002), and that CSR has been connected to the feelings of gratitude and

compassion (Moon et al., 2014). We predict that gratitude and compassion work as mechanisms between CSR and OCBO.

H4: Employees' CSR perception will positively influence their OCBO.

H5a: Employees' gratitude at work will mediate the relationship between their CSR perceptions and OCBO.

H5b: Compassion at work will mediate the relationship between employees' CSR perceptions and their OCBO.

Overview of the current research

To explore the effects of CSR on gratitude, compassion, and employees' well-being in the hospitality setting, we conducted two studies. In Study 1, we measured CSR effects using a sample of students working in the hospitality and tourism industries. Considering the novel relationships proposed by this study, we designed Study 2 to replicate Study 1's hypotheses using a separate sample while including a work outcome variable, OCBO. Study 2 focused specifically on the restaurant industry, because restaurants are known to be particularly active in CSR (Kim & Ham, 2016). As restaurants depend largely on the discretionary actions employees take to enhance customers' experiences and organizational success (Kim et al., 2009), OCBO is an important variable to be analyzed. Thus, hypotheses 4, 5a, and 5b were explored only in Study 2.

-Figure 1 around here-

Study 1

Sample and procedures

To test the conceptual model, we conducted a survey of 201 students from an undergraduate hospitality program in the southern U.S. Respondents were enrolled in upper-level undergraduate courses and received extra credit for their participation. They needed to be at least 18 years old and working in the hospitality industry. To ensure response anonymity, participants received a random number at the end of the survey that they used to report completion. Students completed the survey online (outside classroom time). Study 1 focused on college students, because (a) the college setting provides a representation of different hospitality segments (e.g., food and beverage, lodging, events, travel and tourism), and (b) 33% of employees in the hospitality industry are 24 years of age or younger (U.S. Department of Labor Statistics, 2018). While this sample does not reflect the broader characteristics of the whole hospitality workforce, it is still an adequate representation of a salient segment of the workforce. One-third of hospitality employees in the U.S. are under 24 years old.

Respondents who completed the survey in less than two minutes and multivariate outliers were excluded from the sample. The final sample consisted of 199 participants. The average respondent's age was 23 years; 75.9% were females, 23.1% were males, and 1% preferred not to answer; 77.4% worked part-time, while 22.6% worked full-time; 51.3% worked in food and beverage, 24.1% in lodging, and 24.6% in events and tourism. Approximately 38% identified as Caucasian American, 30% as Asian American, 20% as Latino(a) American, 7% as African American, and 5% as other.

Measures

All items were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), unless otherwise indicated.

CSR perceptions were measured with 16 items from six dimensions: CSR toward local communities, nature, employees, suppliers, shareholders, and customers (El Akremi et al., 2015). This scale takes into consideration dimensions that are consistent with our conceptualization of CSR (taking into consideration multiple stakeholders). Although El Akremi et al.'s (2015) full CSR scale also included legal CSR aspects, it is the discretionary CSR measure that has been thoroughly adopted within contemporary CSR research (Rupp et al., 2018). Previous hospitality research has found that legal CSR did not have a significant effect, either on customers or on employees' attitudes and behaviors, as legal CSR is considered a basic requirement of all organizations (e.g., Kim et al., 2017; Kim, et al., 2018). Therefore, we carefully selected the items to match the CSR definition used for our study. Prior studies have also utilized this method while selecting items from a scale to match the CSR definition being used (e.g., Rupp et al., 2018). A sample item is "My company contributes toward saving resources and energy (e.g., recycling, waste management)." The alpha reliability was 0.91.

Gratitude at work was measured using three items from the Gratitude Adjective Checklist (GAC) developed by McCullough et al. (2002). Respondents had to answer how thankful, grateful, and appreciative they generally felt at work. Items were measured on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 (extremely). The alpha reliability was 0.94.

Organizational compassion was measured using three items from the organizational virtuousness scale from Cameron et al., (2004). A sample item is "Acts of compassion are common here." The alpha reliability was 0.83.

Hedonic well-being (life satisfaction) was measured using five items from Diener et al., (1985). A sample item is “I am satisfied with my life.” The alpha reliability was 0.86.

Eudaimonic well-being (personal growth) was measured using 12 items in four dimensions (curiosity, absorption, complexity, and competence) from Straume and Vittersø (2015), ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). A sample item is “I accept challenges.” The alpha reliability was 0.87.

Preliminary analysis

A series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using MPLUS7 were conducted to confirm the factor structure of variables being studied. Two items from personal growth were eliminated due to low factor loadings to achieve convergent validity. Such deletions were deemed not to make an impact on the original construct and could be justified considering the context of this research. A summary of fit indices for nested models and alternative models can be found in Table 1. The thirteen-factor model and the second-order model presented acceptable fit indices, and thus were further analyzed. The thirteen-factor model fit the data satisfactorily ($\chi^2/df= 1.48$, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94, SRMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.05). Factor loadings ranged from 0.63 to 0.97 ($p < .001$). The average variance extracted (AVE) from all but one variable was above the 0.50 threshold, confirming convergent validity (Hair et al., 2016). The lone exception was the absorption dimension of personal growth (0.47). As all items from absorption had acceptable factor loadings (from 0.65 to 0.72), and the composite reliability (CR) exceeded the threshold (0.85), convergent validity for this dimension was confirmed. The CR exceeded the recommended 0.70 threshold for all variables. The square root of AVE was found to be higher than the inter-correlations between two constructs of interest for all variables, confirming

discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) for all except CSR and personal growth dimensions. The discriminatory validity among the CSR factors and personal growth factors was deemed poor due to the expected high correlations among them, indicating that these six first-order CSR factors and four first-order personal growth factors are distinct, but not independent dimensions. Thus, a model using second-order constructs was evaluated.

-Table 1 around here-

According to Gustafsson and Balke (1993), second-order factor models provide a more parsimonious and interpretable model with fewer parameters. The second-order model of the current study (CSR and personal growth constructs as high-order factors) demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.62$, CFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.92, SRMR = 0.08, RMSEA = 0.06). Factor loadings from all variables ranged from 0.63 to 0.97 ($p < 0.001$). Significant and positive relationships between the six first-order CSR factors and the four first-order personal growth factors with their respective second-order factors (high-order CSR factor and high-order personal growth factor) existed ($p < 0.001$). This finding was supported by statistically significant factor loadings as follows: CSR dimensions—CSR to local communities (0.60), CSR to nature (0.50), CSR to employees (0.98), CSR to suppliers (0.89), CSR to customers (0.77), and CSR to shareholders (0.66); and personal growth composite—curiosity (0.57), absorption (0.57), complexity (0.85), and competence (0.99). As shown in Table 2, the AVE from all variables was above the 0.50 threshold, confirming convergent validity (Hair et al., 2016). The square root of AVE was found to be higher than the inter-correlations between two constructs of interest, confirming discriminant validity. The CR exceeded the recommended 0.70 threshold for all variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Although fit indices were better for the thirteen-factor structure, such result was expected as second-order models can never produce a better model fit (i.e., better fitting in terms of fit indices), than a model that have only first-order correlated factors (Koufteros et al., 2009; Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). As the second-order model rivals the performance of the thirteen-factor model, as the issue of discriminant validity was fixed in the second-order model, and as it makes theoretical sense to study the CSR construct and personal growth construct as higher-order factors, we retained that the second-order factor was the most appropriate model.

-Table 2 around here-

The concern of common method bias was mitigated by following Podsakoff et al., (2012) procedures, such as: respondents' confidentiality was ensured, the order of the items was counterbalanced, and different rating anchors were used. The second-order model conducted through CFA exhibited a better fit when compared to the four-, three-, two-, and single-factor models (e.g., second-order vs. single-factor model $\Delta \chi^2 = 2445.47$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, Harman's single-factor score was performed. The total variance explained by all variables was 29.44% (under the 50% threshold), providing support that common method bias is not a serious threat in this study.

Test of hypotheses

Structural equation modeling on MPLUS7 using a maximum likelihood estimation method and bootstrapping confidence intervals (95%, extracting 2,000 samples) was used to test the conceptual model. The overall structural model demonstrated having a satisfactory model fit ($\chi^2 = 1004.901$, $df = 610$, $\chi^2/df = 1.65$, $CFI = 0.92$, $TLI = .91$, $SRMR = .08$, $RMSEA = .06$).

After testing alternative models during the CFA phase, another competing model was tested during the SEM phase. A full-mediation model was tested (the direct paths from CSR to well-being were removed), as some authors have found that CSR perception was only significantly related to outcome variables through more complex relationships involving full mediation processes (Supanti & Butcher, 2019). The partial mediation hypothesized model provided a similar model fit while compared to the full-mediation model ($\chi^2 = 1018.436$, $df = 612$, $\chi^2/df = 1.66$, $\Delta \chi^2 = 13.535$, $p < 0.001$, $CFI = 0.92$, $TLI = 0.91$, $SRMR = 0.08$, $RMSEA = 0.06$). As the hypothesized model had a lower χ^2 , and as the path between CSR and eudaimonic well-being was significant (see Table 3), we claimed that the hypothesized model better explains the relationships of interest.

After testing this rival model, we tested our hypotheses. Table 3 shows the direct and indirect effects results.

-Table 3 around here-

Employees' CSR perceptions did not have a significant direct effect on hedonic well-being ($\beta = 0.01$, 95% CI [-0.33, 0.29]), but did have a direct effect on eudaimonic well-being ($\beta = 0.53$, 95% CI [0.17, 0.86]), supporting hypothesis 1b but not 1a. The indirect effect of CSR on hedonic well-being was fully mediated by compassion ($\beta = 0.25$, 95% CI [0.01, 0.53]) not by gratitude ($\beta = 0.14$, 95% CI [-0.01, 0.32]), supporting hypothesis 3a but not 2a. Neither gratitude ($\beta = -0.02$, 95% CI [-0.19, 0.15]) nor compassion ($\beta = -0.04$, 95% CI [-0.31, 0.17]) mediated the relationship between CSR and eudaimonic well-being, rejecting hypotheses 2b and 3b. The R^2 values indicate that 57% of the variance in compassion, 41% of the variance in gratitude, 23% of the variance in hedonic well-being, and 21% of the variance in eudaimonic well-being can be explained from the relationships with other constructs in the model.

Respondents' demographics (e.g., gender, age, work status, industry segment) were dummy-coded and regressed with all variables while analyzing the results. Results demonstrated that respondents' demographics did not affect this study's variables. Although gratitude did not mediate any relationship, we kept this variable in the model because of its significant and positive relationship with CSR ($\beta = 0.64$, 95% CI [0.48, 0.76]). Since gratitude was found to be related with well-being in previous studies (e.g., Kaplan et al., 2014; Layous, et al., 2017), we developed Study 2 to further test this relationship.

Study 2

Sample and procedures

We conducted a survey with 300 respondents recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). Mturk provides an appropriate platform for studying CSR, well-being and work behaviors. The anonymity and the remote nature of the survey makes it possible to capture a real perception from workers without the fear of having an impact on their jobs. Mturk data are considered as reliable as data gathered via traditional techniques, and Mturk participants are more demographically diverse than are usual internet samples (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Participants needed to be at least 18 years old, living in the United States, and employed in the food and beverage industry (restaurants). Respondents were asked to answer questions with their current employer in mind and were paid \$0.80 for their anonymous participation. To ensure data quality, a suspicion check was conducted (based on participants' open-ended responses) in addition to screening questions and duplicated IP address checks. Respondents who completed the survey in less than two minutes and extreme outliers were excluded. Participation was restricted to workers with a high rate of approval (90%). The final sample consisted of 278

participants. The average respondent's age was 31 years; 68.8% were males and 30.2% females; 14.7% worked part-time, 85.3% worked full-time; 58.6% worked for table-service restaurants, and 41.4% for limited-service restaurants. Approximately 57% identified as Caucasian American, 16% as African American, 9% as Latino(a) American, 9% as Asian American, and 9% as other.

Measures

OCBO was measured using eight items developed by Lee and Allen (2002). A sample item is "I defend the organization when other employees criticize it." Items were measured with a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The alpha reliability was 0.90.

All the other measures used in Study 1 were also employed for Study 2. The alpha reliability for the measures were: CSR (0.92), Gratitude at work (0.86), Organizational compassion (0.78), Hedonic well-being (0.91), and Eudaimonic well-being (0.90).

Preliminary analysis

As in Study 1, on Study 2 a series of CFAs were also conducted to further test the factor structure of this study variables. To replicate the model used for Study 1, certain items from the personal growth composite (complexity and competence dimensions) were not included in this study. Besides a few demographic variables that varied, such as type of restaurant, the only new construct included in this study was OCBO. Two items from OCBO were deleted due to low factor loadings. Two error terms from OCBO could be correlated, since the items presented similar theoretical justification and improved the model fit. A summary of fit indices for nested

and alternative models can be found on Table 4. As the fourteen-factor model and the second-order model presented acceptable fit indices, they were further analyzed. Although the fourteen-factor measurement model had an acceptable fit of data ($\chi^2/df= 1.75$, CFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.90, SRMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.05), high correlations between the latent factors were found (e.g., competence and complexity had a correlation of 0.99). Thus, the fourteen-factor model was rejected. The second-order construct was then examined.

-Table 4 around here-

The second-order measurement model demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2/df= 1.90$, $df = 834$, CFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.89, SRMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.06). Factor loadings ranged from 0.57 to 0.86 ($p < 0.001$). Significant and positive relationships between the six first-order CSR factors and the four first-order personal growth factors with their respective second-order factors existed ($p < 0.001$). This finding was supported by statistically significant and high standardized factor loadings as follows: CSR dimensions—CSR to local communities (0.80), CSR to nature (0.89), CSR to employees (0.93), CSR to suppliers (0.91), CSR to customers (0.76), and CSR to shareholders (0.82); and personal growth composite—curiosity (0.93), absorption (0.82), complexity (0.97), and competence (0.92). As shown in Table 5, the AVE from all variables was above 0.50, confirming convergent validity (Hair et al., 2016). The square root of AVE was found to be higher than the inter-correlations between two constructs of interest, confirming discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) for most variables. The AVE between CSR and compassion, OCBO and eudaimonic well-being, compassion, and CSR were slightly lower than the correlations between these constructs. Although the correlations between the latent factors did not exceed 0.8 in any case, further tests were conducted to verify discriminant validity. Each pair of the aforementioned constructs were combined as one latent

variable and the χ^2 of each new model was compared to the original second-order model, as suggested by Hair et al. (2016). As shown in Table 6, the χ^2 for the second-order model was significantly lower while compared to all new model variations. These results provide support to claim that the model is better represented by having these constructs separated. The CR exceeded the recommended 0.70 threshold for all variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

-Table 5 around here-

-Table 6 around here-

The concern of common method bias was mitigated by following the same procedures used in Study 1 recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2012). The six-factor model conducted through CFA exhibited a better fit when compared to the five-, four-, three-, two-, and single-factor models ($\chi^2/df = 3.81$, $\Delta \chi^2 = 1688.194$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.66, TLI = 0.64, SRMR = 0.08, RMSEA = 0.10). Moreover, Harman's single-factor score was performed. The total variance explained by all variables was 37.40% (under the 50% threshold), providing support that common method bias was not a threat in this study.

Test of hypotheses

SEM on MPLUS7 using a maximum likelihood estimation method and bootstrapping confidence intervals (95%, extracting 2,000 samples) was also used to test the conceptual model in Study 2. The overall structural model demonstrated having an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1590.854$, $df = 835$, $\chi^2/df = 1.91$, CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.89, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = 0.06). CFI and TLI were just below 0.90 (Bentler, 1990). The other fit indices are all indicating an adequate model fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). A rival full-mediation model was also tested in this study. Although both models have similar fit indices, the partial mediation hypothesized model

provided a better fit than did the full-mediation model ($\chi^2 = 1621.213$, $df = 838$, $\Delta \chi^2 = 30.359$, $p < 0.001$, $CFI = 0.89$, $TLI = 0.88$, $SRMR = 0.06$, $RMSEA = 0.06$), as it had a lower χ^2 , lower SRMR, and as CSR had a significant positive direct relationship with eudaimonic well-being. As suggested by many SEM researchers (e.g., Marsh et al., 2004; Lai & Green, 2016) models should not be disregarded based only on cut-off values. Based on theoretical foundations and the results of two studies (testing multiple nested and alternative models) we have demonstrated that our conceptual model is appropriate. Previous researchers have also used a similar approach to demonstrate the appropriateness of a model while having slightly lower than recommended fit indices (e.g., Pace et al., 2011).

-Table 7 around here-

Table 7 shows the hypotheses testing results. Replicating the pattern found in Study 1, employees' CSR perceptions did not have a significant direct effect on hedonic well-being ($\beta = -0.06$, 95% CI [-0.43, 0.33]), but it did have a significant direct effect on eudaimonic well-being ($\beta = 0.67$, 95% CI [0.24, 0.97]), supporting hypothesis 1b but not 1a. CSR perceptions also did not directly influence OCBO ($\beta = 0.37$, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.66]), leading hypothesis 4 to be rejected. In Study 2, the indirect effect of CSR on hedonic well-being was fully mediated by both gratitude ($\beta = 0.22$, 95% CI [0.08, 0.40]) and compassion ($\beta = 0.43$, 95% CI [0.13, 0.73]), supporting hypotheses 2a and 3a, respectively. The contrast between the two mediators was not significant ($b = -0.27$, 95% CI [-0.74, 0.173]), indicating no significant differences between the strengths of the two mediators.

Similar to the results of Study 1, neither gratitude ($\beta = -0.05$, 95% CI [-0.20, 0.07]) nor compassion ($\beta = 0.10$, 95% CI [-0.09, 0.48]) mediated the relationship between CSR and eudaimonic well-being, leading both hypotheses 2b and 3b to be rejected. Both gratitude ($\beta =$

0.17, 95% CI [0.03, 0.30]) and compassion ($\beta = 0.25$, 95% CI [0.04, 0.66]) fully mediated the relationship between employees' CSR perceptions and OCBO. The contrast between the two mediators was not significant ($b = -0.07$, 95% CI [-0.47, 0.15]), indicating no significant differences in strength between the two mediators. The R^2 values indicate that 63% of the variance in compassion, 52% of the variance in gratitude, 54% of the variance in hedonic well-being, 55% of the variance in eudaimonic well-being, and 72% of variance in OCBO can be explained from the relationships with other constructs in the model.

Additional exploratory analyses

Following the same procedure used for Study 1, respondents' demographics were dummy-coded and regressed in this study's variables while analyzing the results. Demographic variables were tested as previous research has found that woman and millennials were more reactive to CSR (Cone Communications, 2016; Greening & Turban, 2000). Although these variables were not found to be influenced by CSR, they had a significant influence on same variables in this study. Specifically, males were found to perceive their organizations as less compassionate than females were ($\beta = -0.14$, 95% CI [-0.25, -.02]), and table-service employees were found to perceive their organizations as more compassionate ($\beta = 0.12$, 95% CI [0.2, .23]) than limited-service employees were. Males were also found to have a higher hedonic well-being compared to females ($\beta = 0.14$, 95% CI [0.02, 0.24]). Millennials (respondents born between 1980 and 1999 [Seppanen & Gualtieri, 2012]) reported having lower eudaimonic well-being compared to other generations ($\beta = -0.12$, 95% CI [-0.23, -0.01]).

Employees working at table-service restaurants reported their organizations as more compassionate. Due to the fast-pace of service and high turnover encountered in limited-service

restaurants, this result was not a surprise. Gender affected how respondents evaluated their perceptions of organizational compassion and their hedonic well-being. Millennials reported lower eudaimonic well-being compared to other generations. At this point, as the sample for Study 2 was relatively young ($M = 31$ years) and was mostly male, a clear-cut interpretation of such findings is not viable. Some studies have shown that women, compared to men, are more emotionally responsive to positive and negative stimuli (Grossman & Wood, 1993), but studies focusing on compassion have found mixed results regarding gender differences (Dutton et al., 2014). In terms of well-being, previous research found that age had a small effect on eudaimonic well-being (e.g., Waterman et al., 2010), while life satisfaction (hedonic well-being) was found to be gender-independent (Fugl-Meyer et al., 2002). Considering these mixed findings results, more target research is needed to understand the role played by type of organization, gender, and age on compassion and well-being.

Conclusion

Our aim was to examine the relationships among employees' perceptions of CSR, gratitude, compassion, well-being, and OCBO by conducting two studies. The results obtained from these studies are similar, except for the inconsistent results of the relationship of CSR, gratitude, and hedonic well-being. First, employees' perceptions of CSR had a significant direct positive relationship with eudaimonic well-being but not with hedonic well-being, showing that employees who perceived a stronger CSR tend to perceive higher levels of personal growth but not life satisfaction directly. This finding indicates that a person's perception of CSR impacts the two dimensions of well-being differently. Second, gratitude served as the mediator in the relationship between perceived CSR and OCBO as well as hedonic well-being (significant only

in Study 2). Third, compassion was found to be a mediator linking employees' perceptions of CSR with hedonic well-being as well as OCBO (in Study 2).

Theoretical implications

Although the influence of CSR on employees is often grounded within the SET and social identity theory (Kim et al., 2017; Supanti & Butcher, 2019), this study went beyond previous studies by analyzing emotions connected to the social exchanges (ATSE). Specifically, this study argued that the effects of CSR on employees' well-being and OCBO might depend on employees' gratitude toward the organizations and their perceptions of how compassionate their organizations are. Additionally, this study is among the first to analyze CSR's influence on both employees' hedonic and eudaimonic well-being in hospitality work settings. Considering that employees are responsible for implementing CSR activities and the importance of employees' quality of life and well-being for hospitality organizations (Kim et al., 2018), knowing how emotions influence their distinct well-being dimensions and work behavior is crucial.

In both studies, respondents perceived their organizations were investing in CSR ($M_{\text{Study 1}} = 4.98$; $M_{\text{Study 2}} = 5.04$), which positively influenced their self-realization about growth. Employees might have seen CSR opportunities, which often involve learning new skills and competencies, to contribute to personal growth. This is a powerful finding, considering that when employees see a direct link between the organization and their personal growth, resilience is likely to occur (Fehr et al., 2017). Resilience is especially relevant in hospitality organizations, because employees constantly deal with emotional labor (Hall et al., 2018). However, other mechanisms besides gratitude and compassion are in place that further explain the relationship between CSR and eudaimonic well-being. For instance, previous research found that supervisor

support (Gordon et al., 2018) and quality of work-life and job satisfaction have an influence on employees well-being (Kim et al., 2018).

Conversely, employees' CSR perceptions did not directly influence their hedonic well-being. When employees reflected about how grateful they generally felt at work and how compassionate their organizations are, CSR had an indirect effect on their life satisfaction. One possible explanation for this finding is that CSR might be so embedded in employees' daily routines (e.g., recycling, reducing water usage) that they do not directly perceive or realize how CSR practices affect their satisfaction with life. A similar effect occurred regarding the relationship between CSR and OCBO. This study supports a recent study that argued about the complexity involved in the association of CSR to work behaviors (Supanti & Butcher, 2019). Including mechanisms such as employees' emotions was fundamental to understanding how CSR influences their well-being and work behaviors. This research expands the knowledge about CSR at the individual level by testing gratitude and compassion as mediators, which is aligned with the main argument proposed by the ATSE (Lawler, 2001).

In addition, the current study contributes to the literature on moral psychology, particularly moral emotions, an indispensable component of human morality. First, the core characteristic of moral emotions resides in the motivational force to enable prosocial action tendencies that benefit others or the society (Haidt, 2003; Armenta et al., 2017). The current findings confirmed this core characteristic by revealing positive impacts of moral emotions (altruistically motivated gratitude and compassion) on prosocial behaviors, reflected in the other-oriented moral behavior (OCBO). Second, moral emotions are generated following one's moral judgement of the emotion-eliciting events or situations. In particular, discrete moral emotions are tied to specific moral motifs (e.g., justice, need, care, reciprocity, hierarchy; Horberg et al.,

2011). For this reason, organizational CSR practice, as being both altruistic and caring, tallies with specific moral concerns of gratitude and compassion: 1) gratitude links with reciprocity and altruism; and 2) compassion connects to care in need (e.g., Goetz et al., 2010; Fehr et al., 2017). The current results revealed the positive influences of organizational CSR practice on employees' other-oriented moral emotions—compassion and gratitude. Just as organizational unethical practice (e.g., corruption) can trigger negative moral emotions (e.g., cynicism and pessimism) and immoral behaviors (Pelletier & Blich, 2008; Kaptein, 2011), organizational prosocial practice will serve as ethical stimuli to promote individuals' moral behaviors, as this study revealed, through the emotional experience of compassion and gratitude after moral appraisals.

For various reasons, organizational research has focused on employee cognition and neglected the unique and essential roles played by emotions (Troth et al., 2018). The appraisal theories posit that one's emotion is generated by environmental influence and one's interpretation of that influence (Scherer, 2000). How organizations can trigger different emotional experiences, which can further influence individuals' behaviors and psychological outcomes, remains to be discovered. Previous studies called for the understanding of antecedents and outcomes of compassion and gratitude in the workplace due to limited research being conducted (Dutton et al., 2014). The results support the social functional view that moral emotions will boost prosocial behaviors and restrain self-centeredness (Haidt, 2008). Through positive moral emotional experience triggered by organizational CSR; employees feel more responsible for supporting the organization through the OCBO. In the end, individuals may not be as self-centered as thought, and they are not only seeking their own interests, but are also driven by others' interest (Brown et al. 2011).

Practical implications

Organizations have evolved in the way they look at their performance from a sole focus on short-term monetary profits to a multi-angled, sustainable framework. Hospitality organizations should be engaged in CSR practices for at least two reasons. First, the mass consumption of various resources, such as water, energy, food, and materials, urges these organizations to adopt environmentally friendly practices. Second, the hospitality industry is service- and labor-intensive (Choi et al., 2000). These characteristics make it particularly meaningful for the hospitality industry to improve employee well-being. CSR offers the opportunity to go beyond meeting the interests of only shareholders to also meeting the interests of employees, communities, and the larger society.

This study provides empirical evidence of the benefits of hospitality organizations' engaging in CSR practices, and how employees' perceptions of CSR can influence their well-being and promote their OCB. First, engaging in CSR can improve employees' eudaimonic well-being. This is an important finding because CSR has long been linked with organizational and job-related outcomes rather than the individuals' non-work outcomes. Additionally, this study suggests that by engaging in CSR practices, hospitality organizations may benefit from employees' OCB. OCB is an especially important practice in the hospitality industry for at least two reasons. Service excellence is often achieved by employees' efforts to go beyond the requirements of their job description (Oliver 1980), resulting in higher levels of customer satisfaction (Bienstock et al., 2003). Also, the service-delivery process is often flexible, discretionary, and contingent on different customers' expectations and needs. Thus, it is quite likely for employees to perform tasks that fall outside their job descriptions. Therefore, employees' OCB becomes critical to the quality of service being delivered (Ma et al., 2013).

Notably, hospitality managers should realize the importance of making the organization's CSR practices known to employees so they form a positive perception of the organization (e.g., Park & Levy, 2014).

This study identified an organizational tool for promoting employee well-being: CSR. Organizations have adopted programs to promote employee well-being, such as yoga classes, fitness programs, and work-life balance programs (e.g., Grawitch et al., 2006; Kerr & Vos, 1993). The current study proposes that perceptions about CSR practices (internal and external) influence employees' gratitude and compassion, which in turn leads to higher levels of well-being. Employees can be inspired by organizational altruism while at the same time recognizing the potential personal gain from the organization's CSR. Employee well-being is critical, because the strong positive relationship between employees' well-being and job performance is robust. Happier employees tend to perform better and offer better customer experience (e.g., Serra-Cantallops et al., 2018; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

In the knowledge economy, employees are "... in fact the only remaining realistic challenge of competitive ability" (Dežmar-Krainz, 2015, p. 137). Therefore, caring for employees' well-being will result in enhancing organizations' competitiveness. Managers should spare no efforts in promoting employees' hedonic and eudaimonic well-being through CSR. Potential CSR activities include volunteer work in local communities, employee training related to topics such as recycling, ethics and diversity, environmental activities (e.g., planting trees, recycling, water and energy management, food waste, etc.), which can enhance eudaimonic well-being and work-life balance activities (e.g., day care programs, meditation/rest rooms, sabbaticals, conscious work schedule, fitness and health eating), which can enhance hedonic well-being. For example, Accor Hotels launched in the Benelux area the Be Balanced, Feel

Challenged program that focus on health, well-being and happiness (Accor, 2016). In an effort to address mental health issues, Starbucks started to offer therapy sessions and access to a mindfulness app to all U.S.-based employees and their eligible family members (Umoh, 2020). Such programs are some examples of hospitality organizations that are focusing on enhancing employees well-being.

Such CSR activities should emphasize the importance of well-being and gratitude for both work and life improvements. Being mindful that CSR originally incorporates the aspect of creating a healthy and happy work environment, can generate feelings of gratitude and that CSR can also create a perception about how compassionate the organization is, other employee outcomes, such as enhanced work performance and lower turnover, could emerge.

In addition, as the hospitality workforce is increasingly occupied by millennials, it is important for managers to engage in CSR. Most millennials consider organizations' environmental and social commitment as 1) important criteria when evaluating job offers and 2) contributing to psychological fulfillment in the workplace. If employees are neither happy nor willing to engage in moral behaviors in the organization, CSR practices should be considered a failure, no matter how well organizations roll out prosocial practice outside the company. CSR is a practice both inside and outside the organization and is assumed to start within the organization.

Limitations and future research

This research has implications for future studies because of its potential limitations. First, the mechanisms used in this research were found to be significant only for the relationships between CSR and hedonic well-being and OCBO, and not for the relationship between CSR and

eudaimonic well-being. Future studies might consider other mechanisms such as supervisor support, for instance, as previous research has found significant relationships between this construct and hotel employees' well-being (Gordon, et al., 2018). Second, as gratitude was found to be a mediator in the relationship between CSR and hedonic well-being only in the second study, further research should be conducted to confirm this connection. Third, as we acknowledge the importance of analyzing the whole construct of CSR, some researchers have found different results when comparing external and internal CSR activities (e.g., Farooq et al., 2017). Future studies could analyze whether internal and external CSR activities affect individuals' emotions and well-being differently, which could provide directions for better understanding which CSR activities are more relevant to enhancing employees' well-being. Fourth, as this study's hypothesized model was slightly better than the indirect competing model in both studies, as in Study 2 some high correlations between some latent variables were found and as some fit indices (Study 2) were slightly below the commonly used cut-off values, we recommend future studies to further test the direct and indirect relationships between CSR, well-being, and OCB.

This study used a cross-sectional design to recruit respondents, using a self-administered questionnaire for both studies. Although issues related to generalization of the results were mitigated by conducting two studies, this research cannot claim causal relationships. Gratitude and compassion interventions, such as those conducted by previous studies (e.g., Kaplan et al., 2014), could be considered in future hospitality studies that analyze CSR activities to explore longitudinal relationships. Lastly, we found interesting results while regressing respondents' demographic characteristics with this study's conceptual model. To precisely understand these

demographic differences in the links between CSR and well-being and work behaviors, more targeted research is needed, including multigroup analysis.

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Table 1. Nested and alternative measurement model structures Study 1

<i>Model</i>	<i>Description</i>	Fit Indices						
		χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>CFI</i>
One-factor	All indicators loading on a single factor (CSR)	3432.481	629	5.46	0.15	0.13	0.40	0.43
Two-factor	All indicators loading on two factors (CSR & compassion)	3208.463	632	5.08	0.14	0.16	0.45	0.47
Three-factor	All indicators loading on three factors (CSR, compassion, & personal growth)	2559.609	626	4.09	0.12	0.11	0.58	0.61
Four-factor	All indicators loading on four factors (CSR, compassion, personal growth, & life-satisfaction)	2194.85	623	3.52	0.11	0.10	0.66	0.68
Five-factor	All indicators loading on five factors (CSR, compassion, personal growth, life-satisfaction, & gratitude)	2035.495	619	3.29	0.11	0.09	0.69	0.71
Thirteen-factor	All indicators loading on 13 factors (all CSR & personal growth dimensions separated)	812.908	551	1.48	0.05	0.05	0.94	0.95
Second-order model	Five factors (CSR and personal growth as second-order constructs)	987.011	609	1.62	0.06	0.08	0.92	0.92

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and associated second-order model measurements Study 1

Constructs	# items	M (SD)	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
1. CSR	16	4.98 (0.99)	0.88	0.56	0.748				
2. GRT	3	3.70 (0.97)	0.94	0.84	0.611	0.915			
3. COM	3	4.79 (1.26)	0.82	0.61	0.734	0.656	0.781		
4. HED	5	4.50 (1.26)	0.87	0.57	0.379	0.421	0.467	0.757	
5. EUD	10	5.36 (0.84)	0.85	0.60	0.456	0.261	0.311	0.347	0.773

Note. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility, GRT = Gratitude, COM = Compassion, HED = Hedonic well-being, EUD = Eudaimonic well-being. Square root of AVE is along the diagonal in bold. All correlations ($p < 0.01$).

Table 3. Results of main and indirect effects Study 1

Hypotheses	Effects	SE	LLCI 95%	ULCI 95%
H1a: CSR → HED	0.01	0.16	-0.33	0.29
H1b: CSR → EUD	0.53	0.18	0.17	0.86
H2a: CSR → GRT → HED	0.14	0.08	-0.01	0.32
H2b: CSR → GRT → EUD	-0.02	0.08	-0.19	0.15
H3a: CSR → COM → HED	0.25	0.13	0.01	0.53
H3b: CSR → COM → EUD	-0.04	0.12	-0.31	0.17

Note. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility, GRT = Gratitude, COM = Compassion, HED = Hedonic well-being, EUD = Eudaimonic well-being.

Table 4. Nested and alternative measurement model structures Study 2

<i>Model</i>	<i>Description</i>	Fit Indices						
		χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>CFI</i>
One-factor	All indicators loading on a single factor (CSR)	3273.043	859	3.81	0.10	0.08	0.64	0.66
Two-factor	All indicators loading on two factors (CSR & compassion)	2924.193	858	3.41	0.09	0.08	0.69	0.71
Three-factor	All indicators loading on three factors (CSR, compassion, & personal growth)	2529.104	856	2.95	0.08	0.07	0.75	0.77
Four-factor	All indicators loading on four factors (CSR, compassion, personal growth, & life-satisfaction)	2186.625	853	2.56	0.07	0.06	0.80	0.81
Five-factor	All indicators loading on five factors (CSR, compassion, personal growth, life-satisfaction, gratitude, & compassion)	2003.036	849	2.36	0.07	0.06	0.83	0.84
Six-factor	All indicator loading on six factors (CSR, compassion, personal growth, life-satisfaction, gratitude, compassion, & OCBO)	1919.819	844	2.27	0.07	0.06	0.84	0.85
Fourteen-factor	All indicators loading on 14 factors (all CSR & personal growth dimensions separated)	1344.04	768	1.75	0.05	0.04	0.90	0.92
Second-order model	Six factors (CSR and personal growth as second-order constructs)	1584.859	834	1.90	0.06	0.05	0.89	0.90

Table 5. Descriptive statistics and associated second-order model measurements Study 2

Constructs	# items	M (SD)	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. CSR	16	5.04 (0.99)	0.94	0.73	0.85					
2. GRT	3	3.70 (0.89)	0.86	0.68	0.70	0.82				
3. COM	3	4.90 (1.22)	0.78	0.55	0.76	0.66	0.74			
4. HED	5	4.78 (1.36)	0.91	0.66	0.59	0.61	0.69	0.81		
5. EUD	10	5.17 (1.02)	0.95	0.83	0.72	0.48	0.62	0.58	0.91	
6. OCBO	6	4.99 (1.15)	0.88	0.55	0.79	0.70	0.77	0.67	0.79	0.74

Note. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility, GRT = Gratitude, COM = Compassion, HED = Hedonic well-being, EUD = Eudaimonic well-being, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior directed to the organization. Square root of AVE is along the diagonal on bold. All correlations ($p < 0.01$).

Table 6. Discriminant validity test Study 2

Model	Description	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	$\Delta \chi^2, df$
Second-order model	Six factors (CSR and personal growth as second-order constructs)	1584.859	834	1.90	
CSR & COM	CSR and COM as one latent variable	1622.540	838	1.94	37.681, 4
CSR & OCBO	CSR and OCBO as one latent variable	1654.785	838	1.97	69.926, 4
OCBO & EUD	OCBO and EUD as one latent variable	1665.496	838	1.99	80.637, 4
OCBO & COM	OCBO and COM as one latent variable	1669.509	839	1.99	84.65, 5

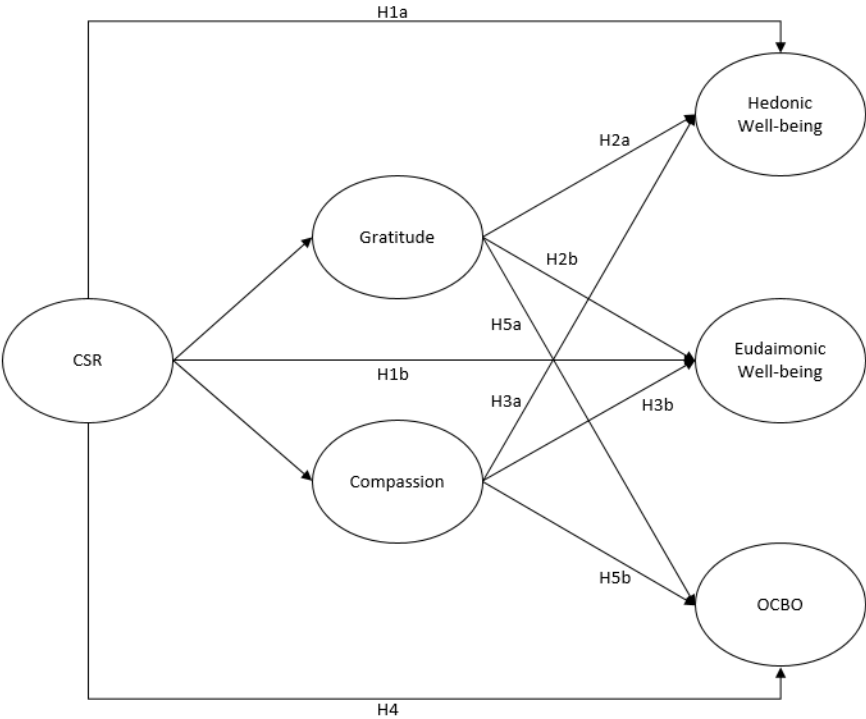
Note. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility, COM = Compassion, EUD = Eudaimonic well-being, OCBO= Organizational citizenship behavior directed to the organization.

Table 7. Results of main and indirect effects Study 2

Hypotheses	Effects	SE	LLCI 95%	ULCI 95%
H1a: CSR → HED	-0.06	0.19	-0.43	0.33
H1b: CSR → EUD	0.67	0.19	0.24	0.97
H2a: CSR → GRT → HED	0.22	0.08	0.08	0.40
H2b: CSR → GRT → EUD	-0.05	0.07	-0.20	0.07
H3a: CSR → COM → HED	0.43	0.15	0.13	0.73
H3b: CSR → COM → EUD	0.10	0.15	-0.09	0.48
H4: CSR → OCBO	0.37	0.20	-0.08	0.66
H5a: CSR → GRT → OCBO	0.17	0.07	0.03	0.30
H5b: CSR → COM → OCBO	0.25	0.17	0.04	0.66

Note. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility, GRT = Gratitude, COM = Compassion, HED = Hedonic well-being, EUD = Eudaimonic well-being, OCBO= Organizational citizenship behavior directed to the organization.

Figure 1. Conceptual model



Note. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility, OCBO= Organizational citizenship behavior directed to the organization.

RESPONSE LETTER

Comments to the Authors:

1. Regarding your procedures for assessing common method variance, would you please report the findings from either a common latent marker or common marker variable analysis, rather than Harmon's single-factor test?

RESPONSE: As to the marker variable analysis, as we did not collect a marker variable (that is theoretically unrelated to the variables in this study), we cannot perform the marker variable technique. We have explained in both studies the procedures adopted to avoid common method bias while designing the study (e.g., the order of the items was counterbalanced, and different rating anchors were used). We have also conducted Harman's single-factor test to verify the potential risk of common method bias, following Podsakoff et al. (2003). First, we have performed an exploratory factor analysis (unrotated factor solution) to verify if one general factor would account for the majority of variance among factors. After, we have conducted CFAs to compare model fit and to test the chi-square difference between the conceptualized model and alternative models (four-, three-, two-, and single-factor models) providing further evidence that common method bias is not a serious threat in both studies. In addition, correlations between constructs did not exceed 0.90, which indicates that common method variance is not a problem in this study (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991).

The other test that could have been performed is the common latent factor. However, this test has been criticized as it is likely to find common method variance even when it is not actually present (e.g., Conway & Lance, 2010; Meade et al., 2007; Richardson et al., 2009). In particular, we believe that this test is not applicable to our research mainly for two reasons: a) the latent method factor "may reflect not only different types of common method variance but also variance due to relationships between the constructs other than the one hypothesized." (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p.894); and b) if the number of indicators of the constructs is small relative to the number of constructs used, the addition of a method factor can cause identification problems (we have some dimensions on the second-order constructs that have two items; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012). In addition, applying a statistical correction "...does not necessarily produce more accurate estimations or relationships than doing nothing" (Richardson et al., 2009, p. 793). Therefore, the common latent factor analysis is not an appropriate approach in this particular study. We believe that the tests provided and the study design were sufficient measures to limit the occurrence of common method bias in this study.

Bagozzi, R. P., Yi, Y., & Phillips, L. W. (1991). Assessing construct validity in organizational research. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 421-458.

Conway, J. M., & Lance, C. E. (2010). What reviewers should expect from authors regarding common method bias in organizational research. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(3), 325-334.

Meade, A. W., Watson, A. M., & Kroustalis, C. M. (2007, April). Assessing common method bias in organizational research. 22nd Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New York, New York.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879.

Richardson, H. A., Simmering, M. J., & Sturman, M. C. (2009). A tale of three perspectives: Examining post hoc statistical techniques for detection and correction of common method variance. *Organizational Research Methods*, 12(4), 762-800.

2. Revise your description of the various factor structures you tested from plural to singular; for example, instead of "thirteen-factors model", use "thirteen-factor model".

RESPONSE: We apologize for that mistake. We made the corrections accordingly.

3. Please include the chi-square/degrees of freedom ratios in the respective tables.

RESPONSE: We have now included the chi-square/degrees of freedom ratios in the respective tables. Thank you very much for allowing us to revise our article.