The Psychological Micro-Foundations of Corporate Social Responsibility: A Person-Centric Systematic Review

Jean-Pascal Gond
Cass Business School
City University London
106 Bunhill Row
EC1Y 8TZ, London, UK
Tel.: +44 (0)20 7040 0980
Jean-Pascal.Gond.1@city.ac.uk

Assâad El Akremi
Université Toulouse – Capitole
2 rue du Doyen Gabriel Marty
31 042, Toulouse Cedex, France
Tel.: +33 (0)5 61 63 38 67
assaad.el-akremi@univ-tlse1.fr

Valérie Swaen
Université catholique de Louvain and IESEG School of Management
Louvain School of Management
1, Place des Doyens
1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium
Tel.: +32 (0)10 47 91 56
valerie.swaen@uclouvain.be

Nishat Babu
Aston Business School
Aston University
The Aston Triangle
B4 7ET, Birmingham, UK
Tel: +44 (0)121 204 3293
n.babu1@aston.ac.uk

Authors' Biography

Jean-Pascal Gond is Professor of Corporate Social Responsibility at Cass Business School, City University London (UK). His research mobilizes organization theory and economic sociology to investigate corporate social responsibility (CSR). His research in economic sociology is concerned with the influence of theory on managerial practice (performativity), the governance of self-regulation, and the interplay of society's commodification and markets' socialization. He has published in academic journals such as *Business and Society*, *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *Economy and Society*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Management Studies*, *Organization, Organization Science*, and *Organization Studies* and French journals such as *Finance Contrôle Stratégie*.

Assâad El Akremi is a full professor of management and organizational behavior at the University of Toulouse Capitole, where he also is a researcher at the Management Research Center (CRM – UMR 5303 CNRS). In addition to Corporate Social Responsibility, his current interests include social exchange, organizational justice, employees' health, and social identity. He published many articles in *Strategic Management Journal*, *Journal of Management*, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *Human Relations*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, and *Journal of Management Studies.*

Valérie Swaen is Professor of Marketing and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) at the Louvain School of Management (Université catholique de Louvain, Belgium) and at IESEG School of Management - LEM-CNRS (France). She studied corporate social responsibility from different fields of management (marketing, organizational behavior, strategy, leadership, and accounting), but her main research interest concerns stakeholders' reactions to CSR communication. She has published academic papers in international journals such as *Journal of Management Studies*, *Journal of Management*, *Marketing Letters*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, and *International Journal of Management Reviews*, among others.

Nishat Babu is a lecturer of organizational behavior at Aston Business School (UK). She has recently completed her PhD, which focused on the role of leadership and various other organisational factors in propagating micro-level CSR.

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Abstract

This article aims to consolidate the psychological microfoundations of corporate social responsibility (CSR) by taking stock and evaluating the recent surge of person-focused CSR research. With a systematic review, the authors identify, synthesize, and organize three streams of micro-CSR studies—focused on (a) individual drivers of CSR engagement, (b) individual processes of CSR evaluations, and (c) individual reactions to CSR initiatives—into a coherent behavioral framework. This review highlights significant gaps, methodological issues, and imbalances in the treatment of the three components in prior micro-CSR research. It uncovers the need to conceptualize how multiple drivers of CSR interact and how the plurality of mechanisms and boundary conditions that can explain individual reactions to CSR might be integrated theoretically. By organizing micro-CSR studies into a coherent framework, this review also reveals the lack of connections within and between substreams of micro-CSR research; to tackle them, this article proposes an agenda for further research, focused on six key challenges.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, Drivers, Evaluations, Reactions, Microfoundations

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a prominent academic concept, defined as "context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (Aguinis, 2011, p. 858). Although prior CSR studies focus on organizations rather than individuals (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), recent research has broadened this agenda by analyzing the psychological microfoundations of CSR (or micro-CSR)—that is, by studying how CSR affects individuals (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). In the past five years, we find rapid expansions of such studies in CSR, human resource management (HRM), and organizational behavior (OB) research domains (El Akremi, Gond, Swaen, Igalens, & De Roeck, 2015; Jones, 2010; Morgeson, Aguinis, Waldman, & Siegel, 2013; Rupp, 2011), including special issues devoted to CSR and related topics in prominent OB and HRM journals (e.g., *Group & Organization Management*, 2015; *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2013; *Personnel Psychology*, 2013).

Although stimulating, this vitality of micro-CSR research across multiple disciplines creates a risk of fragmentation and biased allocations of research efforts (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Glavas, 2016). To address these two concerns, the current review seeks to map, consolidate, and extend current knowledge about micro-CSR. We systematically review both conceptual and empirical micro-CSR studies, and we adopt a "person-centric" rather than "employee-centric" perspective, in which we consider persons other than employees, both within (e.g., executives, middle managers) and outside (e.g., job seekers, prospect employees) the organization. In this review, we identify three core components that provide foundations for prior studies of how CSR affects individuals: *drivers* (what drives CSR engagement?), *evaluations* (which cognitive and affective processes underlie people's evaluations of CSR initiatives?), and *reactions* (how, why, and when do individuals react to CSR initiatives?). We further unpack reactions to CSR by considering the mechanisms that underlie them (why), their boundary conditions (when), and their outcomes (how).

With this systematic review, not only do we extend prior micro-CSR research (Glavas, 2016; Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006; Rupp & Mallory, 2015), but we also derive an agenda for ongoing micro-CSR research, focused on six key challenges: (1) exploring interactions among the drivers of CSR, (2) pursuing construct clarification and valid measure development, (3) bridging the various mechanisms of reactions to CSR, (4) considering new and more relevant individual differences that operate as drivers of or boundary conditions on reactions to CSR, (5) expanding analyses of outcomes of reactions to CSR, and (6) incorporating individual-level dynamics and learning processes.

A Person-Centric View of Corporate Social Responsibility

Psychological Microfoundations of CSR

To move beyond a traditional focus on institutional or organizational levels of analysis (for detailed reviews, see Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Bansal & Song, 2017), micro-CSR scholars suggest integrating organizational psychology and OB with CSR insights (Jones & Rupp, 2014). Micro-CSR is "the study of the effects and experiences of CSR (however it is defined) on individuals (in any stakeholder group) as examined at the individual level of analysis" (Rupp & Mallory, 2015, p. 216). We position our review in this growing stream of research that acknowledges individuals' psychological experience of CSR initiatives undertaken by organizations (i.e., actions, programs, and policies) and supports consideration of different categories of individuals within and around organizations. Although Rupp and Mallory (2015) suggest extending the boundaries of micro-CSR to any individual member of stakeholder groups, within or outside the organization (e.g., consumers, investors, community members), we adopt a narrower "person-centric perspective" and focus on prospective and incumbent employees, including job seekers, managers, and executives.

Prior reviews mainly focus on the effect of CSR on employees, such that they address the set of processes that we refer to as *individual reactions to CSR*. They uncover both CSR-

related outcomes and individual-level psychological mechanisms (mediators) and boundary conditions (moderators) of those outcomes (Glavas, 2016; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). This focus has been insightful but also has led to the relative neglect of individual-level antecedents (predictors) of CSR engagement (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007; Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), or what we might call *individual drivers of CSR*. It ignores the interpretative processes by which people form and organize their perceptions of CSR initiatives (framing of CSR perceptions); reflect cognitively on, appraise the worth, and attribute CSR initiatives to some causes (CSR causal attribution); make sense of meaning (CSR sensemaking); and experience emotions in appraising CSR. When people assess CSR initiatives, they engage in a set of cognitive and affective processes that we refer to as *individual evaluations of CSR*.

The current focus of micro-CSR research on reactions to CSR, to the detriment of CSR drivers and CSR evaluations, may be problematic for three main reasons. First, neglecting CSR drivers can lead to confusion among the theoretical mechanisms that explain which forces trigger CSR engagement (e.g., search to satisfy psychological needs prior to engagement) and mechanisms that explain why people react to CSR (e.g., enhanced organizational identification after CSR engagement). Second, ignoring CSR evaluation processes might limit insights into how people experience CSR, cognitively and emotionally, yet these experiences can influence whether and how CSR initiatives produce effects. Third, the underlying instrumental rationality that is inherent to a focus on individual reactions to CSR could create a missed opportunity to deliver the needed "humanitarian approach" (Glavas, 2016). To address these imbalances, we address the few studies that focus on individual drivers and evaluations of CSR. Figure 1 provides an overview of our literature review, organized around three core components, which we define in the next section.

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Review Scope

Defining the scope of our person-centric review was a complex exercise, due to the cross-disciplinary nature of CSR (Bansal & Song, 2017). In line with Rupp and Mallory's (2015) suggestions, we broaden the scope from OB, CSR, or management journals to include HRM journals, which have published several relevant studies (e.g., *Human Resource Management*). We also include journals of other disciplines that have published micro-level analyses of CSR and consider micro-level works that have focused on CSR subdimensions (e.g., pro-environmental behaviors). Our systematic search returned a total of 268 articles at the micro-level of analysis that considered at least one type of individual.[1] We developed Figure 1 on the basis of a logical clustering of the articles according to three core components: drivers, evaluations, and reactions.

Individual Drivers of Corporate Social Responsibility

Since Aguinis and Glavas's (2012) review of individual predictors of CSR engagement, diverse new CSR drivers have been researched. By *drivers*, we refer to factors that operate as predictors of, motives for, or forces that trigger CSR engagement, either reactively (why people believe they must engage in CSR, often unwillingly) or proactively (why people choose to engage in CSR, mostly willingly) (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). The multiplicity of outcomes considered in the studies of individual-level CSR predictors lead us to define *CSR engagement* with a wide scope, as CSR-related attitudes (e.g., do people care about CSR?), decisions (e.g., do executives invest in CSR initiatives?), appraisals (e.g., do managers see CSR positively?), and behaviors (e.g., do employees adopt eco-friendly behaviors?).

Central to the analysis of CSR drivers is the notion that CSR can help satisfy a variety of organizational members' psychological or developmental needs (Glavas, 2016). A useful approach to organize CSR drivers is the multiple needs model of justice (Cropanzano, Byrne,

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[1] To identify these studies, we first replicated and then extended the procedure described by Aguinis and Glavas (2012). We thank Herman Aguinis and Ante Glavas for kindly providing us with the full list of papers included in their review. Online Appendix 1 provides more details about the procedure we used.

Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). According to this model, CSR engagement results from three generic categories of motives that reflect specific needs or concerns: *instrumental drivers* (e.g., need for control, self-serving concerns), *relational drivers* (e.g., need for belongingness, social and relationship-based concerns), and *moral drivers* (e.g., need for a meaningful existence, care-based concerns) (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007; Rupp, Williams, & Aguilera, 2011).

Although prior research has started to unpack these three drivers, many studies also investigate whether CSR engagement might be driven by other individual factors (e.g., personality traits, affects, sociodemographic characteristics) (e.g., Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Because these individual factors do not necessarily fit with the three aforementioned categories of drivers, we approach them as a separate category. Table 1 provides an overview of prior studies and distinguishes the groups of individuals—prospective employees (e.g., job seekers), employees (e.g., administrative staff), managers (e.g., middle managers), or executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs)—considered in each study. We review research related to each type of drivers, then discuss the gaps and imbalances within and across the drivers next.[2]

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Instrumental Drivers

Theory has long recognized that CSR engagement may reflect an individual self-concern or self-interest. That is, CSR engagement can be driven by the personal goals of employees (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007; Rupp *et al.*, 2006, 2011) or of managers or executives (Swanson, 1995). Studies focused on the upper echelons of organizations highlight *power* and *control* as key variables that can capture such instrumental drivers. For Swanson (1995), power-seeking motives account for executives' decisions to restrict the promotion of CSR initiatives within their organizations. Pearce and Manz (2011) suggest that executives' need for personalized

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[2] The detailed versions of our five tables, including all the papers in our literature review, are available in online Appendix 2.

and socialized forms of power relate to corporate engagement in socially irresponsible initiatives. Other studies use agency theory to explore the link between CEOs' power motives and their decisions to support CSR actions and policies (e.g., Fabrizi, Mallin, & Michelon, 2014). These works suggest that relatively less powerful CEOs may be more supportive of CSR, but they provide contradictory results regarding whether they maintain this support once their power is entrenched. Fabrizi *et al.* (2014) also note that power motives may combine with career concerns and monetary incentives to push CEOs' CSR engagement.

For managers, power motives seem to operate mostly positively and either proactively or reactively. Van Aaken, Splitter, and Seidl (2013) suggest that CSR can satisfy middle managers' search for power achievement. Thauer (2014) reveals that managers use CSR to prevent a loss of control. Studies of employees and job applicants also highlight the role of *economic incentives* (e.g., Graves, Sarkis, & Zhu, 2013) and *expected positive treatments* (e.g., Jones, Willness, & Madey, 2014) as instrumental drivers of their support for CSR.

Relational Drivers

Beyond insights from integrative frameworks (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007; Rupp *et al.*, 2006), surprisingly little research has investigated relational drivers of CSR engagement. We find only two main expressions of these drivers. The first reflects a *need for social networking*, as might be operationalized by CEOs' embeddedness in the local community (Galaskiewicz, 1997). The second is employees' *need for external recognition* that, according to Grant (2012), operates as a powerful driver of participation in volunteering and helps produce a new "volunteer" identity that can compensate for a job that offers poor social enrichment. People care about CSR because they are concerned about their social bonds with groups, group institutions, and group authorities. Glavas (2016) suggests that CSR engagement might be driven by other relational need facets (e.g., needs for positive self-regard and self-esteem).

Moral Drivers

Moral drivers reflect people's care-based concerns (Rupp & Mallory, 2015) and point to a search for a meaningful existence (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2001), a higher-order need that might be fulfilled by CSR (Glavas, 2016). In contrast with the instrumental and relational drivers, prior research has explored moral drivers far more extensively for different groups of persons, a status that likely reflects the normative nature of the CSR construct (Bansal & Song, 2017). *Generic moral motives* are important drivers of CSR for employees (Rupp *et al.*, 2011), managers (Hibbert & Cunliffe, 2015), and executives (Weaver, Treviño, & Cochran, 1999), suggesting that moral drivers may function across multiple levels of analysis (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007; Kim, Kim, Han, Jackson, & Ployhart, 2014). Early studies of generic moral motives emphasized commitment to ethics (Weaver *et al.*, 1999); more recent works stress the role of reflexivity in relation to the daily experience of morality, or moral reflectiveness (Reynolds, 2008), as a driver of CSR (Hibbert & Cunliffe, 2015; Kim *et al.*, 2014). In addition, researchers have analyzed multiple dimensions of CSR moral drivers, such as individual *concerns for the environment* (e.g., Graves *et al.*, 2013) or *concerns for society*, modeled as their willingness to contribute to society (e.g., Tongo, 2015) or attitudes toward charity (e.g., Wang, Gao, Hodgkinson, Rousseau & Flood, 2015).

Relatively vast research, extended by studies of responsible leadership (e.g., Stahl & Sully de Luque, 2014), also focuses on *personal values* as predictors of CSR engagement. Prior research has highlighted the crucial importance of CEOs' personal values (Swanson, 1995) and detailed the importance of fit between employees' or executives' values with organizational values (e.g., Davies & Crane, 2010). Other works focus on the role of specific social values, such as *idealism* (Humphreys & Brown, 2008), *posmaterialism*, or *hope* (Giacalone, Jurkiewicz, & Deckop, 2008). Despite the likely importance of values to middle managers, relatively few studies focus particularly on this group (Hemingway & Maclagan, 2014) or consider multiple groups (Groves & LaRocca, 2011). Instead, other moral drivers

that appear in studies focused on upper echelons include *religiosity* (Hemingway &
Maclagan, 2004), *moral reasoning capacities* (Crilly, Schneider, & Zollo, 2008), *integrity*
(Veríssimo & Lacerda, 2015), or *fair market ideology* (Hafenbrädl & Waeger, 2016).

Other Individual Drivers

The fourth category of drivers points to individual differences and characteristics that predict
CSR engagement but do not correspond to any of the three prior drivers. Studies suggest that
the *sociodemographic characteristics* of employees (Celma, Martínez-Garcia, & Coenders,
2014) and executives (Mazutis, 2013), such as their age, gender, or educational background,
predict CSR engagement. Hatch and Stephen (2015) find that women are more sensitive to
specific dimensions of CSR (e.g., societal aspects).

Although international experience and experience with a socialist system have been
identified as CSR drivers for employees (Stoian & Zaharia, 2012) and executives (Mazutis,
2013), *cultural characteristics* and *political orientations* scarcely have been researched.
Slawinski, Pinkse, Busch, and Banerjee (2015) argue that uncertainty avoidance may explain
individual inertia in relation to engagement in climate change initiatives but do not test this
effect empirically; Chin, Hambrick, and Trevino (2013) suggest that CEOs' orientation
toward liberalism or conservatism is reflected in the more or less contingent nature of the
CSR initiatives they undertake. No study has investigated these drivers as potential influences
on prospective employees', employees', or managers' CSR engagement.

Instead, a promising stream of studies has started to investigate how *personality traits*
operate as CSR drivers. Narcissism (Petrenko, Aime, Ridge, & Hill, 2016) and hubris (Tang,
Qian, Chen, & Shen, 2015) may drive executives' CSR engagement. Employee-focused
studies suggest that egocentrism may prevent CSR engagement (Garavan, Heraty, Rock, &
Dalton, 2010) and that Machiavellianism drives Friedmanian attitudes toward CSR (Mudrack,
2007). Sonenshein, Decelles, and Dutton's (2014) study of supporters of green issues shows

that self-evaluation (i.e., self-doubt, self-asset) affects people's capacity to sell sustainability issues. Of the Big Five personality traits, only conscientiousness (a tendency to be thorough, careful, or vigilant) influences voluntary workplace green behaviors indirectly, through its effect on moral conscientiousness, in a multilevel study by Kim *et al.* (2014).

Closely related to these studies, an emerging stream suggests that *emotions* (in particular, moral emotions, such as guilt and shame) or affective states can drive CSR engagement for managers (Crilly *et al.*, 2008) or executives (e.g., Stahl & Sully de Luque, 2014). Using a daily diary design, Bissing-Olson, Iyer, Fielding, and Zacher (2013) provide evidence of the role of positive affect in the adoption of daily, task-related, pro-environmental activities.

A final group of studies identifies other individual variables as predictors of CSR engagement, considering for example *managerial discretion* (e.g., Wood, 1991) or *knowledge or awareness of CSR* among employees (e.g., Garavan *et al.*, 2010) and among executives who receive training in CSR (Stevens, Steensma, Harrison, & Cochran, 2005) or attend CSR conferences (Weaver *et al.*, 1999).

Drivers: Critical Synthesis

This review uncovers key gaps and imbalances in the research treatment of drivers of CSR engagement. First, moral drivers have been studied in a more systematic and balanced manner than other instrumental or relational drivers. Relational drivers appear relatively overlooked, even though multiple facets of relational motives (e.g., belonging, social bonds, self-esteem) likely operate as drivers of CSR engagement in the workplace. Second, instrumental drivers and some facets of moral drivers have been studied in a rather imbalanced manner across the different groups of individuals (e.g., studies of power typically focus on upper echelons). More research is needed to explore how instrumental drivers affect different types of organizational members; for example, motives such as power and control might operate in distinct ways (reactive vs. proactive) when studied at different hierarchical levels. Third,

beyond a few consolidative theoretical models, little research has adopted multigroup or multilevel designs. As a result, we know little about whether similar drivers operate in the same manner for different categories of individuals at different hierarchical levels. Fourth, our analysis reveals some problematic ambiguities in the treatment of different categories of drivers. Although some drivers correspond to specific needs to be filled, and they are well covered by organizational justice frameworks, others reflect more generic "emotional needs" that are not well addressed by such frameworks. Still others point to general personality traits or sociodemographic characteristics that may operate as direct or indirect individual "controllers" of the expression of other needs and drivers (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Fifth, no research has explored the boundary conditions of CSR drivers, such as managerial discretion or stakeholders' deservingness of CSR initiatives. The development of further individual drivers of CSR therefore should explain how these drivers operate (reactively vs. proactively), explore their "cold" cognitive versus "hot" affective nature, or clarify the different role of proximal (direct drivers) and distal (determinants of drivers) predictors of CSR engagement.

Individual Evaluations of Corporate Social Responsibility

Relatively less scholarly attention has been devoted to individual evaluations of CSR, at least in relation to the number of studies dedicated to CSR drivers or reactions to CSR. By *evaluations*, we mean the cognitive and affective processes by which people gather and organize information related to organizations' CSR initiatives to form judgments about the initiatives, experience emotions about their perceptions, and also attribute reasons to their origin. These processes result in the framing of individual CSR perceptions; they also may inform subsequent CSR-related attitudes, decisions, or behaviors. The "subjective" evaluations of CSR initiatives likely matter more to individual reactions to CSR than do objective CSR ratings (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, & Skarlicki, 2013a). For example, employees'

exposure to CSR initiatives does not necessarily translate directly into favorable CSR attitudes (Glavas & Godwin, 2013).

We categorize studies focused on CSR evaluations by distinguishing *cognitive* from *affective* processes (see Table 2). Among the cognitive processes, we distinguish studies that reflect the framing of CSR perceptions (e.g., how are employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives organized?) from studies that focus on CSR causal attributions (e.g., to which reasons do employees attribute CSR initiatives?), as well as from research that considers broader processes of CSR sensemaking by which individuals interpret potential contradictions or paradoxes of CSR initiatives (e.g., how do managers make sense of CSR initiatives?).

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

Cognitive Processes of CSR Evaluations

Framing of CSR perceptions

As shown in Table 2, increasingly sophisticated research explores the framing of individual CSR perceptions, or the type of heuristics that people mobilize to categorize information related to CSR. Early studies of individual perceptions assumed an *issue-based view*, such that CSR perceptions would stem from appraisals of corporate involvement in different social, environmental, or ethical issues that appear relevant (e.g., Ford & McLaughlin, 1984). In general though, little theoretical justification exists for the choice of specific issues to consider in analyses of CSR perceptions (Gond & Crane, 2010). Since the late 1990s, scholars have built on Carroll's (1979, p. 500) early definition of CSR as "the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time" to capture how people frame their CSR perceptions. For example, with their *responsibility-based view*, Maignan and Ferrell (2000) propose that employees evaluate the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary dimensions of an organization's responsibility; they offer a corresponding "corporate citizenship" scale to evaluate employees' perceptions of Carroll's

categories. Although relatively recent studies still adopt this responsibility-based view of CSR (e.g., Peterson, 2004), criticisms have emerged too. According to Rupp *et al.* (2013a), only the "discretionary citizenship subscale aligns with contemporary definitions of CSR" (p. 906), and this framework cannot effectively differentiate external from internal forms of CSR (Glavas & Godwin, 2013).

To address these limitations, recent conceptual works propose a *justice-based view*, according to which CSR provides "employees with critical information to use in judging the fairness of the organization" (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007, p. 840). For example, Rupp (2011) views CSR as multistakeholder, *third-party justice* or a heuristic that employees use to evaluate their employer's overall fairness. Accordingly, employees form CSR judgments by distinguishing "the social concern embedded in their organization's actions (procedural CSR), the outcomes that result from such actions (distributive CSR), and how individuals both within and outside the organization are treated interpersonally as these actions are carried out (interactional CSR)" (Aguilera *et al*., 2007, p. 840). Inspired by this approach, Vlachos, Panagopoulos, and Rapp (2014) define CSR judgments as employees' perceptions of the firm's external CSR. Although this justice-based view offers a plausible structure for how employees frame their perceptions of the treatment of individuals or groups by corporations, and potentially provides a foundation for developing perceptional evaluation tools that can discriminate among internal (e.g., first-party justice) and external (e.g., third-party justice) forms of CSR, it cannot capture the distinctive nature of CSR perceptions compared with perceptions of organizational justice. It tends to roughly merge both constructs (Rupp, 2011).

A fourth approach takes a *stakeholder-based view* of CSR, such that people frame their perceptions of CSR on the basis of their evaluations of how their organization treats its stakeholders. Increasing numbers of studies have adopted this view in recent years (e.g., De Roeck & Delobbe, 2012). Turker's (2009) stakeholder-based scale of CSR perceptions

distinguishes CSR oriented toward non-social stakeholder groups (e.g., customers, governments) versus social stakeholder groups (e.g., future generations, nongovernmental organizations). Yet this tool cannot discriminate among perceptions of several categories, and El Akremi *et al.* (2015) propose a more comprehensive scale of corporate stakeholder responsibility (CStR) perceptions.

CSR causal attributions

The cognitive process of CSR evaluation also relates to individual attributions for CSR motives. Building on the fundamental insight that people care less about *what* others do than *why* (Gilbert & Malone, 1995), scholars highlight the role of causal attribution inferences in explaining how employees assess and then respond to CSR initiatives (Vlachos, Theotokis, & Panagopoulos, 2010). When people evaluate actions, they tend to judge not only the tangible facts but also the motives they assign to other parties (Godfrey, 2005), particularly in contexts marked by heightened cynicism (Fein, 1996). Substantial cynicism appears in individual inferences about the actual motives behind CSR actions and policies, because many companies claim that they care about the environment or society but simultaneously might engage in exploitation or greenwashing (Lange & Washburn, 2012). This situation creates confusion for people trying to identify responsible versus irresponsible firms (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp, 2013).

Attribution theory examines how individuals interpret such events and how these interpretations drive and alter subsequent outcomes (Martinko, 2006), as exemplified by four articles. Hillebrandt (2013) and Vlachos *et al*. (2013) focus on the distinction between internal and external attributions to explain employees' judgments of CSR. The conceptual framework by Lange and Washburn (2012) establishes the value of an attribution perspective for understanding how employees perceive and evaluate corporate social irresponsibility. Vlachos *et al*. (2010) suggest that employees identify four motives for CSR: egoistic-driven, value-

driven, stakeholder-driven, and strategic-driven. This typology reflects the tensions underlying individual perceptions of CSR. Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac (2015) show that positive effects of company-supported volunteering activities on employees may be undermined by employees' attributions of public relations motives to volunteering initiatives.

CSR sensemaking

Emerging research focused on managers rather than employees suggests broadening the conceptualization of CSR evaluations, beyond causal attributions, to include other cognitive processes by which people "make sense" of CSR (Athanasopoulou & Selsky, 2015; Basu & Palazzo, 2008). Hahn, Preuss, Pinkse, and Figge (2014) build on the notion of a paradox to describe how cognitive frames can help decision-makers deal with complex sustainability issues. Epstein, Buhovac, and Yuthas (2015) illustrate this approach empirically by demonstrating that managers' perceptions of tensions influence their engagement in corporate sustainability; Hockerts (2015) highlights the importance of a business case logic to make sense of these tensions. A qualitative analysis by Angus-Leppan, Benn, and Young (2010) also identifies some important differences in how middle-managers, executives, and other stakeholders make sense of sustainability tensions.

Affective Processes of CSR Evaluations

In contrast with analyses of CSR drivers that consider the role of affect and emotions as antecedents of CSR engagement or studies of ethical decision-making that stress the role of emotions in evaluations of ethical situations (Treviño, den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014), surprisingly little is known about how affective processes shape CSR evaluations. According to Robertson and Barling (2013), "harmonious environmental passion" mediates the adoption of environmental behaviors, suggesting a potential role of emotions in employees' evaluations of environmental norms in the workplace. In a qualitative study of

sustainability managers, Wright and Nyberg (2013) find that climate change issues are "emotionally loaded" and that affective processes influence managers' evaluations of CSR.

Evaluations: Critical Synthesis

Scholars have only started to unpack the processes of CSR evaluations by individuals. The progression of research on CSR perceptions over time provides bases and scales to measure CSR perceptions, as informed by conceptual frameworks, yet this stream of research remains overly focused on employees, providing relatively little information about prospective employees', managers', or executives' specific perceptions of CSR. In parallel, recent studies test the role of attributions in CSR evaluations and consider broader processes of sensemaking to comprehend how managers understand CSR issues, but more work needs to be done.

First, more tools are needed to evaluate and integrate competing conceptualizations of CSR perceptions, such as justice- and stakeholder-based views, in line with El Akremi *et al.*'s (2015) recent scale development. Second, linked to recent research that blends decision-making and CSR theory (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2015), the process of CSR evaluations should be tested empirically and as a whole, considering CSR perceptions, attributions, and sensemaking processes (Basu & Palazzo, 2008), to deepen knowledge of the cognitive processes by which employees form CSR judgments. Third, the affective processes underlying CSR evaluations deserve more scholarly attention. Further consideration of positive and negative affect in relation to the process of CSR evaluations is consistent with a "third-party justice" view of CSR (Rupp *et al.*, 2011). For example, current developments in justice literature emphasize the "hot" or affectively laden context in which justice perceptions form (e.g., Barsky, Kaplan, & Beal, 2011).

Individual Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility

Recent reviews of micro-CSR studies suggest that CSR triggers multiple attitudes among and behaviors by individuals (Glavas, 2016; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Our review extends and

consolidates this knowledge. We affirm that more individual-level outcomes of CSR reactions have been identified, but we also note some theoretical mismatches and weaknesses in current analyses of underlying mechanisms of individual-level reactions to CSR, as well as a lack of study of individual-level boundary conditions of reactions to CSR. We review these three components of individual reactions to CSR in turn.

Outcomes of Individual Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility

As Table 3 indicates, the outcomes studied in prior research are diverse. Some results also have been consolidated in subsequent studies that address attitudinal or behavioral outcomes.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Attitudinal outcomes

In terms of attitudinal outcomes, the dominant focus has been on positive workplace outcomes. Prior studies mainly focus on the effect of employees' CSR perceptions on affective organizational commitment (e.g., Erdogan, Bauer, & Taylor, 2015) rather than on organizational identification (De Roeck, El Akremi, & Swaen, 2016), or organizational attraction for prospective employees (Jones *et al.*, 2014; West, Hillenbrand, & Money, 2015). Several studies also highlight the positive influence of CSR on specific facets of organizational commitment, such as normative commitment (Shen & Zhu, 2011), employee attachment (Lee, Park, & Lee, 2013), or collective organizational commitment, suggesting that CSR may be an antecedent of commitment at a higher, collective level (Chun, Shin, Choi, & Kim, 2013). A growing number of studies also investigate how CSR may increase job satisfaction (Dhanesh, 2014), employee engagement (Glavas & Piderit, 2009), and job pursuit intentions (Behrend, Baker, & Thompson, 2009).

Finally, several studies exhibit greater diversity in the set of CSR outcomes being studied empirically. For example, CSR can enhance organizational pride (De Roeck *et al*., 2016), the perceived external prestige of the organization (Farooq, Rupp & Farooq, 2016), overall justice

(De Roeck, Marique, Stinglhamber, & Swaen, 2014), perceived organizational support (El Akremi *et al.*, 2015), perceived work–life quality (Singhapakdi, Lee, Sirgy, & Senasu, 2015), or organizational trust (Farooq, Payaud, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2014), as well as diminish turnover intentions (Shen, Dumont, & Deng, 2016). Work meaningfulness, an important aspect of individual thriving and well-being, and CSR might be linked (Glavas & Kelley, 2014). Employee-centered CSR might facilitate staff motivation (Kim & Scullion, 2013). In terms of addressing negative outcomes, recent studies suggest that employees' CSR awareness negatively relates to emotional exhaustion (Watkins, Ren, Umphress, Boswell, Triana, & Zardkoohi, 2015) and can prevent cynicism (Evans, Goodman, & Davis, 2011).

Behavioral outcomes

We identified 45 publications in the past five years that have investigated various behavioral outcomes. Extra-role and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have been a central focus (e.g., Farooq *et al.*, 2016). A few papers investigate the impact of CSR perceptions on in-role performance (e.g., Shen *et al.*, 2016). Glavas and Piderit (2009) and Spanjol, Tam, and Tam (2015) highlight a positive influence of CSR on employee creativity; Farooq *et al.* (2014) indicate benefits for knowledge sharing. Recent studies also suggest that CSR relates positively to employee retention (Carnahan, Kryscynski, & Olson, 2016), team performance, and team efficacy measured at the individual level (Lin, Baruch, & Shih, 2012). Insufficient research has determined whether and how CSR influences in-role performance though. We also observe that very few studies use objective measures of outcomes to evaluate the impact of CSR, such as objective performance indicators or actual turnover (e.g., Carnahan *et al.*, 2016). In addition, most research has focused on how CSR produces positive behavioral outcomes in the workplace, not the role of CSR in relation to negative behaviors, other than indicating a negative relationship between CSR and the adoption of deviant behaviors (Evans *et al.*, 2011).

Underlying Mechanisms of Individual Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility

Reflecting the early stage of development of the micro-CSR field, multiple underlying mechanisms have been advanced, though few of them offer robust explanations for why people react to CSR, whether from outside the organization (signaling mechanisms), through symbolic interactions (social identity and identification mechanisms), or through more continuous and concrete interactions (social exchange mechanisms). We review these three core mechanisms first, before discussing some other underlying mechanisms (see Table 4).

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

Social identity and organizational identification mechanisms

The most frequently used underlying mechanisms to explain individual reactions to CSR (33 studies) are social identity and organizational identification mechanisms. According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), people identify with an organization when they perceive that it is highly prestigious, with a positive and attractive image; this organizational identity then can enhance members' self-esteem. To develop and maintain a favorable sense of self-worth, people seek to join and remain with high-status organizations, because such group membership is rewarding and creates a sense of pride. Dutton and Dukerich (1991) note that image perceptions influence employees, because they use their organizational images to evaluate outsiders' perceptions of both the organization and themselves. Because it influences corporate image, CSR can contribute to individuals' sense of self-worth, meeting their need for self-enhancement and fostering their organizational pride and identification (Collier & Esteban, 2007).

Although the vast majority of micro-level CSR studies rely on social identity as an explanatory framework, only a small set of contributions actually tests whether identification is the underlying mechanism that links CSR to outcomes (e.g., De Roeck *et al*., 2016; Farooq *et al*., 2016). For example, Jones (2010) demonstrates that organizational identification has a

mediating effect in determining employees' responses (e.g., intention to stay) to volunteer programs run by their companies. Other studies find that the external image or prestige of corporations (e.g., Farooq *et al*., 2016) or trust in the company (De Roeck & Delobbe, 2012) can explain why CSR influences incumbent employees' identification with an organization.

Signaling mechanisms

Signaling theory emerges from our review as the second most popular theoretical explanation of CSR's influence on individuals (17 studies), yet its use is mainly linked to efforts to attract job seekers through external rather than internal CSR (Jones & Rupp, 2014). However, one recent study used this theory to show how green HRM communication and processes influences employees' commitment (Dögl & Holtbrügge, 2014). According to signaling theory (Rynes, 1991; Spence, 1974), market actors, such as job seekers, rely on indicators of potential outcomes to inform their understanding of what their job experience will be like (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). In this case, CSR acts as a relevant signal that allows prospective employees to infer their likely treatment, once they have joined the organization.

Studies cite the influence of CSR signals on prospective employees more often than they actually evaluate whether this underlying mechanism influences them. Only a few recent studies have started unpacking the mediation process by which signaling functions (Behrend *et al.*, 2009; Gully, Phillips, Castellano, Han, & Kim, 2013). Jones *et al.* (2014) offer a sophisticated theorization and test of how three signaling mechanisms affect actual job applicants' anticipation of pride and prestige, perception of value fit, and expected treatment.

Social exchange mechanisms

A third underlying mechanism used to explain individual reactions to CSR is the social exchange process. Fourteen articles in our sample build explicitly on social exchange theory, which predicts that employees' reactions are governed by reciprocity, broadly defined as mutually contingent exchanges of gratifications (Gouldner, 1960). Because CSR entails extra-role corporate behaviors that benefit various stakeholder groups, its evaluations by individuals

may alter the dynamics of social exchange within corporations (El Akremi *et al.*, 2015). Following this logic, CSR enhances norms of reciprocity between employees and employers and thereby increases employees' perceptions of trust and perceived organizational support. These studies converge in showing that individuals react positively to CSR because it influences social exchange dynamics, but they also adopt a relatively narrow view of social exchange mechanisms, focusing on employers and employees in a restricted exchange dyad that excludes other significant individual stakeholders affected by organizational-level CSR (Willer, Flynn, & Zak, 2012). In a conceptual paper, Mallory and Rupp (2014) predict a role of leader-driven perceptions of CSR by employees on the leader–member exchange.

Other underlying mechanisms

Three other frameworks—causal attribution, organizational justice, and psychological needs—can explain the underlying mechanisms of CSR reactions. However, in prior research, these three frameworks were used alternately to describe either the processes behind CSR drivers or CSR evaluations (e.g., Aguilera *et al.*, 2007) or the underlying mechanisms of CSR reactions (Mallory & Rupp, 2015). In particular, causal attribution theory holds that people care more about why an action has been undertaken than about its actual existence or ultimate impact (Kelley, 1973), so perceived motives for CSR engagement at the organizational level might explain why employees react at the individual level (Hillebrandt, 2013).

A second stream of research builds on the multiple needs model of organizational justice (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2001) and argues that employees' concerns for CSR reflect their more general justice perceptions (Rupp, 2011; Rupp *et al.*, 2006). This argument remains mainly conceptual and broad, but pursuing the idea that justice motivates individual reactions to CSR also requires disambiguating the relationships between CSR and organizational justice as constructs. According to Rupp, Skarlicki, and Shao (2013b, pp. 362-63), employees' individual experience with CSR is "ultimately about justice" and even "CSR *is* justice."

Closely related to these studies, a third stream of research theorizes about how CSR influences employees by satisfying their psychological needs (Rupp *et al.*, 2013b). Aguinis and Glavas (2013) elaborate on this theorization by specifying mechanisms through which CSR shapes the meaning of employees' work, and Jones and Rupp (2014) propose reclassifying the underlying mechanisms of CSR's influence by distinguishing care, self, and relationship's mechanisms to reflect the processes by which CSR addresses multiple individual needs. This classification seems relevant across multiple levels of analysis. According to Rupp and Mallory (2015), it could lay groundwork for a general theory of reactions to CSR. Our review suggests that psychological needs may operate either as drivers of CSR (people search to fulfill their needs through CSR engagement) or underlying mechanisms of reactions to CSR (the satisfaction of needs explains why CSR-related outcomes get produced). Although some studies rely on psychological need theory to build hypotheses, none of them tests these mechanisms with a longitudinal research design (Kim & Scullion, 2013).

INSERT TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE

Boundary Conditions of Individual Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility

Relatively less attention has been centered on analyses of the conditions surrounding CSR reactions. For instance, the relationship between CSR and organizational commitment is subject to significant gender variations, reflecting women's preferences for discretionary behaviors and fair working practices (Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007). As shown in Table 5, several other individual differences might moderate the effect of CSR on employees, such as an employee's personal beliefs about the importance of CSR (Peterson, 2004), moral identity (Mallory & Rupp, 2014; Rupp *et al.*, 2013a, 2013b), exchange ideology (Jones, 2010), ethical predispositions and Machiavellianism (Zhang & Gowan, 2012), other-regarding value orientation (Evans, Davis, & Frink, 2011), green values (Dumont, Shen, & Deng,

2016), preference for meaningfulness (Carnahan *et al.*, 2016), or desire to have a significant impact through work (Gully *et al.*, 2013). Farooq *et al.* (2016) find that cosmopolitan orientation, individualism, and collectivism moderate the relationship between internal and external CSR and outcomes such as organizational identification and interpersonal helping. Rupp *et al.* (2013a) show that among people with low moral identity and moral values are less important and less relevant for processing social information, so they care relatively less about CSR in their daily lives. In contrast, applicants and employees with a stronger moral identity, who perceive their organization as socially responsible, are more likely to respond to CSR with job pursuit intentions and OCB. Jones (2010) shows that the exchange ideology moderates the effects of volunteer program attitudes on three types of OCB but not on intentions to stay or in-role performance among employees who believe they benefit from volunteerism. In two experiments, Zhang and Gowan (2012) highlight that utilitarian people are more attracted to productive, profitable companies than are those with weak utilitarian values or formalists; strong formalists tend to be attracted to organizations that obey laws and ethical rules, more so than weak formalists; and Machiavellian employees simply are less attracted to companies exhibiting high legal and ethical performance. Finally, according to West *et al.* (2015), social cynicism has differential moderating effects: CSR has a positive effect on employees who exhibit low cynicism and reduced distrust.

Some authors consider CSR-induced attributions of motives as significant moderators of the link between perceptions of CSR and employees' reactions (e.g., De Roeck and Delobbe, 2012). Finally, some recent developments suggest that first-party justice perceptions (De Roeck *et al.*, 2016; Mallory & Rupp, 2014), perceived organizational support (Shen *et al.*, 2016), behavioral control, and subjective norms (Bingham, Mitchell, Bishop, & Allen, 2013) moderate the impact of CSR on employees. However, a breach in the psychological contact

that binds employees and employers may moderate this influence on affective commitment (Paillé & Mejía-Morelos, 2014).

Reactions: Critical Synthesis

Through our review, we have identified several limitations of current research on individual outcomes, underlying mechanisms, and boundary conditions of these reactions to CSR. First, scholars have focused on positive or attitudinal, rather than negative or behavioral, outcomes and thus failed to identify specifically CSR-related outcomes. They instead have prioritized well-established OB outcomes. Second, the study of the mechanisms that underlie reactions to CSR remains fragmented. The few dominant underlying mechanisms (identity, signal, exchange) have not been sufficiently integrated and tested as mediators of how CSR produces specific outcomes; other psychological mechanisms (attribution, justice, needs) might further explain drivers of CSR or their evaluations rather than the production of CSR outcomes, and their status as explanatory frameworks should be clarified in future research. Third, studies unpacking both CSR-related individual and situational moderators remain too scarce. In particular, surprisingly little research investigates the influence of team- or group-level characteristics on the mechanisms by which CSR influences individuals. Fourth, as evidenced by Table 3, 4 and 5, studies of reactions to CSR have mainly focused on employees, and relatively little is known as to whether managers and executives react distinctively to CSR.

Where Should We Go? Six Key Challenges and Research Directions

By organizing micro-level CSR literature along three categories—CSR drivers, CSR evaluations, and reactions to CSR (Figure 1)—in this systematic review, we have sought to provide a clear picture of the recent surge in micro-level CSR studies. In addition to the detailed critiques and omissions, several critical issues limit our current knowledge of micro-level CSR. In this section, we offer an analysis of these key issues, along with suggestions for research, organized as six key challenges to address to advance micro-level CSR research.

Challenge 1: Explore Interactions among CSR Drivers

Although prior reviews of the CSR field suggest that most studies focus on its organizational and institutional antecedents (e.g., Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), our analysis reveals greater attention paid to the predictors of CSR engagement at the individual level. Even with the diversity of drivers analyzed in prior research, investigations of how those drivers interact remain underdeveloped, as is a more general analysis of the connections among CSR drivers, CSR evaluations, and reactions to CSR.

These limitations suggest several perspectives for research. First, studies could focus on how multiple drivers of CSR engagement interact, across employees, managers, and executives, and thereby move beyond a dualistic tendency to attribute CSR to a single driver (e.g., instrumental vs. moral), as famously done by Friedman (1970). Employees, prospective employees, managers, or executives may have simultaneously instrumental, relational, and moral rationales for caring about, supporting, and engaging in CSR. Frameworks such as Aguilera *et al.*'s (2007) can test whether the effects of such drivers are additive or multiplicative; methods such as fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (Fiss, 2006) can support explorations of whether multiple CSR drivers operate as complements or substitutes (Crilly 2013). Cognitive mapping techniques also could be used to understand how individuals develop and make sense of the potentially varied drivers of their own CSR engagement and detect how they address potential contradictions, tensions, or paradoxes. Growing literature on paradoxes could advance this line of research (Smith & Lewis, 2011).

Second, research should detail the decision-making processes that drive CSR engagement in relation to CSR evaluations. Unpacking such processes involves several research questions: Do individual CSR drivers play out through cognitive and affective evaluation processes? How do various drivers result in specific framings of individual perceptions of CSR? Also, organizational behavior scholars might offer a distinctive perspective on the political CSR

agenda, which has been neglected at the individual level (Frynas & Stephens, 2015), by showing how multiple drivers—political and cultural (Rupp & Mallory, 2015) or religious—shape individual and collective decision-making processes related to CSR, such that they ultimately produce different CSR-related judgments, attributions, or emotions.

Third, studies should focus on the relationships between CSR drivers and CSR reactions. Leadership literature provides some interesting hints to bridge research streams and has started to analyze whether and how executives' and managers' engagement in responsible leadership shapes followers' perceptions of CSR, as well as their subsequent reactions, in a cascading manner (e.g., Mallory & Rupp, 2014). Bridges between studies of CSR drivers and reactions to CSR might help explain whether and how motive attributions confront actual actions, practices, and behaviors. In turn, this effort should lead to more refined, sophisticated models of how individuals within organizations process CSR over time.

Challenge 2: Pursue Construct Clarification and Measure Development

A major task to advance the micro-foundations of CSR is to address conceptual clarity and measurement in relation to CSR evaluations and their links to CSR reactions. Regarding how individuals' perceptions of CSR are framed, our review reveals few works that focus on developing robust psychometric measurement tools for CSR perceptions (cf. El Akremi *et al.*, 2015). Some interesting and promising frameworks of CSR evaluations (e.g., justice-based view) thus have not been operationalized yet.

As Mallory and Rupp (2014) indicate, the content and facets of CSR constructs vary greatly across studies, making any effort at consolidating knowledge about individual reactions to CSR very difficult (Jones & Rupp, 2014). Although an internal versus external CSR distinction is useful for understanding what is being measured (Rupp & Mallory, 2015), more research is needed. Taking stock of the various dimensions of the CSR concept already operationalized indicates that micro-level CSR studies need to go further and theorize, from

the bottom up, a unified concept that reflects what is *actually* being measured in CSR studies (Gond & Crane, 2010).

In addition, no study has empirically assessed the gap between subjective (individuals' perceptions) and objective (CSR evaluated by external agencies) measures of CSR, even though people may have some knowledge of the actual actions of their organization that shapes their reactions to its CSR (Glavas & Godwin, 2013). We also know very little about how individual evaluations of the gap between expected and perceived CSR (Rayton, Brammer, & Millington, 2015) affect reactions to CSR. To address these gaps, further studies should include both subjective and objective measures of CSR.

Challenge 3: Bridge the Underlying Mechanisms of CSR Reactions

Other than one recent paper (De Roeck & Maon, 2016), no integrative meta-framework exists for organizing and understanding how various underlying psychological mechanisms that mediate individual reactions to CSR might combine. The well-established social exchange, social identity, signaling, and psychological needs mechanisms have not been considered simultaneously in empirical studies; further theoretical work is needed to theorize how and when these mechanisms interact. Although Jones and Rupp's (2014) and Mallory and Rupp's (2014) suggestion to bridge care, self, and relationship concerns is a move in the appropriate direction, it represents a useful categorization of prior CSR drivers more than an integrative, comprehensive framework that can clarify or explain how and why specific mechanisms interact to produce CSR outcomes. Conceptual research therefore should theorize about such interactions and provide explanations and rationales for how and why the various key mechanisms we have reviewed interact, in an effort to consolidate current knowledge of CSR's effects on individuals. Such consolidation is not only necessary to clarify the mechanisms behind reactions to CSR but also required to achieve better theories about the drivers of CSR and the factors that may exert influences through CSR evaluations.

Challenge 4: Consider New and More Relevant Individual Differences

In line with Mallory and Rupp (2014), our systematic review confirms the need to pay more attention to the influence of individual differences, dispositions, and characteristics on the development of CSR attitudes and behaviors across CSR drivers, evaluations, and reactions. Beyond the need to clarify the influence of personality traits (e.g., Big Five traits are underused in CSR research) and individual states in situational contexts (e.g., moods, affectivity, and emotions have been neglected), it would be useful to connect research on CSR reactions with studies of CSR drivers, as a useful heuristic for identifying socially responsible individuals in different stakeholder groups. For example, the importance of social exchange dynamics as a mechanism for explaining CSR outcomes suggests paying attention to individual orientations toward social exchange (Flynn, 2005) as a possible antecedent of CSR behaviors. The importance of political ideologies in CEOs' engagement in CSR programs also requires more studies of how ideological or politico-cultural dimensions influence the formation of CSR perceptions and individual reactions to CSR. Further research also should investigate person–situation interactions to assess the dispositional and situational effects on CSR drivers, evaluations, and reactions. Interactive psychology research has the potential to conceptualize and test the relative roles of various individual dispositions in the context of CSR initiatives, depending on their situational strength (Mischel, 1977).

Challenge 5: Explore New Constructs Related to CSR

Greater clarity regarding the operationalizations of CSR should facilitate the development of a more comprehensive view of its relationship with new OB and psychological constructs, moving beyond the well-studied, "positive" OB construct toward more specific CSR-related constructs. Objective measures of CSR outcomes also would be helpful. Two common biases likely hinder the development of micro-level CSR across the three domains we reviewed. First, most constructs that have been investigated empirically are well-established OB

concepts (e.g., affective commitment, job satisfaction, organizational identification). Demonstrating the links between these outcomes and CSR is a crucial step to demonstrate the relevance of CSR to OB and organizational psychology scholars and to explain why CSR matters. Yet, the scope of CSR-relevant OB constructs is broader, so this strategy has led to the relative neglect of investigation of OB outcomes that relate specifically to CSR, such as well-being; life satisfaction; health; employees' support for and engagement with CSR; or the adoption of altruistic, pro-social, and green behaviors within and outside the workplace.

Second, as Figure 1 shows, current micro-level CSR research adopts a quasi-exclusive focus on the positive impacts of beneficial OB constructs, which may reflect an ideological pro-CSR bias in management research. This bias emerges from a prior meta-analysis of the CSR–financial performance relationship (Orlitzky, 2011). Such a focus ignores several counterintuitive potential antecedents and targets of CSR constructs. Yet, critical CSR studies suggest that "good" drivers (moral motives) can transform into "bad" CSR outcomes (Fleming & Jones, 2013) and "good" CSR outcomes can be explained by "bad" drivers (e.g., excessive need for control, Costas & Kärreman, 2013; criminal objectives, Gond, Palazzo, & Basu, 2009). As in the case of OCB, CSR behaviors even may constitute good acting or subtle forms of impression management (Bolino, 1999). Studies of Machiavellian personality traits might help disambiguate such hidden drivers of CSR.

Rather than considering only positive OB outcomes, further studies should expand to include negative and destructive outcomes too, such as violence, deviance, sabotage, revenge, or burnout. In so doing, these works could evaluate whether and how CSR not only supports positive outcomes but also potentially prevents the emergence of negative attitudes and behaviors. We encourage greater attention to the dark side of CSR, including theorizing and evaluating outcomes specifically driven by corporate social irresponsibility rather than CSR.

Are organizational forms of irresponsibility reciprocated by individuals' adoption of potentially destructive or irresponsible attitudes and behaviors in the workplace?

Challenge 6: Incorporate Individual-Level Dynamics and Learning Processes

Finally, the overall picture that emerges from our review (Figure 1) suggests the need to think more holistically and dynamically about micro-level CSR research. The first five challenges focused on connecting various streams of CSR studies; this sixth challenge points to the need to think dynamically over time about the overall relationship among CSR drivers, CSR evaluations, and reactions to CSR. How do individual reactions to CSR feed back into CSR evaluations and CSR drivers? How do individuals learn, or unlearn, both individually and collectively, how to become socially responsible or irresponsible?

Recent studies of the cascading effects of pro-environmental behaviors and emotional contagion (Robertson & Barling, 2013) and the normalization of corruption in organizations (Ashforth & Anand, 2003) have the potential to clarify the institutionalization and learning processes that guide CSR actions and behaviors over time and across levels. Early developments in social learning theory (Bandura, 1980) also might be revisited to address these broader questions if the field of micro-level CSR scholarship ever hopes to deliver on its promises to its main stakeholders and to society as a whole.

Conclusion

In the past five years, the individual level of analysis—traditionally neglected in early CSR research—has attracted increased theoretical and empirical attention, provoking the birth and fast-paced growth of micro-CSR research. Organizational psychologists, OB, and CSR scholars have taken an interest in the individual drivers of CSR engagement, the processes by which individuals evaluate CSR, and analyses of individual reactions to CSR. Our review confirms that CSR "matters" to individuals, but it also shows that current knowledge of micro-CSR is fragmented and incomplete. This growing body of knowledge focuses mainly

on individual reactions to CSR, thereby clarifying the relationships between CSR and a set of well-established, positive OB constructs but also neglecting many CSR-relevant outcomes. Furthermore, micro-CSR research has only started unpacking the multiple drivers of CSR and their interactions, as well as the cognitive and affective processes of CSR evaluations. To continue to advance micro-CSR studies, further research needs to provide integrative analyses of the drivers of CSR and the boundary conditions and mechanisms underlying individual reactions to CSR. It also should pursue conceptual clarification and measure development, explore the role of new OB constructs and individual differences in relation to CSR, and better theorize about and analyze dynamic connections among drivers of CSR, CSR evaluations, and reactions to CSR.

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FIGURE 1. PSYCHOLOGICAL MICROFOUNDATIONS OF CSR

DRIVERS OF CSR

INSTRUMENTAL DRIVERS (e.g., ego-based motives, self-serving concerns)

RELATIONAL DRIVERS (e.g., need for belongingness, relationship-based concerns)

MORAL DRIVERS (e.g., need for meaningfulness, care-based concerns)

OTHER INDIVIDUAL DRIVERS (e.g., socio-demographics, personality traits)

REACTIONS TO CSR

MECHANISMS OF REACTIONS TO CSR (*WHY?*)
- SOCIAL IDENTITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION MECHANISMS
- SIGNALING MECHANISMS
- SOCIAL EXCHANGE MECHANISMS
- OTHER UNDERLYING MECHANISMS

OUTCOMES OF REACTIONS TO CSR (*HOW?*)

ATTITUDINAL

BEHAVIORAL

Positive outcomes

- Organizational commitment
- Organizational identification
- Organizational attractiveness
- Job satisfaction and work engagement
- Job pursuit intentions and recommendations
- Organizational trust
- Organizational pride & prestige
- Perceived organizational support
- Other positive attitudinal outcomes (e.g., work meaningfulness; overall justice; customer orientation)

- Extra-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors
- In-role behaviors
- Other positive behavioral outcomes (e.g., creativity; employee retention; knowledge sharing; team performance and efficacy)

BOUNDARY CONDITIONS OF REACTIONS TO CSR (*WHEN?*)
- INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Negative outcomes

- Turnover intentions
- Other attitudinal negative outcomes (e.g., cynicism; job strain)

- Deviance
- Unethical behavior (e.g., moral licensing)
- Occupation change

EVALUATIONS OF CSR

COGNITIVE PROCESSES
- **FRAMING OF CSR PERCEPTIONS**
  - Issues-based
  - Responsibility-based
  - Justice-based
  - Stakeholder-based
  - Ad-hoc or mixed views
- **CSR CAUSAL ATTRIBUTIONS**
  - External vs. internal
  - Egoistic-, value-, stakeholder-, strategic-driven
  - Authenticity of CSR engagement
- **CSR SENSEMAKING**
  - Business case vs. sustainability frame
  - Sensemaking vs. sensegiving

AFFECTIVE PROCESSES
- Harmonious environmental passion
- Emotionology work

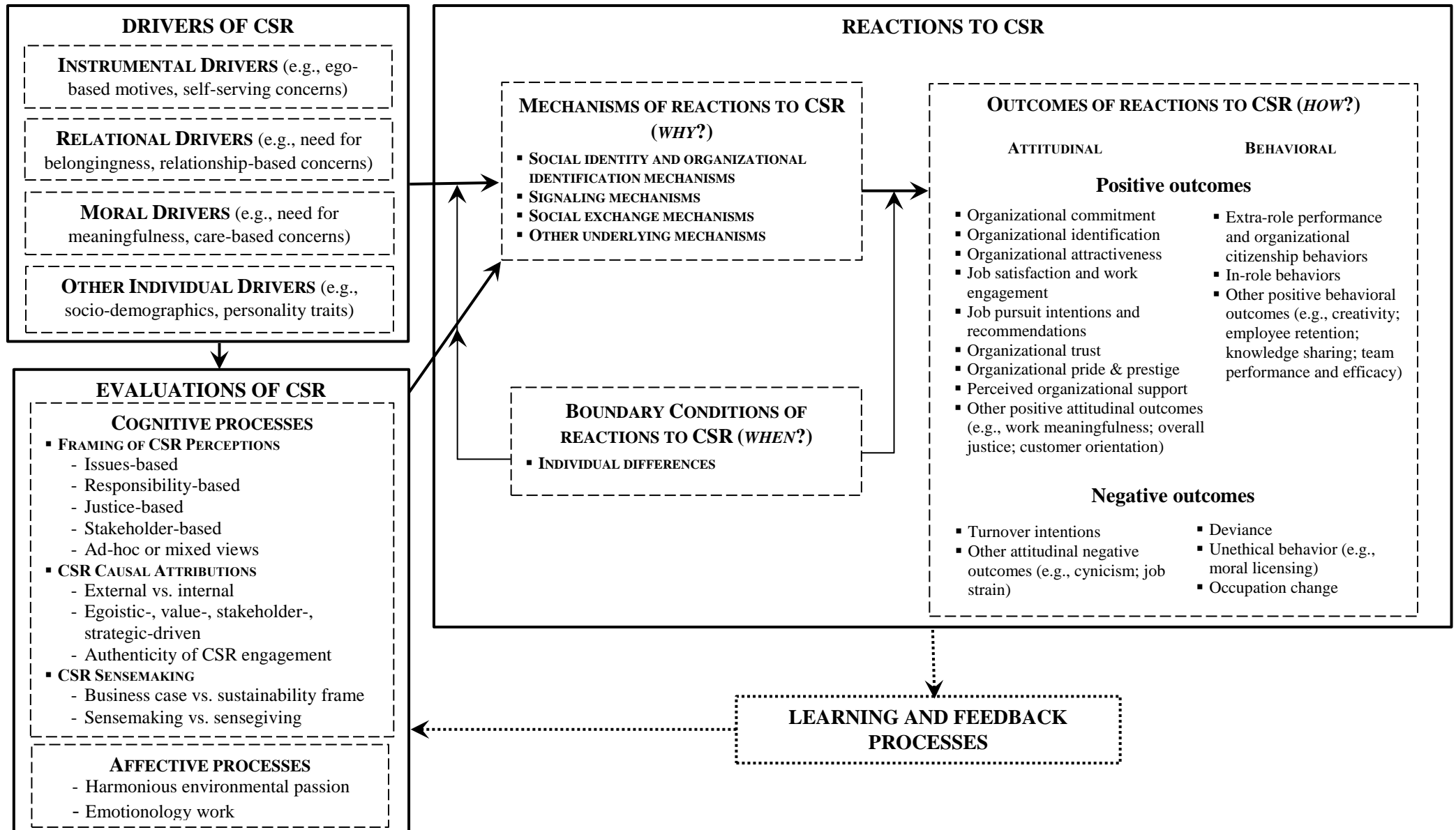**LEARNING AND FEEDBACK PROCESSES**

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Table 1. Overview of Studies of Individual Drivers of CSR*

Category of CSR Drivers	Conceptualization of the Driver	Prospective employees (e.g., job applicants)		Employees (e.g., administrative staff)		Managers (e.g., middle managers)		Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)		Multilevel / Different Groups of Individuals	
		C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E
Instrumental drivers (i.e., ego-based motives, need for control, self-serving concerns)	*Generic instrumental motive (N=5)*			3						2	1
	Power and control (N=8)					1	1	2	4		
	Economic incentives (N=5)				3				2		
	Expected positive treatment (N=3)		1		1			1			
Relational drivers (i.e., need for belongingness, social and relationship-based concerns)	*Generic relational motive (N=4)*			3						2	
	Social networking (N=2)								1	1	
	Need for recognition (N=1)			1							
	Prosocial motives (N=2)			1	1						
Moral drivers (i.e., need for a meaningful existence, care-based concerns)	*Generic moral motive (N=10)*	1		4		1	2		1	1	1
	Concern for the environment (N=7)				2		1		1		3
	Concern for society (N=3)			1	1				1		
	Achieving meaningfulness (N=1)			1							
	Individual moral values (N=17)		1	1	4	1	1	3	5		1
	Religiosity (N=2)					1			1		
	Moral development and reasoning (N=5)						2		3		
	Integrity (N=1)								1		
	Fair market ideology (N=1)								1		
Other individual factors that drive CSR	*Socio-demographics (N=7)*				3			1	3		
	Personality traits (N=9)			1	1		1	1	3		2
	Cultural characteristics (N=1)							1			
	Political orientation (N=1)								1		
	Emotions (N=4)				1		1	2			
	Managerial discretion (N=2)							1	1		
	Awareness or knowledge of CSR (N=8)			1	3	1	1		2		

* Note: C stands for conceptual papers; E stands for empirical papers. The values in each cell correspond to the number of papers in each category.

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Table 2. Overview of Studies of Individual CSR Evaluations

CSR Evaluations Dimension	Approaches to CSR Evaluations	Prospective employees (e.g., job applicants)		Employees (e.g., administrative staff)		Managers (e.g., middle managers)		Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)		Multilevel / Different Groups of Individuals	
		C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E
Cognitive processes (N=50)											
Framing of CSR perceptions *(N=33)*	Issue-based view (N=8)		3		2		2		3		
	Responsibility-based view (N=6)				2		2		2		
	Justice-based view (N=3)			1	1					1	
	Stakeholder-based view (N=7)		1		6				1		
	Ad-hoc or mixed views (N=9)		1		5		3		1		
CSR causal attributions *(N=9)*	External vs. internal attributions (N=4)			2						1	1
	Egoistic-, value-, stakeholder-, strategic-driven attributions (N=2)				2						
	Authenticity, sincerity, or credibility of CSR engagement (N=3)			1	2						
CSR sensemaking *(N=9)*	Business case vs. paradoxical frame (N=3)						2	1			
	CSR sensemaking or sensegiving (N=4)			1		1				1	1
	Inner knowledge creation (N=1)					1					
	Legitimacy judgments, rhetoric, and bounded rationality (N=1)								1		
Affective processes (N=2)											
	Harmonious environmental passion (N=1)										1
	Emotionology work (N=1)						1				

* Note: C stands for conceptual papers; E stands for empirical papers. The values in each cell correspond to the number of papers in each category.

Table 3. Overview of Attitudinal and Behavioral Outcomes of Individual Reactions to CSR

Outcomes of Individual Reactions to CSR	Prospective employees (e.g., job applicants)		Employees (e.g., administrative staff)		Managers (e.g., middle managers)		Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)		Multilevel / Different Groups of Individuals	
	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E
Attitudinal outcomes										
Positive attitudinal outcomes — Organizational commitment (N=43)			5	30		2		1	1	4
Organizational identification (N=27)		1	2	21						3
Organizational attractiveness (N=20)		16		1					2	1
Job satisfaction and work engagement (N=20)			1	16		1				2
Job pursuit intention and recommendation (N=13)		8		3					1	1
Organizational trust (N=11)		1		10						
Organizational pride and perceived organizational prestige (N=10)		3		7						
Perceived organizational support (N=7)				6						1
Other positive attitudinal outcomes (N=20)		3	1	13						3
Negative attitudinal outcomes — Turnover intention (N=8)				8						
Other negative attitudinal outcomes (N=5)				3						1
Behavioral outcomes										
Positive behavioral outcomes — Extra-role performance & organizational citizenship behaviors (N=39)		1	2	24					1	11
In-role performance (N=14)			1	6						7
Other behavioral outcomes (N=8)		1		7						
Negative behavioral outcomes — Deviance (N=2)		1		1						
Unethical behavior (moral licensing) (N=1)				1						
Occupation change (N=1)				1						

* Note: C stands for conceptual papers; E stands for empirical papers. The values in each cell correspond to the number of papers in each category.

Table 4. Overview of the Underlying Mechanisms of Individuals' Reactions to CSR

Main underlying mechanism explaining individuals' reactions to CSR	Prospective employees (e.g., job applicants)		Employees (e.g., administrative staff)		Managers (e.g., middle managers)		Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)		Multilevel / Different Groups of Individuals	
	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E
Social identity and organizational identification mechanism (N=33)		1	2	25		1				4
Signaling mechanism (N=17)		14				1				2
Social exchange mechanism (N=14)		1	1	12						
Attribution mechanism (N=7)				2					1	4
Organizational justice mechanism (N=7)		1	2	3						1
Psychological need mechanism (N=4)			2	1		1				
Other underlying mechanisms (with different theoretical frameworks) (N=42)		6	2	27		1			1	5

* Note: C stands for conceptual papers; E stands for empirical papers. The values in each cell correspond to the number of papers in each category.

Table 5. Overview of the Boundary Conditions of Individuals' Reactions to CSR

Main boundary conditions surrounding individuals' reactions to CSR		Prospective employees (e.g., job applicants)		Employees (e.g., administrative staff)		Managers (e.g., middle managers)		Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)		Multilevel / Different Groups of Individuals	
		C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C	E
Individual differences	Cultural values (N=6)		1	2	3						
	Individual moral values (N=4)		2		1						1
	Moral identity (N=4)		2	1	1						
	Behavioral control, subjective norms (N=1)			1							
	Desire to have a significant impact through work (N=1)		1								
	Exchange ideology (N=1)				1						
	Personality traits (N=1)		1								
	Preference for meaningfulness (N=1)				1						
	Social cynicism (N=1)				1						
Socio-demographics (N=4)			2		1					1	
Individual attitudes toward CSR	Personal beliefs about CSR importance (N=6)		4		2		1				
	CSR-induced attributions of motives (N=3)		1		2						
	Duration & context of employee participation in corporate social initiatives (N=2)			1	1						
	Congruence of values and CSR attributes (N=1)			1							
	CSR proximity (N=1)				1						
	CSR salience (N=1)			1							
	Employer reputation; amount of green information for the individual (N=1)		1								
	Personal relevance of corporate ability information (N=2)		1		1						
Perceptions about the organization	Perceived organizational support (N=3)				1						2
	Breach in the psychological contact (N=2)				2						
	First-party justice perceptions (N=2)			1	1						
	Perceived social responsibility climate (N=1)				1						

* Note: C stands for conceptual papers; E stands for empirical papers. The values in each cell correspond to the number of papers in each category.

Appendix 1 – Literature Search Procedures

Our method is inspired by the one adopted by Aguinis and Glavas (2012). More specifically we conducted a systematic literature search that involved 5 steps. At each step, we used the EBSCOhost, ProQuest, and PsycINFO databases to access our targeted journals and searched for relevant articles including phrases such as "corporate social responsibility", "corporate social performance", "corporate citizenship"; in titles, abstract, keywords, or subjects. We focused on articles and excluded book reviews, replies, and introductions to special issues. **Step 1.** We used the complete list of papers used by Aguinis and Glavas (2012) as a starting point. We thank these authors who provided us with their initial list of papers for their collegiality. **Step 2.** We then focused on the following 16 journals that have been considered by Aguinis and Glavas (2012) in the first step of their procedure to collect the papers that have been published since December 2011: *Academy of Management Journal; Academy of Management Review; Administrative Science Quarterly; Business & Society; Business Ethics Quarterly; Journal of Applied Psychology; Journal of Business Ethics; Journal of Management; Journal of Management Studies; Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology; Journal of Organizational Behavior; Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes; Organization Science; Organization Studies; Personnel Psychology; Strategic Management Journal*. **Step 3.** We then searched additional journals specifically dedicated to publishing research related to corporate social responsibility (e.g., *Journal of Corporate Citizenship; Business and Society Review; Business Ethics: A European Review*), and we also considered additional journals regarding our focus on the micro-perspective and employees' perceptions and reactions to CSR. At this second stage, we therefore included the following list of journals to complete our systematic search on CSR by considering more generalists journals as well as important journals from the neighbor fields of HR and Organization Theory: *Group and Organization Management; Human Relations;*

Human Resource Management; Human Resource Management Journal; Human Resource Management Review; International Journal of Human Resource Management; International Journal of Management Reviews; Journal of Business and Psychology; Journal of International Business Studies; Management Science; Organization; Research in Organizational Behavior. **Step 4.** We further perused additional journals given the multidisciplinary nature of CSR research, and considered marketing journals, as some early studies of CSR influence on employees have been published in marketing journals (e.g., works by Maignan): *California Management Review; Corporate Governance; Corporate Reputation Review; Harvard Business Review; International Journal of Research in Marketing; Journal of Consumer Research; Journal of Consumer Marketing; Journal of Consumer Psychology; Journal of Marketing; Journal of Marketing Research; Journal of Retailing; Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science; Marketing Science.* **Step 5.** We finally conducted a search including "corporate social responsibility", "corporate social performance", "corporate citizenship" using the Web of Science. **Step 6.** Based on this extant literature search review of the CSR literature we identified 2107 journal articles dedicated to CSR, we identified 268 papers adopting a micro-perspective. Table A11 and Table A12 present the main results of this search, as well Figure A11 for a visual representation, and over time, of the papers adopting a micro-level perspective on CSR.

Table A11. Summary of Literature Systematic Search Results

Domains	Journals		Number of papers on CSR identified	Number of papers at the individual level (% in this journal category / % in the total of papers at the individual level)
Journals included in the systematic search				
General Management	*Academy of Management Journal*		50	15
	Academy of Management Perspectives		29	8
	Academy of Management Review		57	7
	Administrative Science Quarterly		12	4
	California Management Review		23	1
	Harvard Business Review		39	3
	International Journal of Management Reviews		21	1
	Journal of International Business Studies		31	1
	Journal of Management		26	6
	Journal of Management Studies		39	5
	Management Science		6	0
	Strategic Management Journal		33	4
		Subtotal	**367**	**55 (15.0% / 20.5%)**
HRM	*Human Resource Management*		7	3
	Human Resource Management Journal		5	0
	Human Resource Management Review		8	2
	International Journal of Human Resource Management		30	13
		Subtotal	**50**	**18 (36% / 6.7%)**
OB/OT	*Group and Organization Management*		15	6
	Human relations		23	2
	Organization		15	1
	Organization Science		13	4
	Organization Studies		19	1
		Subtotal	**85**	**14 (16.5% / 5.2%)**
OB/Psycho	*Industrial and organizational psychology*		3	3
	Journal of Applied Psychology		7	3
	Journal of Applied Social Psychology		7	2
	Journal of Business and Psychology		13	3
	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology		5	2
	Journal of Organizational Behavior		9	5
	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes		8	1
	Personnel Psychology		11	5
	Research in Organizational Behavior		9	1
		Subtotal	**72**	**25 (34.7% / 9.3%)**
CSR	*Business Ethics: A European Review*		84	9
	Business Ethics Quarterly		44	1
	Business & Society		120	15
	Business & Society Review		58	5
	Corporate Governance		56	3
	Journal of Business Ethics		911	80
	Journal of Corporate Citizenship		35	4
		Subtotal	**1308**	**117 (8.9% / 43.7%)**

Table A11. Summary of Literature Systematic Search Results (continued)

| Domains	Journals	Number of papers on CSR identified	Number of papers at the individual level (%)
Marketing	*International Journal of Research in Marketing*	11	0
	Journal of Consumer Marketing	15	0
	Journal of Consumer Psychology	13	0
	Journal of Consumer Research	4	0
	Journal of Marketing	12	1
	Journal of Marketing Research	1	0
	Journal of Retailing	19	0
	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	37	4
	Marketing Science	3	0
	Subtotal	**115**	**5 (4.4% / 1.9%)**
Others papers included (e.g., quoted in other papers) but published in journals that were not included in the systematic search			
	Advances in developing human resources	1	1
	British Journal of Management	1	1
	Chapters in Managerial Ethics: Managing the Psychology of Morality.	1	1
	Corporate Reputation Review	33	1
	Corporate social responsibility and environmental management	5	5
	Economic letters	1	1
	European Management Review	2	2
	Human Resource Development International	1	1
	Industrial Marketing Management	26	1
	Journal of Business Research	22	4
	Journal of environmental psychology	3	3
	Organization and Management Review	1	1
	Organizational Psychology Review	2	1
	Others (e.g., Human performance, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Journal of Business Research, Organizational Psychology Review)	11	11
	Subtotal	**110**	**34 (--* / 12.7%)**
	General total	**2107**	**268 (12.7% / 100%)**

Note. * We did not compute the percentage on this category since we did not develop a systematic search on it.

Table A2. Number of papers published on Micro-Level CSR since 1991 per research domain

Research domain	1991-1995	1996-2000	2001-2005	2006-2010	2011-2016	N (%)
General Management	1	8	1	6	32	48 (22.0)
Marketing	1	1	0	1	1	4 (1.8)
HRM	0	0	0	1	16	17 (7.8)
OB/OT	0	1	1	0	10	12 (5.5)
OB/Psycho	0	1	1	2	18	22 (10.1)
CSR	0	6	5	21	83	115 (52.8)
Total (%)	2 (0.9)	17 (7.8)	8 (3.7)	31 (14.2)	160 (73.4)	218*

* 218 micro-level articles published on CSR <u>since 1991</u> and identified through the <u>systematic search</u> (excluding the 34 "other papers" published in journals that were not included in the systematic search).

Figure A11. Number of papers published on micro-level CSR since 1991
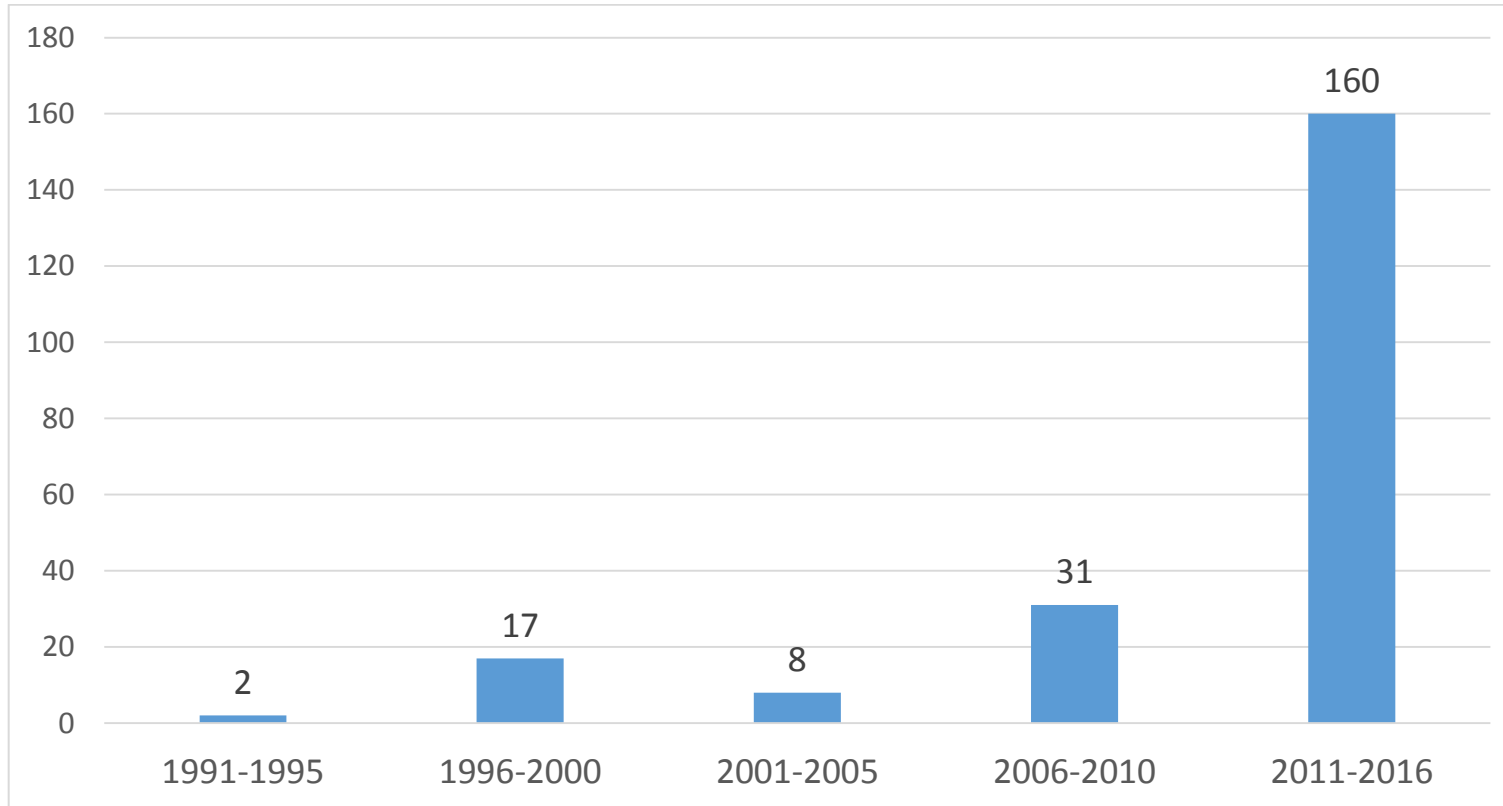
Appendix 2 – Detailed versions of our five Tables

Table 21. Detailed Version of Table 1. Overview of Studies of Individual Drivers of CSR

Category of CSR Drivers	Conceptualization of the Driver	Prospective employees	Employees (e.g., administrative staff)	Managers (e.g., middle managers)	Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)	Multilevel or Different Groups of Individuals
Instrumental drivers (i.e., ego-based motives, need for control, self-serving concerns)	Generic instrumental motive (N=4)		Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams (2006) Rupp, Williams & Aguilera (2011)			Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi (2007) Jones & Rupp (2014) Unsworth & McNeill (2016)
	Power and control (N=8)			Thauer (2014) [avoidance of loss of control] Van Aaken, Splitter, & Seidl (2013) [power achievement]	Agle, Mitchell, & Sonenfeld (1999) [perception of stakeholder power and salience] Fabrizi, Mallin, & Michelon (2014) [power and entrenchment] Jiraporn & Chintrakarn (2013) [power as the CEO pay slice] Kourula & Delalieux (2016) [management of waves of discontent, reinforcement of a hegemonic stance] Pearce & Manz (2011) [need for personalized and socialized power]	

					Swanson (1995) [power-seeking]	
	Economic incentives (N=5)		Giacalone, Jurkiewicz, & Deckop (2008) [materialism] Graves, Sarkis & Zhu (2013) [external motivation] Humphreys & Brown (2008) [economics and expedience narrative identity]		Bansal & Roth (2000) [economic opportunities] Fabrizi *et al.* (2014) [career concerns and annual bonuses]	
	Expected positive treatment (N=3)	Jones, Willness, & Madey (2014) [expectation of favorable treatment]	Ramus & Steger (2000) [supervisory support]		Shabana & Ravlin (2016)	
Relational drivers (i.e., need for belongingness, social and relationship-based concerns)	Generic relational motive (N=4)		Rupp *et al.* (2006) Rupp *et al.* (2011)			Aguilera *et al.* (2007) Jones & Rupp (2014)
	Social networking (N=2)				Galaskiewicz (1997) [CEOs' embeddedness in local community]	Jacobson, Hood, & Van Buren (2014) [social networking]
	Need for recognition (N=1)		Grant (2012) [recognition]			
	Prosocial motives (i.e., other-orientation, concern for others)		Bolino & Grant (2016)			
Moral drivers (i.e., need for a meaningful existence, care-based concerns)	Generic moral motive (N=10)		Jones & Rupp (2014) Maclagan (1999) Rupp *et al.* (2006) Rupp *et al.* (2011)	Buehler & Shetty (1976) [commitment to ethics] Hibbert & Cunliffe (2015) [moral reflexive practice]	Weaver, Treviño, & Cochran (1999) [commitment to ethics]	Aguilera *et al.* (2007) Jones & Rupp (2014) Kim, Kim, Han, Jackson, & Ployhart (2014)

			Muller & Kolk (2010) [commitment to ethics]		[moral reflectiveness]
Concern for the environment (N=7)		Bissing-Olson, Iyer, Fielding, & Zacher (2013) [pro-environmental attitudes] Graves *et al.* (2013) [autonomous motivation for environmental activities]	Hamann, Smith, Tashman, & Marshall (2015) [environmental responsibility]	Bansal & Roth (2000) [ecological responsibility]	Alt, Diez-de-Castro, & Llorens-Montes (2015) [shared vision of greening] Bansal (2003) [individual concerns about environmental issues] Robertson & Barling (2013) [environmental descriptive norms, pro-environmental passions]
Concern for society (N=3)		<u>Garavan, Heraty, Rock, & Dalton (2010)</u> Tongo (2015) [willingness to contribute to society]		Wang, Gao, Hodgkinson, Rousseau, & Flood (2015) [attitude toward charity]	
Achieving meaningfulness by social contributions		<u>Seivwright & Unsworth (2016)</u>			
Individual moral values (N=17)	Bridoux, Stofberg, & Den Hartog (2016) [self-transcendence vs self-enhancement]	Davies & Crane (2010) [fit with fair trade values] Giacalone *et al.* (2008) [postmaterialism and hope] Humphreys & Brown (2008) [idealism and altruism narratives]	<u>Godkin (2015)</u> [values] <u>Hemingway & Maclagan (2004)</u> [personal values]	Agle *et al.* (1999) [self-regarding vs. other-regarding] Mazutis (2013) [open executive orientation as spectrum of values] <u>Stahl & Sully de Luque (2014)</u>	Dumont, Shen, & Deng (2016) [individual green values] Groves & Laroca (2011) [fit between leaders' personal values

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	Maclagan (1999) [value fit]		[values/moral philosophies] Shabana & Ravlin (2016) [other-oriented values] Sully de Luque, Washburn, Waldman, & House (2008) [economic values] Swanson (1995, 1999, 2008) [personal values] Waldman, Sully de Luque, Washburn, & House (2006) [social responsibility values] Wang *et al.* (2015) [self-enhancement vs. self-transcendence]	and followers' values]
Religiosity (N=2)		Hemingway & Maclagan (2004) [religious values]	Mazereeuw-van der Duijn Schouten, Graafland, & Kaptein (2014) [religiosity]	
Cognitive moral development and moral reasoning (N=5)		Crilly, Schneider, & Zollo (2008) [moral reasoning] Godkin (2015) [moral imagination]	Eberhardt-Toth & Wasieleski (2013) [moral maturity] Ormiston & Wong (2013) [moral identity symbolization] Snell (2000) [leader moral development]	

	Integrity (N=1)			Verissimo & Lacerda (2015) [integrity]
	Fair market ideology (N=1)			Hafenbrädl & Waeger (2016)
Other individual factors that drive CSR	Socio-demographics (N=7)	Celma, Martínez-Garcia, & Coenders (2014) [age, level of education] Gellert & de Graaf (2012) [aging workforce] Stoian & Zaharia (2012) [education, experience of the socialist system, international experience]		Beard (2015) [CEOS with daughters] Hafenbrädl & Waeger (2016) [educational background] Mazutis (2013) [background, education, international experience] Stahl & Sully de Luque (2014) [gender, age, education level]
	Personality traits (N=9)	Garavan *et al.* (2010) [egocentrism] Mudrack (2007) [Machiavellianism; social traditionalism]	Crilly *et al.* (2008) [self-transcendence]	Grijalva & Harms (2014) [narcissism] Petrenko, Aime, Ridge, & Hill (2016) [narcissism] Slawinski, Pinkse, Busch, & Banerjee (2015) [short vs. long term perspective orientation] Tang, Qian, Chen, & Shen (2015) [hubris]	Kim *et al.* (2014) [conscientiousness] Sonenshein, Decelles, & Dutton (2014) [self-evaluation of self-asset and self-doubt]
	Cultural characteristics (N=1)			Slawinski *et al.* (2015) [uncertainty avoidance]
	Political orientation (N=1)			Chin, Hambrick, & Trevino (2013)

			[conservatism vs. liberalism]
Emotions (N=4)	Bissing-Olson *et al.* (2013) [daily affect]	Crilly *et al.* (2008) [positive affect, negative affect, guilt, shame]	Friedrich & Wüstenhagen (2015) [negative emotions] Stahl & Sully de Luque (2014) [affective states]
Managerial discretion (N=2)		Wood (1991) [managerial discretion]	Greening & Gray (1994) [managerial discretion]
Awareness or knowledge of CSR (N=8)	Garavan *et al.* (2010) [CSR knowledge awareness] Humphreys & Brown (2008) [ignorance] Stoian & Zaharia (2012) [CSR knowledge] Subramanian, Abdulrahman, Wu, & Nath (2016)	Hibbert & Cunliffe (2015) [knowledge of ethical practice] Osagie, Wesselink, Blok, Lans, & Mulder (2016)	Stevens, Steensma, Harrison, & Cochran (2005) [CSR training] Weaver *et al.* (1999) [attendance at CSR conference, management awareness of guidelines]

Note. Conceptual papers are underlined. We use brackets to identify the variables for all articles except conceptual integrative frameworks, which adopt generic descriptions of drivers (e.g., Aguilera *et al.*, 2007).

Table A22. Detailed Version of Table 2. Overview of Studies of Individual CSR Evaluations

		Prospective employees	Employees (e.g., administrative staff)	Managers (e.g., middle managers)	Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)	Multilevel or Different Groups of Individuals
Cognitive processes (N=50)						
Framing of CSR perceptions *(N=33)*	Issue-based view (N=8)	Jones *et al.* (2014) ; Sen, Bhattacharya, & Korschun (2006); Turban & Greening (1997)	Gavin & Maynard (1975); Hansen, Dunford, Boss, Boss, & Angermeier (2011)	Gavin & Maynard (1975); Ruf, Muralidhar, & Paul (1998)	Ford & McLaughlin (1984); Peterson & Jun (2009); Ruf *et al.* (1998)	
	Responsibility-based view (N=6)		Lin (2010); Lin, Lyau, Tsai, Chen, & Chiu (2010)	Peterson (2004); Sheth & Babiak (2010)	Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield (1985); Maignan & Ferrell (2000)	
	Justice-based view (N=3)		Brammer, Millington, & Rayton (2007); Rupp *et al.* (2006); Rupp, Skarlicki, & Shao (2013b)			
	Stakeholder-based view (N=7)	Rupp, Shao, Thornton, & Skarlicki (2013a)	De Roeck & Delobbe (2012); El Akremi *et al.* (2015; Farooq, Payaud, Merunka, & Valette-Florence (2014b); Rupp *et al.* (2013a); Stites & Michael (2011); Turker (2009b)		Agle *et al.* (1999)	
	Ad-hoc or mixed views (N=9)	Boal & Peery (1985)	Jones (2010); Kim, Lee, Lee, & Kim (2010); Ramus &	Pedersen (2011); Valentine & Fleishman (2008);		Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman (2007)

		Steger (2000); Rego, Leal, & Cunha (2011); Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp (2014)	Vlachos *et al.* (2014)		
CSR causal attributions *(N=9)*	External vs. internal attributions (N=4)	Hillebrandt (2013); Vlachos, Epitropaki, Panagopoulos, & Rapp (2013a);			Lange & Washburn (2012) [attribution of corporate social irresponsibility]; Vlachos, Panagopoulos, & Rapp (2013b)
	Egoistic-, value-, stakeholder-, strategic-driven attributions (N=2)	Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac (2015); Vlachos, Theotokis, & Panagopoulos (2010)			
	Authenticity, sincerity, or credibility of CSR engagement (N=3)	Humphreys & Brown (2008); Mazutis & Slawinski *et al.* (2015); McShane & Cunningham (2012)			
CSR sensemaking (N=9)	Business case vs. paradoxical frame (N=3)		Epstein, Buhovac & Yuthas (2015); Hockerts (2015)	Hahn, Preuss, Pinkse, & Figge (2014)	
	CSR sensemaking or sensegiving (N=4)	Seivwright & Unsworth (2016)		Basu & Palazzo (2008)	Angus-Leppan, Benn & Young (2010); Athanasopoulou & Selsky (2015);

Inner knowledge creation (N=1)	Corner & Pavlovich (2016)	
Legitimacy judgments, rhetoric, and bounded rationality (N=1)		Hoefer & Green (2016)

Affective processes (N=2)

Harmonious environmental passion (N=1)		Robertson & Barling (2013)
Emotionology work (N=1)	Nyberg & Wright (2013)	

Note. Conceptual papers are underlined.

Table A23. Detailed Version of Table 3. Overview of Attitudinal and Behavioral Outcomes of Individual Reactions to CSR

Outcomes		Prospective employees	Employees (e.g., administrative staff)	Managers (e.g., middle managers)	Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)	Multilevel/ Different Groups of Individuals
Attitudinal positive outcomes						
Organizational commitment (N=43)	Affective organizational commitment (N=41)		Bauman & Skitka (2012); Bingham, Mitchell, Bishop, & Allen (2013); Brammer *et al.* (2007); Brockner, Senior, & Welch (2014); Collier & Esteban (2007); Davies & Crane (2010); Dhanesh (2014); Ditlev-Simonsen (2015); Downey, van der Werff, Thomas, & Plaut (2015); El Akremi *et al.* (2015); Farooq *et al.* (2014b); Fu & Deshpande (2014); Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac (2015); Glavas (2016); Glavas & Kelley (2014); Hoeven & Verhoeven (2013); Hofman & Newman (2013); Johnson & Jackson (2009); Kim *et al.* (2010); Lamm, Tosti-Kharas, & Williams (2013); Lee, Kim, Lee, & Li (2012); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Mason & Simmons (2013); Mory, Wirtz, & Göttel (2016); Mueller, Hattrupp, Spiess, & Lin-Hi (2012); Paillé & Mejia-Morelos (2014);	Dögl & Holtbrügge (2014); Peterson (2004)	Maignan, Ferrell, & Hult (1999)	Erdogan, Bauer, & Taylor (2015); Haski-Leventhal, Roza, & Meijs (2015); Shen & Zhu (2011); Vlachos *et al.* (2014)

			Raub (2016) ; Rayton *et al.* (2015); Rego, Leal, Cunha, Faria, & Pinho (2010a); Slack, Corlett, & Morris (2015); Stites & Michael (2011); Turker (2009a); Zhang, Fan & Zhu (2014); Zhu, Hang, Liu, & Lai (2013)		
	Normative commitment (N=3)		Hofman & Newman (2013); Mory *et al.* (2016)		Shen & Zhu (2011)
	Employee attachment (N=(2)		Johnson & Jackson (2009); Lee, Park, & Lee (2013a)		
	Collective organizational commitment (N=1)				Chun, Shin, Choi, & Kim (2013)
Employees' identification (N=25)	Organizational identification (N=27)	Sen *et al.* (2006)	Brammer, He, & Mellahi (2014); Cha, Chang, & Kim (2014); Chong (2009); de Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk (2005); De Roeck & Delobbe (2012); De Roeck, El Akremi, & Swaen (2016); De Roeck, Marique, Stinglhamber, & Swaen (2014) ; Edwards (2016); Edwards & Edwards (2013); El Akremi *et al.* (2015); Evans, Davis, & Frink (2011a); Farooq, Rupp, & Farooq (2016); Farooq, Farooq, & Jasimuddin (2014a); Farooq *et al.* (2014b); Glavas & Godwin (2013); Hameed,		Carmeli *et al.* (2007); Newman, Miao, Hofman, & Zhu (2016); Shen & Benson (2016)

		Riaz, Arain & Farooq (2016); Jones (2010); Kim *et al.* (2010); Korschun, Bhattacharya, & Swain (2014); Lamm, Tosti-Kharas, & King (2015); Larson, Flaherty, Zablah, Brown, & Wiener (2008); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Shen, Dumont, & Deng (2016)		
	Employee-customer identification (N= 1)	Korschun *et al.* (2014)		
Organizational attractiveness (N=20)		Aiman-Smith *et al.* (2001); Albinger & Freeman (2000); Backhaus, Stone, & Heiner (2002); Bauer & Aiman-Smith (1996); Behrend, Baker, & Thompson (2009); Dawkins, Jamali, Karam, Lin, & Zhao (2016); Greening & Turban (2000); Guerci, Montanari, Scapolan, & Epifanio (2016); Gully, Phillips, Castellano, Han, & Kim (2013); Jones *et al.* (2014); Lin, Tsai, Joe & Chiu (2012b); Luce, Barber, *&* Hillman (2001); Pingle & Sharma (2013); Sorenson, Mattingly, & Lee (2010);	Rabl & Triana (2013)	Haski-Leventhal *et al.* (2015); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Tsai & Yang (2010)

		Turban & Greening (1997); Zhang & Gowan, (2012)		
Job satisfaction and work engagement (N=20)		Dhanesh (2014); De Roeck *et al*. (2014); Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen (2015); El Akremi *et al*. (2015); Fu & Deshpande (2014); Glavas & Kelley (2014); Glavas & Piderit (2009); Kundu & Gahlawat (2015); Lamm *et al*. (2015); Lee *et al*. (2012); Lee, Song, Lee, Lee, & Bernhard (2013b); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Paillé & Mejia-Morelos (2014); Raub & Blunshi (2014); Spanjol, Tam, & Tam (2015); Voegtlin (2011); Zhu *et al*. (2013)	Valentine & Fleischman (2008)	Caligiuri, Mencin, & Jiang (2013); Vlachos *et al*. (2013b)
Job pursuit intentions and recommendations (N=13)	Behrend *et al*. (2009); Berens, van Riel, & van Rekom (2007); Bridoux *et al*. (2016); Gully *et al*. (2013); Lin *et al*. (2012b); Sen *et al*. (2006); Tsai, Joe, Lin, & Wang (2014); Wang (2013)	Jones (2010); Vlachos *et al*. (2010); West, Hillenbrand, & Money (2015)		Haski-Leventhal *et al*. (2015); Rupp *et al*. (2013a)
Organizational trust (N=11)	Bridoux *et al.* (2016)	Dhanesh (2014); De Roeck & Delobbe (2012); Downey *et al*. (2015); Farooq *et al*. (2014b); Hanerdo. (2011); Hillenbrand, Money, & Ghobadian (2013); Lee *et al*. (2012); Lee *et al*. (2013b); Vlachos *et al*. (2010); West *et al*. (2015)		

Organizational pride and perceived organizational prestige (N=10)		Behrend *et al.* (2009); Jones *et al.* (2014); Jones, Willness & Heller (2016)	De Roeck & Delobbe, (2012); De Roeck *et al.* (2016); El Akremi *et al.* (2015); Farooq *et al.* (2016); Hameed *et al.* (2016); Jones, (2010); Kim *et al.* (2010)	
Perceived organizational support (N=7)			El Akremi *et al.* (2015); Glavas, (2016); Glavas & Kelley, (2014); Manika, Wells, Gregory-Smith, & Gentry (2013); Paillé & Raineri, (2015); Watkins, Ren, Umphress, Boswell, Triana, & Zardkoohi (2015)	Erdogan *et al.* (2015)
Work meaningfulness (N=3)			Glavas & Kelley (2014); Lavine (2012); Yim & Fock (2013)	
Overall justice (N=2)			De Roeck *at al.* (2014)	Erdogan *et al.* (2015)
Customer orientation (N=2)			Korschun *et al.* (2014); Lee *et al.* (2013b)	
Other attitudinal positive outcomes (N=14)	Affective well-being (N=1)		Rego, Ribeiro, & Cunha (2010b)	
	Attitude to work (N=1)		de Gilder *et al.* (2005)	
	General attitudes (N=1)		Block, Glavas, Mannor, & Erskin (2015)	
	Leadership Member Exchange (N=1)		Mallory & Rupp (2014)	

Perceptions of organizational climate (N=1)	Guerci, Radaelli, Siletti, Cirella, & Shani (2015)		Dumont *et al.* (2016)
P-O fit (N=2)	Gully *et al.* (2013); Jones *et al.* (2016)		
Quality of work-life (N=1)		Singhapakdi, Lee, Sirgy, & Senasu (2015)	
Team self-esteem (N=1)		Lin, Baruch, & Shih (2012a)	
Work motivation (N=1)			Kim & Scullion (2013)
Perceived internal respect (N=1)		Hameed *et al.* (2016)	
Expected treatment (N=1)	Jones *et al.* (2016)		
Inferences about the employers' positive work environment and financial standing, and the nature of its employees (N=1)	Jones *et al.* (2016)		
Authenticity (N=1)		Glavas (2016)	

Attitudinal negative outcomes

Turnover intentions (N=8)		de Gilder *et al.* (2005); Du *et al.* (2015); Edwards & Edwards, (2013); Hansen *et al.* (2011); Kundu &	

		Gahlawat (2015) ; Lamm *et al*. (2015); Lee *et al*. (2012); Shen *et al.* (2016)		
Job strain (emotional exhaustion and somatic complaints) (N=2)		Raub & Blunshi (2014); Watkins *et al*. (2015)		
Cynicism (N=2)		Evans, Goodman, & Davis (2011b)		Sheel & Vohra (2016)
Anger (N=1)				Voliotis, Vlachos, & Epitropaki (2016)

Behavioral positive outcomes

Extra-role performance and OCBs (N=38)	OCB (N=21)	Bauman & Skitka (2012); Cha *et al*. (2014); de Gilder et al. (2005); Evans *et al*. (2011a/b); Farooq *et al.* (2016) ; Hansen *et al*. (2011); Jones (2010); Lin *et al*. (2010); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Raub & Blunshi (2014); Rego *et al.* (2010); Shen *et al.* (2016); Zhang *et al*. (2014)		Erdogan *et al*. (2015); Newman, Nielsen, & Miao (2015); Newman *et al*. (2016); Rupp *et al.* (2013a); Shen & Benson (2016); Story & Neves (2015); Sully de Luque *et al*. (2008)
	Environmentally friendly behaviors (N=9)	Kim *et al*. (2014); Lamm *et al*. (2013; 2015); Manika *et al*. (2013); Norton, Zacher, & Ashkanasy (2014); Paillé & Mejia-Morelos (2014); Paillé & Raineri (2015); Ramus & Steger (2000)		Robertson & Barling (2013)
	Employee participation in CSR	Chong (2009)		Haski-Leventhal *et al*. (2015)

	programs (N=2)		
	Employee volunteering (N=2)	de Gilder *et al*. (2005)	Thornton & Rupp (2016)
	Discretionary efforts in the context of acquisition (N=2)	Edwards (2016); Edwards & Edwards (2013)	
	Employee environmental involvement (N=1)		Chen, Tang, Jin, Li, & Paille (2015)
	Workplace charitable giving (N=1)		Leslie *et al*. (2013)
	CSR specific performance (N=1)		Vlachos *et al*. (2014)
	Employee social responsibility (N=1)		Haski-Leventhal *et al*. (2015)
	Collective OCB (N=1)		Chun *et al*. (2013)
In-role behaviors (N=13)	In-role / job / task performance (N=13)	Evans *et al.* (2011a); Fu & Deshpande (2014); Jones (2010); Korschun *et al*. (2014); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Shen *et al.* (2016)	Carmeli *et al*. (2007); Newman *et al*. (2015; 2016); Shen & Benson (2016); Story & Neves (2015); Vlachos *et al*. (2014)

Other behavioral positive outcomes (N=7)	In-role green behaviors (N=1)			Dumont *et al.* (2016)
	Employee creativity / creative involvement (N=3)		Brammer *et al.* (2014); Glavas & Piderit (2009); Spanjol *et al.* (2015)	
	Employee retention (N=2)		Bode, Singh, & Rogan (2015); Carnahan, Kryscynski, & Olson (2016)	
	Knowledge sharing (N=1)		Farooq *et al.* (2014a)	
	Team performance and team efficacy (N=1)		Lin *et al.* (2012a)	
	Wage requirement (N=1)	Burbano (2016)		
Behavioral negative outcomes				
Deviance (N=2)			Evans *et al.* (2011b)	Thornton & Rupp (2016)
Unethical behavior (e.g., moral licensing) (N=1)			Voegtlin (2011)	
Occupation change (N=1)	Occupation change (i.e., founding a startup or leaving the firm for an established firm		Carnahan *et al.* (2016)	

Note. Conceptual contributions are underlined.

Table A24. Detailed Version of Table 4. Overview of the Underlying Mechanisms of Individual Reactions to CSR

Main underlying mechanism explaining individuals' reactions to CSR	Prospective employees	Employees (e.g., administrative staff)	Managers (e.g., middle managers)	Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)	Multilevel or Different Groups of Individuals
Social identity and organizational identification mechanism (N=33)	Berens *et al.* (2007)	Bode *et al.* (2015); Brammer *et al.* (2014); Brammer *et al.* (2007); Chong (2009); Collier & Esteban (2007); De Roeck & Delobbe (2012); De Roeck *et al.* (2014 ; 2016); Ditlev-Simonsen (2015); Edwards & Edwards (2013); El Akremi *et al.*, (2015); Evans *et al.* (2011a); Farooq *et al.* (2014 ; 2016); Glavas & Godwin (2013); Hofman & Newman (2013); Jones (2010); Kim *et al.*, (2010); Korschun *et al.* (2014); Lee *et al.* (2013a); Lin *et al.* (2010); Mueller *et al.* (2012); Singhapakdi *et al.* (2015); Shen *et al.* (2016); Stites & Michael (2011); Turker (2009a); Yim & Fock (2013)	Peterson (2004)		Carmeli *et al.* (2007); Newman *et al.* (2015; 2016); Shen & Benson (2016)

Signaling mechanism (N=17)	Aiman-Smith *et al.* (2001); Albinger & Freeman (2000); Alniacik, Alniacik, & Gene (2011); Backhaus *et al.* (2002); Bauer & Aiman-Smith (1996); Behrend *et al.* (2009); Greening & Turban (2000); Gully *et al.* (2013); Jones *et al.* (2014); Lin *et al.* (2012b); Luce *et al.* (2001); Tsai *et al.* (2014); Turban & Greening (1997); Wang (2013)	Dögl & Holtbrügge (2014)	Sheel & Vohra (2016); Tsai & Yang (2010)
Social exchange mechanism (N=14)	Thornton & Rupp (2016)	Downey *et al.* (2015); Farooq *et al.* (2014b); Hoeven, Ter & Verhoeven (2013); Kundu & Gahlawat (2015); Lamm *et al.* (2013); Lee, *et al.* (2013b); Mallory & Rupp (2014); Mory *et al.* (2016); Paillé & Mejía-Morelos (2014); Paillé & Raineri (2015); Rayton *et al.* (2015); Rego *et al.* (2010a); Slack *et al.* (2015)	
Attribution mechanism (N=7)		Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac (2015); Raub (2016)	Shen & Zhu (2011); Story & Neves (2015); Vlachos, *et*

			al. (2013a ; 2013b); Vlachos *et al.* (2014)
Organizational justice mechanism (N=7)	Sen *et al.* (2006)	Glavas & Kelley (2014); Rupp (2011); Rupp *et al.* (2006; 2013a); Vlachos *et al.* (2010)		Erdogan *et al.* (2015)
Psychological needs mechanism (N=4)		Bauman & Skitka (2012); Brockner, *et al.* (2014); Rupp *et al.* (2013b)	Maignan *et al.* (1999)	
Other underlying mechanisms (with different theoretical frameworks) (N=42)	Dawkins *et al.* (2016); Guerci *et al.* (2015; 2016); Lin *et al.* (2012a); Sorenson *et al.* (2010); Zhang & Gowan (2012)	Bingham, *et al.* (2013); Block *et al.* (2015); Davies & Crane (2010); Dhanesh (2014); Du *et al.* (2015); Evans *et al.* (2011b); Fu & Deshpande (2014); Glavas & Piderit (2009); Hansen *et al.* (2011); Hillenbrand *et al.* (2013); Kim *et al.* (2014); Lamm *et al.* (2015); Lavine (2012); Lee *et al.* (2012); Manika *et al.* (2015); Mason & Simmons (2013); Norton *et al.* (2014); Michailides & Lipsett (2013); Onkila (2015); Rabl & Triana (2014); Ramus & Steger (2000); Raub & Blunschi (2014); Rego *et al.* (2010b); Rodrigo &	Valentine & Fleishman (2008)	Caligiuri *et al.* (2013); Chen *et al.* (2015); Chun *et al.* (2013); Haski-Leventhal *et al.* (2015); Robertson & Barling (2013); Sully de Luque *et al.* (2008)

	Arenas (2008); Spanjol *et al.* (2015); Watkins *et al.* (2015); West *et al.* (2015); Zhang *et al.* (2014); Zhu *et al.* (2013)

Note. Conceptual papers are underlined.

Table A25. Detailed Version of Table 5. Overview of the Boundary Conditions of Individual Reactions to CSR

Main boundary conditions surrounding individuals' reactions to CSR	Prospective employees	Employees (e.g., administrative staff)	Managers (e.g., middle managers)	Executives (e.g., CEOs, CFOs, TMT)	Multilevel or Different Groups of Individuals
Individual differences					
Cultural values (N=6)	Dawkins *et al.* (2016)	Farooq *et al.* (2016) [Cosmopolitan orientation, individualism, and collectivism]; Hofman & Newman (2013) [Masculinity orientation; Collectivism]; Mallory & Rupp (2014); Mueller *et al.* (2012); Rupp et al. (2013b)			
Individual moral values (N=4)	Evans & Davis (2011) [Other-regarding value orientation]; Greening & Turban (2000) [Environmental values]	Evans *et al.* (2011a) [Other-regarding value orientation]			Dumont *et al.* (2016)
Moral identity (N=4)	Thornton & Rupp (2016); Rupp *et al.* (2013a)	Mallory & Rupp (2014); Rupp *et al.* (2013b)			
Behavioral control, subjective norms (N=1)		Bingham *et al.* (2013)			
Desire to have a significant impact through work (N=1)	Gully *et al.* (2013)				
Exchange ideology (N=1)		Jones (2010)			
Personality traits (N=1)	Zhang & Gowan (2012)				

	[Machiavellianism; Utilitarianism]			
Preference for meaningfulness (N=1)		Carnahan *et al.* (2016)		
Social cynicism (N=1)		West *et al.* (2015)		
Socio-demographics				
	Backhaus *et al.* (2002) [gender ; ethnicity]; Greening & Turban (2000) [gender]	Brammer *et al.* (2007) [gender]		Haski-Leventhal *et al.* (2015)
Individual attitudes toward CSR				
Personal beliefs about CSR importance (N=6)	Bauer & Aiman-Smith (1996) [personal environmental stance]; Behrend *et al.* (2009) [personal environmental attitude]; Evans & Davis (2011) [CSR education]; Tsai *et al.* (2014) [Socio-environmental consciousness];	Korschun et al. (2014); Turker (2009a)	Peterson (2004)	
CSR-induced attributions of motives (N=3)	Sen *et al.* (2006)	De Roeck & Delobbe (2012); Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac (2015)		
Duration & context of employee participation in corporate social initiatives (N=2)		Bode et al. (2015); Mallory & Rupp (2014)		
Congruence of values and CSR attributes (N=1)		Collier & Esteban (2007)		
CSR proximity (N=1)		Du *et al.* (2015)		

CSR salience (N=1)		<u>Glavas & Godwin (2013)</u>	
Employer reputation; amount of green information for the individual (N=1)	Guerci *et al.* (2016)		
Personal relevance of corporate ability information (N=2)	Berens et al. (2007)	Yim & Fock (2013)	
Perceptions about the organization			
Perceived organizational support (N=3)		Shen *et al.* (2016)	Erdogan *et al.* (2015); Shen & Benson (2016)
Breach in the psychological contact (N=2)		Paillé & Mejía-Morelos (2014); Paillé & Raineri (2015)	
First-party justice perceptions (N=2)		De Roeck *et al.* (2016); <u>Mallory & Rupp (2014)</u>	
Perceived social responsibility climate (N=1)		Brammer *et al.* (2014)	

Note. Conceptual papers are underlined.

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