The psychological microfoundations of corporate social responsibility: A person-centric systematic review

JEAN-PASCAL GOND1*, ASSÂAD EL AKREMI2, VALÉRIE SWAEN3 AND NISHAT BABU4

1Cass Business School, City, University of London, London, U.K.
2Université Toulouse-Capitole, CRM, Toulouse, France
3Université catholique de Louvain, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium and IESEG School of Management (LEM CNRS - UMR 9221), Lille, France
4Aston Business School, Aston University, Birmingham, U.K.

Summary
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 (i) individual drivers of CSR engagement, (ii) individual processes of CSR evaluations, and (iii) 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. Copyright © 2017 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility; drivers; evaluations; reactions; microfoundations

Introduction

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 5 years, we find rapid expansions of such studies in CSR, human resource management (HRM), and organizational behavior (OB) research domains (El Akremi, Gond, Swaen, De Roeck, & Igalens, 2015; 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

*Correspondence to: Jean-Pascal Gond, Cass Business School, City University London, 106 Bunhill Row, EC1Y 8TZ, London, UK. E-mail: jean-pascal.gond.1@city.ac.uk

Received 15 January 2013
Copyright © 2017 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
Revised 8 November 2016, Accepted 28 November 2016
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 and middle managers) and outside (e.g., job seekers and 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). In the Supporting Information, we provide an overview of prior studies and distinguish the groups of individuals—prospective employees (e.g., job seekers), employees (e.g., administrative staff), managers (e.g., middle managers), or executives (e.g., chief executive officers [CEOs] and chief financial officers)—considered in each study.

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: (i) exploring interactions among the drivers of CSR, (ii) pursuing construct clarification and valid measure development, (iii) bridging the various mechanisms of reactions to CSR, (iv) considering new and more relevant individual differences that operate as drivers of or boundary conditions on reactions to CSR, (v) expanding analyses of outcomes of reactions to CSR, and (vi) incorporating individual-level dynamics and learning processes.

A Person-Centric View of Corporate Social Responsibility

Psychological microfoundations of corporate social responsibility

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, and 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

1The full set of tables that presents prior micro-CSR studies is provided as a permanent Supporting Information. We encourage our readers to download this Supporting Information and to use it while reading this paper, especially Supporting Information Tables A2-1 to A2-5.
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.

**Review scope**

Defining the scope of our person-centric review was a complex exercise, owing 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 microlevel

![Figure 1. Psychological microfoundations of corporate social responsibility (CSR)](image-url)
analyses of CSR and consider microlevel works that have focused on CSR subdimensions (e.g., proenvironmental behaviors). Our systematic search returned a total of 268 articles at the microlevel of analysis that considered at least one type of individual. 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 leads 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, 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 and self-serving concerns), relational drivers (e.g., need for belongingness, and social and relationship-based concerns), and moral drivers (e.g., need for a meaningful existence and 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, and 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. We review research related to each type of drivers and then discuss the gaps and imbalances within and across the drivers next.

**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 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 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. 

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2To 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. The Supporting Information provides more details about the procedure we used.
(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, Spliter, 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, & Cochrán, 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 (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., Tong, 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), postmaterialism, 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, 2004) 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 (Verissimo & 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 and 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 (Stahl & Sully de Luque, 2014). Bissing-Olson, Iyer, Fielding, and Zacher (2013) provide evidence of the role of positive affect in the adoption of daily, task-related, proenvironmental activities. A final set of studies identifies other individual variables as predictors of CSR engagement, considering, for example, managerial discretion (Wood, 1991) or knowledge or awareness of CSR among employees (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, and 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 consolidate 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 not 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 roles of proximal (direct drivers) and distal (determinants of drivers) predictors of CSR engagement.

Individual Evaluations of Corporate Social Responsibility

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 resulting from 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, et al., 2013). 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. 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?).

Cognitive processes of corporate social responsibility evaluations

Framing of corporate social responsibility perceptions

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 the 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, Shao et al. (2013), 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 perceptual 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). Turkker’s (2009) stakeholder-based scale of CSR perceptions distinguishes CSR oriented toward nonsocial stakeholder groups (e.g., customers) versus social stakeholder groups (e.g., future generations). 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 perceptions.

**Corporate social responsibility 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, particularly in contexts marked by heightened cynicism. 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). 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.

**Corporate social responsibility sensemaking**

Emerging research that 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 corporate social responsibility evaluations**

In contrast with analyses of CSR drivers that consider the role of affect and emotions as antecedents of CSR engagement, 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 the El Akremi et al. (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).

**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**

The outcomes studied in prior research are diverse. Some results also have been consolidated in subsequent studies that address attitudinal or behavioral outcomes.
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, 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, 2015) and can prevent cynicism (Evans, Goodman et al., 2011).

Behavioral outcomes
In the past 5 years, studies 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, Goodman 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, although 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.

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 microlevel CSR studies rely on social identity as an explanatory framework, only a small set of contributions actually test 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 (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. In a conceptual paper, Mallory and Rupp (2014) predict a role of leader-driven perceptions of CSR by employees on the leader–member exchange relationship.

**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 (Rupp and Mallory, 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 et al., (2013, 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. 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-based 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 the groundwork for a general theory of reactions to CSR. Our review suggests that psychological needs may operate as either 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).

**Boundary conditions of individual reactions to corporate social responsibility**

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). 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, Shao et al., 2013; Rupp, Skarlicki et al., 2013), exchange ideology (Jones, 2010), ethical predispositions and Machiavellianism (Zhang & Gowan, 2012), other-regarding value orientation (Evans, Davis et al., 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, Shao et al. (2013) show that among people with low moral identity, moral values are less important and less relevant for processing social information, so these people 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 CSR perceptions and employees’ reactions (e.g., De Roeck & Delobbe, 2012). Finally, recent developments suggest that first-party justice perceptions (De Roeck et al., 2016), 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 effect on 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, and 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, 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 microlevel CSR literature along three categories—CSR drivers, CSR evaluations, and reactions to CSR—in this systematic review, we have sought to provide a clear picture of the recent surge in microlevel CSR studies. In addition to the detailed critiques and omissions, several critical issues limit our current knowledge of microlevel 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 microlevel CSR research.

Challenge 1: Explore interactions among corporate social responsibility 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 carried out 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 those of Aguilera et al. (2007) can test whether the effects of such drivers are additive or multiplicative; methods such as fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis 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.
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 play out through specific framings of individual perceptions of CSR? Also, OB 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 microfoundations 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 Rupp and Mallory (2015) 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. 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 microlevel 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 corporate social responsibility 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 Rupp and Mallory’s (2015) 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 Rupp and Mallory (2015), 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. 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 corporate social responsibility**

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 microlevel 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, and 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, prosocial, and green behaviors within and outside the workplace.

Second, current microlevel 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 microlevel 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 proenvironmental 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 microlevel CSR scholarship ever hopes to deliver on its promises to its main stakeholders and to society as a whole.

Conclusion

In the past 5 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.

Author biographies

Jean-Pascal Gond is professor of corporate social responsibility (CSR) at Cass Business School, City University London (UK). His research mobilizes organization theory and economic sociology to investigate 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.

Assaad 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 CSR 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 organizational factors in propagating microlevel CSR.

References


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