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UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Greeley, Colorado

The Graduate School

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CORPORATE
SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN RECREATIONAL SPORT
ORGANIZATIONS: AN INVESTIGATION
OF EMPLOYEE FUNCTIONING

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

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School of Sport and Exercise Science
Sport Administration

May 2020

This Dissertation by: Rammi Hazzaa

Entitled: *The Psychological Foundations of Corporate Social Responsibility in Recreational Sport Organizations: An Investigation of Employee Functioning*

has been approved as meeting the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Natural and Health Sciences in the School of Sport and Exercise Science, Program of Sport Administration.

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ABSTRACT

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The importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been well documented in the mainstream management literature (e.g., Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Turker, 2009). While CSR has been investigated in the sport management literature, it has been done almost exclusively from the macro-level perspective aiming to address questions about the implications of CSR for organizations and society (Babiak, 2010; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). However, there has been little CSR-related research undertaken with regards to sport employees and the individual level of analysis (micro-level). As such, this study is guided by the general notion of the psychological foundations of CSR that explain how and why it affects organizational stakeholders such as employees (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Rupp & Mallory, 2015).

The purpose of this study was to extend the micro-CSR literature to the recreational sport context by proposing and testing a theoretical model to better understand how employees psychologically experience CSR and their subsequent attitudes by adopting a positive organizational behavior framework. The model included psychological capital (PsyCap) as a mediator, as well as gratitude as a first-stage moderator on the association between CSR and PsyCap. This comprehensive model

originated from the belief that when organization's engage in CSR activities directed towards their employees, they perceive it, and their perceptions might affect their psychological development, which ultimately influences their attitudes towards their job and organization, respectively.

This dissertation employed a cross-sectional quantitative research design and used an online survey for employees in recreational sport organizations across the United States ($N = 705$). The overall results indicated that employees' perceptions of CSR were a strong antecedent in generating positive psychological capacities and positive employee outcomes. Additionally, the indirect effect of PsyCap was found to further explain how employees psychologically experience CSR. Support was found for all of the proposed relationships with one exception, gratitude was not found to have a significant interaction effect on CSR and PsyCap.

The findings extend the sport management literature and offer empirical evidence about the powerful effect that favorable perceptions of CSR can have on employee functioning and positive attitudes. It also highlights the potential role that an organization's socially responsible actions may have on the micro-level of the recreational sport work environment. Lastly, the results provide theoretical and practical contributions that should serve to inform future work in this emerging area of positive organizational behavior and sport employee psychology moving forward.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
POB	Positive Organizational Behavior
PsyCap	Psychological Capital

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organizations in the sport industry are increasingly focused on managing how internal and external stakeholders perceive and react to business practices associated with corporate social responsibility (CSR; Anagnostopoulos, Byers, & Shilbury, 2014; Babiak, 2010; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos, & van Eekeren, 2015; Godfrey, 2009; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walker, Hills, & Heere, 2017; Walker & Kent, 2009; Walker, Kent, & Jordan, 2011). Recognizing stakeholder interests and demand is especially pertinent in the sport industry because of their overall influence on sport organizations (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Entities in sport are also heavily people and service-oriented, and subsequently operate in a competitive environment that requires organizational strategies to manage employees effectively (Taylor, Doherty, & McGraw, 2008). In other words, the choices and actions made by managers within a sport organization can be explained through a better understanding of the expectations and perceptions of stakeholders (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997).

Employees are important stakeholders who both influence and are influenced by an employer's CSR initiatives (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007; Jones, Willness, & Glavas, 2017; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Despite this notion, a surprising lack of attention has been devoted towards understanding the influence of CSR on an

organization's internal stakeholders (Jones et al., 2017). However, this knowledge gap has started to garner more consideration in what can be described as micro-CSR research; conducted at the individual-level of analysis focusing on how and why employees perceive and react to CSR (Glavas, 2016). Therefore, the purpose of this dissertation is to examine sport employees' perceptions of CSR and its relationship with the proposed mechanisms (e.g., gratitude and PsyCap) and outcomes (e.g., job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction). It draws on the important role of micro-CSR and offers a basis for understanding the benefits of CSR at the individual level for both sport employees and their organizations.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has garnered considerable interest among scholars and become a common business practice for organizations across all industries (e.g., Carroll, 1999; Godfrey & Hatch, 2007; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Turker, 2009; Wood, 1991). The origins of CSR come from philanthropy, which is the oldest social initiative among American private enterprises (Godfrey, 2009). In 2016, philanthropic spending by corporations in the United States was estimated to have increased 3.5 percent, totaling \$18.55 billion (Giving USA Foundation, 2017). From large oil conglomerates such as Shell Oil to worldwide corporate hotel chains including Marriott Hotels, corporations are seemingly supporting socially responsible practices. Indeed, there are numerous examples of social responsibility and philanthropic contributions across industry sectors. For example, during fiscal year 2018, Microsoft donated \$1.4 billion in software and services to nonprofits around the world (Microsoft, 2018). In addition, Microsoft dedicates resources to empowering people in technology by reaching 50,000 workers by 2020 through in-

demand skills training and job opportunities (Microsoft, 2018). As a result, nearly all organizations are involved to some extent in CSR initiatives (Glavas, 2016).

While philanthropic activities related to CSR have undoubtedly become more prevalent, it has been difficult to determine a universally accepted meaning. For instance, Bowen (1953) broadly viewed CSR as the corporate obligation to pursue those policies and those decisions which align with the objectives and values of society. Carroll (1979) conceptualized corporate obligations into economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary, and since then, CSR has evolved into a broad understanding that corporations are tied to society and certain responsibilities. As McWilliams and Siegel (2001) noted, organizations are moving beyond maximizing profits and abiding by the law, by using their platforms and infrastructure to further some social good in the form of philanthropic efforts, charitable giving, and community outreach programs. Simply put, the fundamental principle of CSR is that organizations are responsible for their actions. In doing so, they should embrace societal concerns into their operations and in their interactions with stakeholders (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Extant literature on CSR contains concepts and theories that have been applied to a wide range of industries. Yet, in practice, CSR differs significantly from one industry to another (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Godfrey, 2009). The sport industry has particular relevance to CSR and offers a unique setting for examining its relation to sport. Bradish and Cronin (2009) stated that “CSR should be regarded as one of the most important components of contemporary sport management theory and practice” (p. 696). As a result, there has since been an increase of studies addressing CSR both *in sport* (i.e.,

implementing CSR within sport organizations across levels) and *through* sport (i.e. sport organizations serving as the vehicle for CSR implementation; Breitbarth et al., 2015).

Nearly all sport organizations have programs or corporate foundations associated with philanthropy and community outreach initiatives (Walker et al., 2017). Due to the substantial visibility of sport and their dependence on local communities (Babiak, 2010), many of those entities have turned to community outreach activities for building goodwill and addressing critical social issues (e.g., Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; McGowan & Mahon, 2009; Sheth & Babiak, 2010). CSR activities in the sport industry have been conceptualized to foster community development, bridge social and cultural contention, and revive disadvantaged communities (Walker & Kent, 2009). Examples of CSR programs in sport varies considerably; from league-wide initiatives to team-sponsored foundations. Professional sport leagues have established programs such as the NBA's "Read to Achieve," which promotes youth to read and the NHL's "Hockey Fights Cancer," where the league raises funds to support cancer research. As a result, sport organizations have begun to realize that engaging in socially responsible initiatives can likely generate a positive impact and offer additional benefits such as building loyalty with fans and maintaining an enhanced reputation with society (Walker & Kent, 2009). These beneficial outcomes through the involvement in CSR encourage such entities to make CSR an integral part of their business strategy.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) can also help in achieving competitive advantages through generating positive employee outcomes (De Roeck, Marique, Stinglhamber, & Swaen, 2014; Porter & Kramer, 2006; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008). Most of this work is micro-CSR research conducted at the individual level and guided by a

person-centric focus (Jones, Newman, Shao, & Cooke, 2018; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). As a general guide, micro-CSR refers to an organization's actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (Aguinis, 2011, p. 855). These activities and policies are all discretionary and appear to further some social good that goes beyond immediate interests and legal requirements (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

As members of an organization, employees are both directly (e.g., HRM policies) and indirectly (e.g., community involvement policies) involved in and contribute to socially responsible activities (Rupp, 2011; Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006). However, much of the past literature has focused on stakeholders outside the organization (Glavas, 2016). Despite the significant amount of attention and resources devoted to CSR activities, less consideration has been given to how CSR affects the internal stakeholders of an organization (i.e., employees; Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Rupp et al., 2006). While these studies reflect new insight, the underlying mechanisms through which CSR impacts employees have rarely been explored (De Roeck et al., 2014; Glavas, 2016). With this in mind, one approach to explaining why micro-CSR may influence sport employee outcomes is through investigating workplace positivity. By applying a positive approach toward the workplace setting, there is an opportunity to consider employee's full potential in the workplace.

Literature on positivity in the workplace has primarily developed under three perspectives: (1) positive psychology, (2) positive organizational scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) and (3) positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b). Positive psychology takes a broad approach by viewing positivity in the

workplace as a need to develop a positive working environment (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Positive psychology encompasses a variety of different behaviors, including those with interpersonal foci such as gratitude (Emmons & Shelton, 2001). However, it does not demonstrate improvement in organizational performance through the enhancement of positive and state-like constructs. Positive organizational scholarship (POS) is an overarching term used to provide a framework for research activity on positive states, outcomes, and generative mechanisms in individuals, dyads, groups, organizations, and societies (Cameron et al., 2003). On the other hand, positive organizational behavior (POB) seeks to improve employee performance and organizational competitive advantage by focusing on state-like strengths and psychological capacities that are positive, measurable, developable, and comprised of four distinct constructs known collectively as psychological capital (PsyCap): self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency (Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Past work has shown the positive value of building PsyCap in the workplace (e.g., Avey, 2014; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). As suggested by Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007), there are a number of other potential human strengths that may also be important in the research on POB, such as gratitude. Although, psychology has historically been criticized for being primarily dedicated to addressing the negative side of human functioning rather than the positive (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). However, scholars have argued that framing scholarship with a positive lens through POB should be the way moving forward (Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Avolio, 2009; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), which will help illuminate certain conditions under which employees thrive.

Statement of the Problem

For several decades, much of the scholarly literature on corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been dominated by a “macro focus that emphasized broad firm-wide policies, thereby laying the responsibility for attaining CSR results directly on top-level managers and the overall strategies they adopted” (Frederick, 2016, p. 2). The macro perspective has advanced our understanding of CSR and highlights the ways in which CSR affects the organization as a whole (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Subsequently, this area of academic inquiry seeks to answer many questions that are pertinent in today’s society (Morgeson, Aguinis, Waldman, & Siegel, 2013). This transition to greater awareness of socially responsible actions and policies of organizations is ensuing in part because of the potential benefits. Thus, it is not surprising that the main focus of CSR has been at the organizational level of analysis, with some work addressing the relationship between CSR and firm financial performance (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

The construct of corporate social responsibility is well-established in the literature by investigating how best to focus firm-level efforts. Yet, relatively little attention has been given to employees, and their importance as a stakeholder group (Turker, 2009). Along these lines, Rodrigo and Arenas (2008) contemplated this lack of attention is “... especially surprising because attraction of talent, loyalty to a firm, and motivation have all be used to explain why CSR can be a source of competitive advantage (p. 266). More recently, the influence of CSR on internal stakeholders (i.e., employees) and the individual level of analysis is gaining attention from scholars (e.g., Aguilera et al., 2007; Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007; Glavas, 2016; Rupp et

al., 2006). Past work has given support for the ways in which employees' CSR perceptions affect critical employee outcomes, while less is known about the factors that trigger these perceptions (Rupp, & Mallory, 2015). As such, this dissertation contributes to calls for individual level of analysis of CSR (Aguilera et al., 2007; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008) by focusing on the psychological processes of CSR as it relates to sport employees within the organization.

Another emerging trend in the positive movement literature is corporate social responsibility, specifically at the individual level (e.g., micro-CSR; Anagnostopoulos & Papadimitriou, 2017). Micro-CSR research alludes to the implications of employee's perceptions of CSR for their subsequent behavior (Kim, Lee, Lee, & Kim, 2010; Lee, Park, & Lee, 2013). Simply put, micro-CSR refers to the study of how CSR affects individuals (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). In regard to these psychological aspects, Rupp, Skarlicki, and Shao (2013) stated, "how employees perceive the CSR of their employer has more direct and stronger implications for employees' subsequent reactions than actual firm behaviors of which employees may or may not be aware" (p. 897). One of the significant gaps in micro-CSR literature is the use of theory building and incorporating existing theories to improve our understanding of the psychological foundations of CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Glavas, 2016; Rupp, 2011). In addition, there have been calls for more research on the antecedents of employees' PsyCap (Avey, 2014). Particularly, what remains not as well-known is *how* and *why* employees might psychologically experience CSR (Gond, Akremi, Swaen, & Babu, 2017; Jones et al., 2017; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Aguinis and Glavas (2012) suggest the use of micro-level theories can

assist in elucidating the underlying psychological processes (i.e., mediators and moderators) of CSR and its outcomes.

Although numerous studies have examined issues related to POS and/or POB in various industrial and organizational sectors (Luthans, 2002a), the sport management scholarly community is lacking research endeavors in and around POS/POB. This is somewhat surprising given the fact that the value of sport mainly depends on “the ways that sport is managed” (Chalip, 2006, p. 1). More recently, however, sport management scholars have begun to address key issues surrounding its importance and relevance within the sport industry. For instance, Kim, Perrewé, Kim, and Kim (2017) provided a comprehensive review of POB in sport organizations and developed a conceptual framework for sport employees working in sport organizations. In addition, scholars have found unique characteristics pertaining to the psychology of sport employees such as their identification (Oja, Bass, & Gordon, 2015, In press; Swanson & Kent, 2015; Todd & Kent, 2009), job appeal (Todd & Andrew, 2008), passion (Anagnostopoulos, Winand, & Papadimitriou, 2016), pride (Swanson & Kent, 2017), organizational culture (Oja, Hazzaa, Wilkerson, & Bass, 2018) and psychological well-being (Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, & Perrewé, 2019; Kim, Perrewé, et al., 2017).

The widespread growth of sport at all levels, including professional sports, intercollegiate athletics, and recreational sports, has driven significant changes in effectively managing such entities (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017). Indeed, scholars have noted the distinct features of sport, emphasizing that sport has as much social impact as other industries. Examples of sport’s unique attributes include mass media distribution, youth appeal, positive health influences, and social interaction (Smith & Westerbeek,

2007). Additionally, sport organizations include stadiums, events, advertisements, sponsors, media attention, and popular athletes, that allows for consumer attention (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). As Walker et al. (2017) noted, sport organizations impart significant influences on contemporary society, yielding positive and lasting effects on communities (Eckstein & Delaney, 2002), stakeholders (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007), and other social mechanisms that influence individual behavior (e.g., identification; Oja et al., 2015, In press; Swanson & Kent, 2015; Todd & Kent, 2009). Because of these unique characteristics, it is also important to pay attention to factors associated with optimal organizational functioning and sport employees' psychological well-being in sport organizations (Wagstaff, Fletcher, & Hanton, 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to examine the relatively new research area of micro-CSR and POB in the sport workplace so that findings from this dissertation can help inform both theory and practice in sport organizations.

Purpose of the Study

The primary objective of this dissertation is to promote the positive manifestations inside sport organizations through the lens of corporate social responsibility, positive psychology, and positive organizational behavior. The recent focus of positive elements associated with organizing and managing sport appears to indicate a paradigm shift for sport management scholars. One way this so-called shift has already occurred is through an increased attention to CSR in the sporting context (e.g., Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Breitbarth et al., 2015). Yet, many authors have ignored one critical element of CSR, which is to demonstrate the elusive “win-win” proposition of organizations (Walker et al., 2017); not only to themselves but also employees.

Moreover, employees play a key role in CSR policies by generating, developing, and implementing CSR strategies (Seivwright & Unsworth, 2016). Employees are viewed as the most influential element with regard to CSR activities in organizations (McSchane & Cunningham, 2012). Thus, this dissertation sought to draw upon and integrate the existing literature on employee-focused CSR and previous theory derived from POB. To measure whether micro-CSR improves sport employee functioning and workplace experiences, a better understanding of their perceptions, emotions, psychological capacities, and positive outcomes is warranted.

In order to address all of these issues, the three-fold purpose of this work was to: (1) provide a framework of POB/CSR (see Figure 1), including both CSR positively related to PsyCap and outcomes of CSR, (2) examine sport employees' perceptions of CSR on PsyCap through the moderating role of gratitude, and (3) test the mediating role of PsyCap for sport employees' job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction.

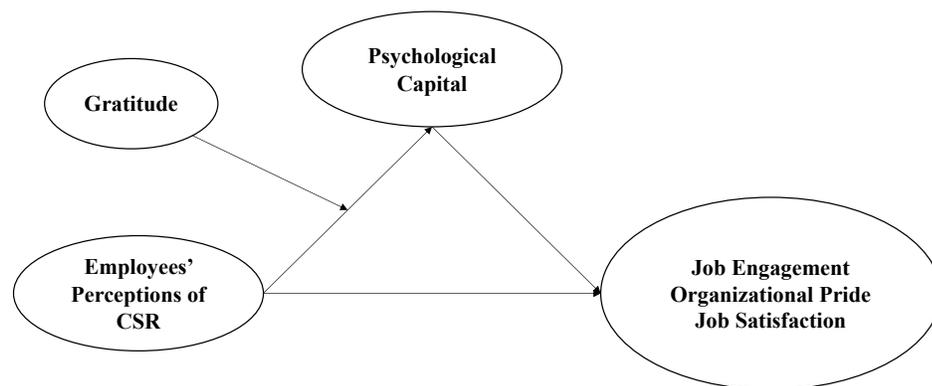


Figure 1. Proposed conceptual model.

Theoretical Framework

Scholars have made efforts to determine a theoretical framework for understanding how and why CSR impacts employees and ultimately organizational performance (De Roeck et al., 2014; Glavas, 2016; Rupp et al., 2013). Relying on the psychological foundations of CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013), this conceptual model (see Figure 1) suggests that PsyCap could represent a potential underlying mechanism and pathway through which CSR leads to positive outcomes for sport employees. For example, previous studies have found that positive perceptions of CSR positively relate to employees' PsyCap (Leal, Rego, & Coelho, 2012; Leal, Rego, & Cunha, 2015). However, past work still does not explain how employee's degree of gratitude changes the relationship between CSR and PsyCap. In addition, sport management scholars have yet to investigate the impact of CSR on employees' gratitude and psychological capacities. This dissertation attempts to address this gap by building a moderated mediation model that may help explain the mechanism through which grateful employees respond better to their organization's CSR activities and consequently obtain greater PsyCap that leads to better outcomes (e.g., organizational pride, job satisfaction, job engagement).

Psychological capital (PsyCap) was chosen as the mediating mechanism and gratitude as the moderating condition for several reasons. First, prior research has shown the role of CSR in generating individual psychological capacities (e.g., Andersson, Giacalone, & Jurkiewicz, 2007; Leal et al., 2015; Romani, Grappi, & Bagozzi, 2013). For example, Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009) suggested that employees enjoy working for socially responsible organizations because it provides them with

opportunities for personal and psychological growth. Second, studies indicate that the relationship between perceived CSR and positive employee outcomes cannot be fully explained without other influencing elements (e.g., Gond et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2018).

One way to explain the relationship between sport employees' perception of CSR and PsyCap may be the presence of gratitude, which has been conceptualized as a positive emotional response (Emmons & Crumpler, 2000) and a fundamental variable in the positive psychology framework (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Considered an individual disposition, McCullough, Emmons, and Tsang (2002) defined gratitude as "a generalized tendency to recognize and respond with grateful emotion to the roles of other people's benevolence in the positive experiences and outcomes that one obtains" (p. 112). Scholars have suggested that gratitude is important in determining whether CSR activities are well-received by employees (Romani et al., 2013). Specifically, it is expected that employees who feel grateful toward their organization's CSR actions will be more capable of achieving positive psychological resources in the workplace. Knowing whether this exists has the potential to offer critical considerations in the implementation of workplace interventions and human resource management policies. For example, if sport employees perceive CSR to be a benefit and positive response, then this would suggest that increasing CSR and, by extension, feelings of gratitude, may build up PsyCap which is beneficial during difficult periods of working in sport.

In the corporate social responsibility (CSR) literature, a theory most often associated with CSR is stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984). Stakeholder theory is defined as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, p. 46). One of the stakeholder groups that

CSR initiatives can have a positive impact on its employees. As vital members who contribute to achieving organizational objectives, employees are central to our understanding of how social responsibility initiatives influence and contribute to workplace outcomes (Rupp et al., 2006). The literature linking CSR and stakeholder theory also suggests a natural fit in that organizations should consider specific groups when implementing CSR initiatives (Carroll, 1991; Turker, 2009).

Drawing on positive organizational behavior (POB) and stakeholder theory, this dissertation extends the literature and proposes that sport employees' gratitude and perceived CSR may influence PsyCap, and in turn, several attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. More specifically, it may be shown how the mediating mechanism of PsyCap and moderating condition of gratitude work together as positive mental states to improve individual functioning by properly managing the interests of stakeholders within the organization. Thus, feelings of gratitude induced by an organization's CSR may play an important role in achieving positive constructs such as PsyCap.

Significance of the Study

By addressing the aforementioned problems and research purposes, this dissertation extends previous research and makes several contributions to not only the sport management literature, but also practitioners working in sport organizations, and the greater understanding of positivity in the workplace.

In particular, the context of sport may offer additional insight into the influence of micro-CSR research on sport employees in the workplace. However, limited attention has been directed towards the effects of CSR in sport from an employee perspective (e.g., Sheth & Babiak, 2010). Given that sport employees are primary stakeholders of their

organization's CSR, it would reason that their perceptions can have significant implications for employee functioning and achieving organizational effectiveness. Considering the commitment among sport organizations to adopt a stakeholder-centric approach (Babiak, 2010; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009), perceptions of CSR efforts from employees appear worthwhile for further inquiry. From the extant literature, this dissertation is a response to the calls for theory and research intended to deepen our understanding of CSR at the micro-level (Gond et al., 2017; Morgeson et al., 2013; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). In response, by drawing on sport employees at the individual level, this study contributes to the CSR and POB literature and holds significance for attempting to contribute to the sport management literature.

Definition of Terms

The following are definitions are referenced throughout this dissertation:

Corporate social responsibility. Carroll (1979) defined CSR as, "the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time" (p. 500). This widely accepted conceptualization of CSR suggests that organizations must embrace a full range of responsibilities of business to society. From a stakeholder-centric perspective, CSR was measured and defined as "corporate behaviors which aim to affect stakeholders positively and go beyond its economic interest" (Turker, 2009, p. 189). In line with these definitions of CSR, micro-CSR generally refers to an organization's actions and policies that take into account internal stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (Aguinis, 2011, p. 855).

Gratitude. McCullough et al. (2002) conceptualized gratitude as a moral affect that serves to motivate individuals to engage in prosocial behavior and acts as a moral barometer providing an affective “readout.” In addition, “people (“beneficiaries”) respond with gratitude when other people (“benefactors”) behave in a way that promotes the beneficiaries’ well-being.” (p. 250).

Psychological capital. Developed initially by Luthans and colleagues, PsyCap is comprised of four common constructs of POB and defined as:

“an individual’s positive psychological state of development characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success” (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 3).

Organizational pride. Organizational pride refers to the extent to which individuals experience a sense of pleasure and self-respect arising from their organizational membership (Jones, 2010). As such, organizational pride is a valuable psychological resource and represents an emotion-based mechanism where individuals who feel proud to work for their organization because of their CSR activities.

Job engagement. According to Bakker and Leiter (2010), job engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being” (p. 1). Saks (2006) added that job engagement refers to the degree to which an individual

is entrenched in their role. Engaged works can be described as being fully physically, cognitively, and emotionally connected with their work roles (Kahn, 1990).

Job satisfaction. Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p. 309). Employees typically evaluate the overall aspects of their job and how those perceptions directly influence their affection.

Overview of Chapters

Following the introductory chapter, the remainder of this dissertation is organized into four additional chapters. Chapter two presents a comprehensive review of the literature related to CSR, including historical trends, the varying conceptualizations, and theories associated with the construct. Relevant literature on gratitude, PsyCap, and sport employees are discussed in relation to definitions and past findings. At the end of Chapter two, a theoretical framework and proposed conceptual model will be described. Research hypotheses are provided and explained regarding the constructs under investigation. Chapter three describes the methods, which includes sections on research design, data collection procedures, participants, instruments, and data analysis. In Chapter four, the results are reviewed for all hypotheses. Finally, Chapter five discussed the results of the study regarding practical implications, theoretical contributions, and close with a guide for future research recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides an extensive review of literature that supports the constructs in this study and the proposed conceptual model introduced in chapter one (see Figure 1). The chapter begins with a broad overview regarding the importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR), including its evolution, the conceptualizations of CSR over the decades, and follows with an explanation of CSR in the sport industry. From there, a review of the psychological foundations of CSR (i.e., micro CSR), including its relevance and applicability to employees. The literature review continues with a discussion of stakeholder theory, positive organizational behavior, and psychological capital. This chapter concludes with the development of the research hypotheses that were tested (see Figure 2).

Corporate Social Responsibility

In the current organizational landscape, what has considerably changed are the demands placed on corporations to do more than just make profits. While generating a profit is essential for long-term success, society also expects firms to adhere to the law and use resources for discretionary or philanthropic purposes (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Corporations are devoting substantial resources to numerous social initiatives (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010). Many stakeholders expect more social responsibility from organizations (Carroll, 1991; Turker, 2009), especially considering how social and

political issues can severely impact a community. As a result, socially responsible activities have become an effective tool for strengthening multiple relationships between stakeholders (e.g., investors, suppliers, customers, employees, and governments) and organizations (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2015; Sen, Bhattacharya, & Korschun, 2006; Walker & Kent, 2009).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) provides a platform for the effective use of corporate power and social involvement (Carroll, 1991). The concept of CSR refers to “actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 117). In other words, an organization is not exhibiting social responsibility by simply abiding by the law, such as equal pay or minority discrimination. Rather, organizations can use CSR as a way to give back to their respective communities through philanthropic efforts. Examples of CSR actions that go beyond the economic and legal requirements include developing environmental initiatives, charitable donations, and creating youth development programs which target unrepresented children in low-income areas. A clear understanding of the general ideas of CSR requires an examination of the definitional history, along with empirical findings and considerations for CSR in practice (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Carroll, 1999; Godfrey, 2009).

Evolution of Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has garnered considerable interest across multiple academic literatures for over half a century (Carroll, 1999). However, many conceptualizations, scope of CSR activities, and practical importance of CSR to an

organization and its workforce still remain largely unclear. A major topic of contention among scholars, practitioners, and executives is a unified definition and conceptual understanding of CSR. The lack of an accepted definition also contributes to the lack of empirical findings that can support or refute existing hypothetical claims (Godfrey & Hatch, 2007). Although a universal definition of CSR is still yet to be contextualized, scholars have made significant contributions regarding alternative ways of operationalizing CSR (Carroll, 1991; Jones, 1980). Nonetheless, societal demands have prompted such entities to establish more socially responsible practices. Carroll (1999) provided a historical review and evolution of CSR throughout the past several decades which outlined over 25 conceptualizations of CSR within the academic literature. Therefore, it is worth discussing the transformation of CSR over the years and how it is currently portrayed and studied among scholars.

The concept of CSR originated in the 1950s as corporations began to grow, become main producers of goods, jobs, and economic power throughout the world. Also known as the “modern era” of CSR definitions for its early academic contributions (Carroll, 1999). Carroll (1979) viewed Bowen (1953) as one of the early scholars of CSR. He argued that businesses have the obligation to “pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objective and values of our society” (p. 6). Bowen (1953) urged scholars to continue the discussion and further exploration of CSR according to societal values and norms. He also suggested that executives and managers should be responsible for decisions that may not only benefit the organization, but society as well (Bowen, 1953). This critical contribution

served as the starting point for an abundance of literature on the nature of social responsibilities and its typologies (Carroll, 1999).

The 1960s marked a significant growth in attempts from scholars to better formalize the CSR construct and its potential role in society (Carroll, 1999). Building upon the work of Bowen (1953), Davis (1960, 1967) emerged as a prominent CSR scholar during this decade. He recognized that social responsibility was a complicated idea and making a consensus definition would be difficult. Davis (1960) defined CSR as “businessmen’s decisions and actions taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm’s direct economic or technical interest” (p. 70). He argued the relationship between social responsibility and business power should be relatively equal (Davis, 1960, 1967). These viewpoints have been described as a new approach, in which CSR be observed from a moral dimension. It was proposed that firms should engage in socially responsible activities because it is the right thing to do from a moral perspective, not because of the potential benefits CSR may provide to firms. In recognizing the increasing competitive nature of business, Davis (1967) suggested that businesses who do not comply with societal demands will be replaced with businesses who are willing to fulfill social responsibilities. Carroll (1999) considered Davis’s contributions of CSR significant in shaping our early understanding of social responsibility within the corporate environment.

At the turn of the 1970s, the Committee for Economic Development (CED) proposed a broad categorization of CSR consisting of three concentric circles. According to CED (1971), *inner circle* refers to “the clear-cut basic responsibilities for the efficient execution of the economic function-product, jobs, and economic growth”; *intermediate*

circle refers to the “responsibility to exercise this economic function with a sensitive awareness of changing social values and priorities”; and *outer circle* refers to “newly emerging and still amorphous responsibilities that business should assume to become more broadly involved in actively improving the social environment” (p. 15). Carroll (1999) viewed this conceptualization as a landmark contribution of CSR, particularly for its multidimensional nature. Davis (1967) provided another more in depth definition than before. He defined CSR as “the firm’s consideration of and response to issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm... (to) accomplish social benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks” (Davis, 1973, p. 312). This broad categorization put forth by CED (1971) and Davis’s (1973) contribution paved the way for Carroll (1979) to create one of the seminal pieces within the CSR literature.

Despite numerous definitions of corporate social responsibility from the early 1950s to the late 1970s, Carroll’s (1979) conceptualization of CSR still remained referenced from scholars (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Carroll, 1999; Godfrey, 2009; Maignan, 2001; Wood, 1991). He suggested that CSR is a multidimensional construct, which reflects his view of a three-part definition. Carroll argued the need for managers or firms to have “(a) a basic definition of CSR, (b) an understanding/enumeration of the issues for which a social responsibility existed, and (c) a specification of the philosophy of responsiveness to the issues” (p. 499).

Carroll’s definition and multidimensional framework alludes to the fact that managers or firms must embrace a full range of responsibilities of business to society. Thus, it was explained that, “the social responsibility of business encompasses the

economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time” (Carroll, 1979, p. 500). The economic component advocates a corporation’s expectations to produce and sell goods and/or services for a profit. From a legal standpoint, it is expected for corporations to obey the law within the legal framework of the legal system. The ethical responsibility refers to corporations going beyond what is simply required, specifically, norms that society expects businesses to follow. At last, are discretionary responsibilities of CSR. These are responsibilities society does not provide any specific expectations for; however, managers must still assume voluntary roles to maintain their social responsibility and awareness. These four responsibilities, according to Carroll (1979), “can assist managers in understanding that social responsibility is not separate and distinct from economic performance but rather is just one part of the total social responsibilities of business” (p. 503). Over the subsequent years, scholars have evolved this conceptualization of CSR (Carroll, 1991; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

It is worth noting that Carroll (1979, 1991) emphasized to not view the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary requirements of CSR as individual entities. Rather, corporations should be concerned with fulfilling their societal duties by adhering to the full domain of CSR. Wood (1991) added, “the basic idea of CSR is that business and society are interwoven rather than distinct entities; therefore, society has certain expectations for appropriate business behavior and outcomes” (p. 695). For example, a corporation should not attempt meet the economic responsibility of CSR, and then focus on the legal aspect of obeying the law, and so forth. Rather, Carroll (1991) stressed the

importance of firms viewing the entire pyramid of CSR at all times and being concerned with meeting the necessary demands and responsibilities of each domain.

By the 1980s, scholars began examining CSR in relation to explaining alternative themes, such as corporate social performance, business ethics, and stakeholder theory (Carroll, 1999). One notable scholar from this decade was Thomas Jones, who defined CSR as “the notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups in society other than stockholders and beyond that prescribed by law and union contract” (p. 59). Jones (1980) posited that CSR should be seen as a process rather than a final outcome. For instance, firms cannot be “socially responsible” by engaging in one activity or for a short period of time. Being socially responsible can be achieved so long as firms incorporate CSR into their daily operations and activities.

The 1990s reflected much of the previous decade with there being few notable contributions. Most scholars were focused on related constructs of CSR, most notably corporate citizenship and stakeholder theory (Carroll, 1999). However, Carroll (1991) revisited his initial four-part CSR definition and articulated his revised conceptualization in the form of a pyramid. He restated, “the CSR firm should strive to make a profit, obey the law, be ethical, and be a good corporate citizen” (p. 43). Originally conceived as the discretionary responsibility, he suggested this component be referred to as philanthropic because it encompassed corporate citizenship. Waddock (2000) later defined corporate citizenship as “company practice that impacts various stakeholders” (p. 323). Schwartz and Carroll (2003) added that the components of corporate citizenship are to be fulfilled simultaneously rather than sequentially and that doing so will enhance the stakeholder environment.

Table 1

Definitions of Corporate Social Responsibility

Author(s)	Year	Definition
Bowen	1953	“obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society” (p. 6)
Davis	1960	“businessmen’s decisions and actions taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm’s direct economic or technical interest” (p. 70)
Carroll	1979	“the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time” (p. 500)
Jones	1980	“the notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups in society other than stockholders and beyond that prescribed by law and union contract” (p. 59)
Wood	1991	“business and society are interwoven rather than distinct entities; therefore, society has certain expectations for appropriate business behavior and outcomes” (p. 695)
McWilliams and Siegel	2001	“actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (p. 117)

At the turn of the century, additional concepts associated with corporate social responsibility were defined. A noteworthy contribution to CSR was McWilliams and Siegel (2001), who defined CSR as “actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (p. 117). Their

definition moved beyond what was already previously known about firms; making profits and obeying the law. Another term associated with CSR that gained momentum during this era was strategic philanthropy. McAllister and Ferrell (2002) defined strategic philanthropy as “the synergistic use of organizational core competencies and resources to address key stakeholders’ interests to achieve both organizational and social benefits” (p. 690). In their view, strategic philanthropy involves employees, including the need for organizations to understand their needs and skills.

The reviewed literature on the evolution and definitional history of CSR indicates the vast amount of variability that still exists. Table 1 outlines several notable scholars who have articulated definitions of social responsibility and CSR over the last several decades. Simply put, CSR can be thought of as organization’s having obligations to society. Godfrey and Hatch (2007) contend that, “scholars have struggled to achieve a clear paradigm” (p. 87). However, several notable scholars have shaped the way CSR is defined and studied today (Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1979; Davis, 1967; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Most notably, scholars agreed that Carroll’s (1979, 1991) contribution to conceptualize CSR as a multidimensional construct with four clear domains (economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic) remains significant in the literature (Babiak, 2010; Maignan, 2001; Turker, 2009).

A large body of prior work has investigated the positive impact of CSR on economic benefits such as corporate financial performance (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001), social benefits such as corporate social performance (Greening & Turban, 2000; Wood, 1991), and marketing strategies (McAllister & Ferrell, 2002; Sen et al., 2006). Additionally, scholars have shown that employees want to work

for a socially responsible organization and that CSR can be used a strategic tool for attracting a quality workforce (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Greening & Turban, 2000). These findings indicate that more organizations have adopted a stakeholder-centric approach that reflects a commitment to both, social responsibilities and acknowledging stakeholder interests (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Sen et al., 2006).

Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport

The prevalence of academic interest in corporate social responsibility has been paralleled by increased empirical work by sport management scholars to the sport industry (e.g., Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walker & Kent, 2009). Sport management scholars have shown an interest in better understanding the unique role of CSR in the sport industry (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walker & Kent, 2009). The unique context in which sport operates, has highlighted a number of factors that positively affect the nature and scope of CSR efforts including: mass media distribution, appeal to youth, promote positive health impacts, and encourage social interaction (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). As a result, CSR has been examined in a number of sport contexts, such as professional sport (e.g., Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; McGowan & Mahon, 2009; Sheth & Babiak, 2010) and collegiate athletics (Hazzaa & Yoh, 2018; Ko, Rhee, Kim, & Kim, 2014; Polite, Waller, Trendafilova, & Spearman, 2011). Utilizing a stakeholder perspective, the sport management literature has examined the relationship between CSR and consumers (e.g., Ko et al., 2014; Walker & Kent, 2009) and fans (e.g., Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2016; Walker et al., 2011).

Sport organizations have acknowledged and taken a similar route as traditional corporations and increased CSR in order to improve their image and draw support from fans (McGowan & Mahon, 2009; Walker & Kent, 2009). A number of scholars contend that the power of sport as economic and social entities cannot be ignored (Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Sheth & Babiak, 2010). As sports' presence and influence continues to grow, so does its ability to impact communities in a positive way (McGowan & Mahon, 2009). However, a negative event can become widely publicized to fans and consumers. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) emphasized the importance for organizations to consider consumers' awareness, attitudes, and attributions towards CSR. This is because consumers are a critical stakeholder group that can significantly influence organizational decisions. Similarly, employees also represent an important stakeholder group since they contribute to decision-making and achieving organizational goals (Du et al., 2010; Turker, 2009). The sport industry receives extensive media coverage and support from their local communities. As a result, these organization serve as important facilitators for implementation and practice of CSR initiatives (Babiak, 2010; Godfrey, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

A prominent similarity between corporations and sport organizations is their primary responsibility to maximize profit for shareholders. Aside from that, entities in sport have prioritized other responsibilities, most notably philanthropy and community involvement. While sport teams have been involved in their local communities for decades, little is known about the relevance, importance, and impact of socially responsible practices to the organizations themselves, to the individuals they intend to benefit, and to the league governing bodies (Babiak, 2010). CSR initiatives may serve as

a means of strengthening stakeholder relationships (Sen et al., 2006) and encourage sport teams to devote greater resources and profits to those efforts.

A major focus of CSR in the sport literature includes investigations of both initiatives, theories, and levels of sport. Previous studies have examined motivational factors for sport organizations' to engage in CSR initiatives (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009), impact of CSR on sport consumers (Walker & Kent, 2009), influence of CSR on donor behaviors (Ko et al., 2014), the importance of CSR in professional sport (Babiak, 2010; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; McGowan & Mahon, 2009; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Walker & Kent, 2009) and college athletics (Hazzaa & Yoh, 2018; Ko et al., 2014; Polite et al., 2011).

There has been support for the notion that CSR can provide benefits to sport organizations. Irrespective of intention, "the nature of sport lends itself to being uniquely positioned to influence society in general and communities in particular" (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007, p. 48). Sport leagues and teams have taken actions beyond societal expectations in recent years to address perception and image concerns (McGowan & Mahon, 2009). CSR activities are typically geared towards a variety of social issues such as drug use, role modeling, racism, and gender inequality (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). The types and focus of community outreach programs vary considerably among teams (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). Factors include, but not limited to, sport league, local community, and stakeholders. From the "star power" of the athletes, to the connections sport teams have with their local communities, and fan support (Walker & Kent, 2009), the sport context offers unique attributes that warrant further investigation for the role of CSR. As a result, organizations should continue to find ways to communicate their CSR

initiatives to relevant stakeholder groups so that their efforts can have a positive impact on stakeholders' perceptions.

Theoretical Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility

The rise of corporate social responsibility (CSR) research has resulted in a number of proposed theories to help explain CSR along with its antecedents and outcomes (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001). Relevant theories that explain and apply to CSR vary depending on the nature of the study and what is being investigated. For these reasons, scholars have attempted to build or apply existing theories to best explain how CSR is deployed at the institutional, organizational, and individual levels. Given that this study focuses on employees at the individual level, a review of stakeholder theory is explained.

Stakeholder Theory

The link between CSR and stakeholders is strong and is treated as a foundation for the theory of an organization (Godfrey, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Turker, 2009). One of the significant benefits of this association is the ability for CSR to strengthen relationships with major stakeholder groups, such as consumers and employees (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Sen et al., 2006; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Turban & Greening, 1997). This is because of the reciprocal relationship between organizations and stakeholders. The general premise is that organizations should use their power in a legal, ethical, and responsible manner (Davis, 1973; Wood, 1991), and stakeholders reciprocate with actions that benefit the organization.

A stakeholder can be described as “a group or individual who can affect or be affected by the actions or performance of the objectives of the firm” (Freeman, 1984, p. 46).

Stakeholder theory implies that organizations must satisfy a number of constituents, including employees, customers, and local community organizations because doing so can influence organizational outcomes (Freeman, 1984). Stakeholder theory is based on the premise of “who matters to an organization and to whom should organizations pay attention to” (Mitchell et al., 1997). In other words, this view surmises that apart from maximizing shareholder returns, entities need to consider other non-financial groups because doing so can yield significant outcomes as well. This is due in large part to the fact that firms have an obligation to meet and satisfy stakeholder demands (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001), which in turn is a component of CSR. An organization that adopts a stakeholder perspective encourages economic and social goals that reflect Carroll’s (1979) construct of CSR (Freeman, 1984). Stakeholder theory proposes that CSR should require organizations to consider the interests of all stakeholders in deploying their profit-directed activities (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). For these reasons, scholars contend that a natural fit exists between an organization’s CSR activities and its stakeholders (Carroll, 1991).

Although Freeman (1984) is commonly regarded as the creator of stakeholder theory, other scholars have contributed substantial theoretical advancements. For instance, Mitchell et al. (1997) introduced their theory of stakeholder salience which set forth specific criteria for identifying stakeholders. The authors suggested three criteria for stakeholder attributes: *power* to influence, *legitimacy* of relationship, and *urgency* of the stakeholder’s claim. These three attributes are used to identify stakeholders and presence, or absence of these attributes should influence a response to the stakeholder.

Socially responsible activities have become an effective tool for strengthening multiple relationships between stakeholders (e.g., investors, suppliers, customers, employees, and governments) and organizations (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Du et al., 2015; Ko et al., 2014; Polite et al., 2011; Sen et al., 2006; Walker & Kent, 2009). Carroll (1991) observed that “there is a natural fit between the idea of corporate social responsibility and an organization’s stakeholders” (p. 43). He also argued in favor of the stakeholder concept (Freeman, 1984) because it focused on organization’s considering specific groups or individuals in its CSR activities. Yet, scholars have called for a narrower definition of who is a stakeholder based on the voluntary or involuntary involvement of a group with a particular organization (Mitchell et al., 1997). Nevertheless, it remains clear that organization’s must continue to understand and meet the needs of its stakeholder groups in order to sustain a competitive advantage (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Numerous scholars have turned to stakeholder theory to better specify and operationally define the concepts of CSR (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). As previously mentioned, a stakeholder is any group or individual who can influence or affect the achievement of a corporation’s objectives or purpose (Freeman, 1984). A major objective of organizations is to balance the conflicting demands placed by stakeholders and the best interests of the entity. However, one could argue that the best interest of stakeholders should also be the best interest for an organization because stakeholders have the power to drive success and profits (Freeman, 1984; Mitchell et al., 1997). For example, in intercollegiate athletics, donors are viewed as an important stakeholder to an athletic department (Ko et al., 2014). Without donor support, athletics

programs might be unable to attract top recruits, build new facilities, or travel to competition. Therefore, organizations might want to acknowledge all stakeholders and adopt a CSR model that strategically plans to utilize resources that address relevant interests and important social issues.

In sport, it can be especially important for organizations to understand the impact or value of each stakeholder group. The uniqueness of the sport environment (Walker & Kent, 2009), coupled with increased exposure (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007), influence sport organizations to “work within a complex set of stakeholder relationships” (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009, p. 723). Within a sport organization, stakeholders can include, but not limited to, athletes, administrators, employees, sponsors, donors, boosters, and fans. Smith and Westerbeek (2007) suggest a stakeholder approach to CSR research should demand that the fullest scope of an organization’s activities be evaluated and analyzed. Babiak and Wolfe (2009) reported that customers, team employees, corporate partners, and other stakeholders of sport organizations are becoming increasingly engaged in CSR. Oftentimes, sport organizations engage in strategically planned CSR activities in an attempt to satisfy the competing demands and interests of stakeholders involved, such as fans, the media, and employees (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). Yet, with all of these competing voices, it is crucial for athletics directors and senior management to not overlook CSR and its potential benefit to their sport organization. Therefore, organizations should consider effective ways to communicate their CSR initiatives so that those efforts can result in positive stakeholders’ perceptions.

Employee-Focused Corporate Social Responsibility

Extant literature on CSR has predominantly focused on the macro level by examining the impact of institutional and organizational activities (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Despite the growth of scholarship on CSR, the internal dimension of CSR remains largely nascent in the literature (Aguilera et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2013). Employee-focused CSR, or otherwise known as micro-CSR (Glavas, 2016), refers to organizations having a responsibility to other stakeholder groups, specifically employees. This area of research indicates that CSR is generally beneficial for employees and organizations (e.g., Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Rupp et al., 2013; Stawiski, Deal, & Gentry, 2010). Turker (2009) identified that micro-CSR is closely related to the psychological and physical environment of employees. It has been hypothesized among scholars that employee CSR-outcome relationships can create positive business value (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Indeed, scholars have called for an increase in conceptual and empirical studies related to the individual level (i.e., employee) of CSR (Aguilera et al., 2007; Glavas, 2016; Rupp et al., 2013).

Micro corporate social responsibility (CSR) considers the practices of an organization that are related to psychological and physiological well-being of its workforce (Brammer et al., 2007; Shen & Zhu, 2011; Turker, 2009). Internal initiatives directed at employees include respect for basic human rights, diversity, employee health and safety, training programs, and work-life balance (Kim, Lee, et al., 2010; Shen & Zhu, 2011; Turker, 2009). Building on the broad and diverse definitions of CSR (Carroll, 1999), and adopted by others (e.g., Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Rupp, 2011), CSR is 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. 855). Defining CSR in this way allows for the focus on stakeholder well-being and related to one's self-concept. As Korschun, Bhattacharya, and Swain (2014) described, CSR "reflects a core belief rather than an attitude about a particular social issue" (p. 24).

Past scholars have noted that an organization's social responsibility efforts can indeed influence a variety of positive employee outcomes, including their behavior, attitudes, and happiness (Aguilera et al., 2007; Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008; Wood, 1991). Along those same lines, Rupp et al. (2006) argued that employees' perceptions of CSR trigger emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral responses that are beneficial to their organization. For instance, employees felt more inspired to work hard and satisfied with their jobs when their employer supported social causes (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2008). This emerging area of literature suggests that CSR is generally beneficial for employees and organizations (Morgeson et al., 2013). For instance, scholars have found empirical support that organizations engaging in CSR are likely to have employees who engage in more prosocial behaviors (Fu, Ye, & Law, 2014; Sharma & Sharma, 2015), report greater satisfaction with their job (Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008), and perceived as more attractive places to work by prospective job applicants (Greening & Turban, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1997).

As previously mentioned, the link between CSR and stakeholders is especially strong in the workplace. Employees' perceptions of CSR have been significantly associated with positive workplace outcomes such as commitment (Aguilera et al., 2007; Brammer et al., 2007; Turker, 2009), satisfaction (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Glavas &

Kelly, 2014), meaningful work (Aguilera et al., 2007; Bauman & Skitka, 2012), and engagement (Glavas & Piderit, 2009; Mirvis, 2012). Glavas and Kelly (2014) reported that CSR positively affects workplace behaviors and attitudes. Relatedly, scholars found that prospective employees more strongly identify with an organization when they perceive an organization as more socially responsible (Turban & Greening, 1997). These findings indicate that understanding the impact of CSR on employees can inform organizations to effectively design, implement, and communicate CSR (Morgeson et al., 2013). It also makes evident that more empirical evidence is needed to identify additional factors that affect those perceptions of CSR as well as the outcomes.

Although research related to employees and CSR has accelerated (Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008), the processes through which employee perceptions of CSR impact their work attitudes and behaviors remains somewhat unclear (Glavas & Kelly, 2014). Mitchell et al. (1997) explained that organizations must continually understand who matters to them and which stakeholder groups warrant increased attention. This strategy involves a methodological approach by acknowledging and better understanding their stakeholders. According to Wood (1991), perceptions of CSR largely depends on an individual's personal values, beliefs, interests, as well as the organization and its CSR efforts. Morgeson et al. (2013) suggested managers should be progressively concerned with how to integrate or align CSR with employee initiatives because of their influence on organizational goal attainment. In addition, Rodrigo and Arenas (2008) indicate the importance for managers and decision makers to recognize the role employees play in attaining a competitive advantage through CSR. Understanding how CSR influences employees' perceptions can be of great benefit to an organization. In particular, the

potentially positive relationship to psychological and behavioral outcomes as a result of such CSR endeavors.

There is increasingly strong evidence that CSR can have a positive impact on employees' perceptions (Lee et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2013). However, for this to occur, employees must be aware of the CSR initiatives (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). For example, Sen et al. (2006) found that employees identify better with their organization after becoming aware of their employers CSR activities. Stawiski et al. (2010) found that CSR enhances employees' perceptions of the company. Restated, when a company has CSR initiatives in place, employees may feel more committed to the organization.

Previous findings also indicate that employees were inspired to work harder and felt more satisfied with their job when their organization supports social causes they care about (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). Failure to show a commitment to helping the community could result in negative perception (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004), and in some instances profit loss (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Despite these concerns, engaging in socially responsible practices has shown to be beneficial to employees (e.g., Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Brammer et al., 2007; De Roeck et al., 2014; Du et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2014; Jones, 2010; Lee et al., 2013; Rupp & Mallory, 2015; Stawiski et al., 2010).

Positive Organizational Behavior

Positive organizational behavior (POB) is an area of study rooted in positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and positive organizational scholarship (POS) (Luthans, 2002a). POB exemplifies a micro-level view of organizational attributes (Luthans & Youssef, 2004) and emphasizes the positive characteristics and attributes

inherent to individuals by allowing for the achievement of full potential (Cameron et al., 2003). Luthans' (2002b) conceptualization of POB parallels organizational behavior and has been viewed as a complimentary theory. He defined POB as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (p. 59). This definition reflects a strengths-based approach and focus on an individual level. POB studies have primarily been conducted at the micro-level of analysis, with the focus being individuals and their ability at developing positive psychological qualities.

The study of POB is focused on understanding the measurable positive psychological abilities of employees. Organizations should desire to create a workplace that not only maximizes performance but also fosters employee happiness (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). As suggested by Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007), there are a number of other potential human strengths that may also be important in the research on POB. One of those other strengths and of importance to this study is that of gratitude, which is a feeling of thankfulness directed towards others (Grant & Gino, 2010).

Positive organizational behavior (POB) differentiates from other forms of positive psychology in that it focuses on psychological resource capabilities that are state-like, which means POB is amenable to change and development (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Luthans, 2002b; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Luthans (2002b) argued this distinction is what makes POB different from other positively-oriented theories in that it measures a person's current feelings or response to something and open to development. Based on the given criteria and distinguishable characteristics, the four positive

psychological capabilities that best reflect POB are hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, and optimism (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

These state-like capabilities inherent to human functioning are collectively known as psychological capital (PsyCap). As previously mentioned, PsyCap is comprised of positive states that fit within the inclusion criteria of POB. It is important to differentiate positive states from positive traits, which tend to be more stable as opposed to state-like capabilities (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). These psychological capabilities, known collectively as PsyCap, have been linked to many positive employee outcomes such as employee development, well-being, and performance (Avey et al., 2010; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, 2002b; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Positive Organizational Behavior in Sport

Although studies have examined issues related to POB in many industrial sectors (Luthans, 2002b), research endeavors in sport are limited. This appears to be rather surprising given that the sport industry is a people and service-oriented industry (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017). The unique nature of sport creates a complex management environment for sport organizations (Taylor et al., 2008). Over the years, the sport industry has become characterized with globalization, commercialization, and competitiveness (Taylor et al., 2008). Consequently, adopting POB to the sport workplace is necessary to provide a more holistic view of employees' optimal functioning in sport organizations.

Because of this variability, Taylor et al. (2008) believed that successful sport organizations must rely on human resources as an approach to effectively manage

employees, despite the sector or size. Indeed, sport organizations vary greatly in size and scope throughout the three sectors (Hoye, Smith, Westerbeek, Stewart, & Nicholson, 2005; Taylor et al., 2008): (1) public sector, (2) non-profit sector, and (3) the professional sector. With that being said, it is also important to pay attention to factors associated with optimal sport employees' psychological well-being and functioning in sport organizations (Kim, Perrewé, et al., 2017; Wagstaff et al., 2012). Only a handful of studies have investigated the psychology of sport employees (Kim et al., 2019; Kim, Perrewé, et al., 2017; Todd & Harris, 2009), coaches (Kim, Kim, & Reid, 2017) and student-athletes (Kim, Kim, & Lee, 2020). In a recent conceptual study, Kim, Perrewé, et al. (2017) contributed to POB theory by applying the concept to sport employees and extending the sport management literature on how sport organizations can effectively improve their workforce. The authors argued that it is essential for sport management scholars to devote attention to the positive aspects of employees and their well-being in sport organizations with a POB approach. More recently, Oja, Kim, Perrewé, and Anagnostopoulos (2019) introduced an updated conceptual model explaining how authenticity and PsyCap can contribute to sport employees' well-being.

Psychological Capital

Psychological capital (PsyCap) emphasizes the psychological growth of individuals and rooted in POB with early origins from positive psychology (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). Specific inclusion criteria for POB should be grounded in (1) theory, research, and valid measurement, (2) be state-like and open to development, and (3) lead to performance (Luthans, 2002a, 2003). Luthans and Youssef (2004) proposed PsyCap from POB and geared towards human resource management.

Four psychological capacities have been found to meet the inclusion criteria for PsyCap both conceptually (Luthans, 2002a; Luthans & Youssef, 2004) and empirically (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007). Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007) defined PsyCap as:

“an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success” (p. 3).

Although four distinct constructs, PsyCap has shown support as a higher-order core construct that integrates the inclusion criteria of POB (Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). In other words, the effect of managing overall PsyCap on performance and attitudinal outcomes is expected to be larger than the individual psychological capacities of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience that comprise it (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). Also referred to as the HERO model (Luthans & Youssef, 2004), when each distinct construct is collectively present it provides individuals with increased motivation to accomplish tasks and goals (Luthans, 2002b). This is because overall PsyCap emphasizes “what you are becoming,” thus representing the possible attainment of reaching one’s potential and capability to be developed and amenable to change. The following section provides a definition and discussion of each of the four positive psychological capacities of POB.

Hope

Hope has traditionally represented a broad concept in human behavior (Luthans, 2002b). Much of Snyder's (1994) work has focused on how people distance themselves from mistakes and failures. This work originated in excuse-making research and excuse theory (Rand & Cheavens, 2009). He instead examined the other end of the spectrum in terms of how people establish directed goals and move closer to what they do want (Rand & Cheavens, 2009). More broadly, hope is the ability to have an optimistic view of future outcomes (Snyder, 2000). To this end, Snyder (1989) established hope as the "other side" of the excuse-making spectrum. Luthans (2002a) later added that "hope definitely meets the inclusion criteria for POB" (p. 62-63).

Snyder and his colleagues conceptualized a clear understanding of hope, which is grounded in the positive psychology movement and builds upon theory. Specifically, hope is defined as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (1) agency (goal-directed energy) and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). Agency, or otherwise known as willpower, is the ability to set realistic, yet challenging goals. Pathways have been described as waypower, which is the capability to generate alternate paths in order to accomplish goals (Snyder, 2000). Simply put, Snyder referred to being hopeful as believing you can set goals, figuring how to achieve them, and motivating yourself to accomplish them.

Snyder's (1994) cognitive model of hope includes goals, pathways, and agency. The first component of the hope model focuses on goals, which Snyder (1994) postulated as the foundation on which hope theory was built. According to Snyder (2000), the two

basic types of goals are “approach goals” (e.g., receiving a work promotion) or “avoidance goals” (e.g. not wanting to get laid off at work). The two types of goals reflect a positive outcome or negative outcome in which both are tied to the desired or inevitable outcome. The second component of hope involves pathways, which refers to goal achievement. Pathways can be thought of as the connection between setting a goal and attaining a goal. Individuals with high hope will likely develop multiple or alternative pathways to goals, especially when encountering potential barriers (Snyder et al., 1991). The motivational process towards the ability to use pathways to reach desired goals is known as agency thinking. This third component to hope theory involves the use of positive self-talk and other supportive behaviors. Agency thinking is important when an individual experiences difficulty because it helps apply the necessary motivation to generate alternative pathways towards goal pursuit (Snyder, 1994). In the workplace setting, hopeful employees tend to be autonomous thinkers, enjoys the challenge of certain goals, values the progression towards those goals, and strives to attain those goals by creating alternative pathways when necessary (Luthans, 2002a; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007).

Hope theory is based on the idea that humans are goal-directed in their behavior (Rand & Cheavens, 2009). In other words, when individuals want to do something, they will tend to think of how to get there. Leaders and their employees can enhance their own levels of hope by: (a) creating opportunities for involvement and autonomous decision making, (b) establishing appropriately structured reward systems that reinforce autonomy, competence, persistence, and ingenuity; and (c) recognizing employees for the unique contributions they make to the team, group, and organization as a whole (Luthans,

Youssef, et al., 2007). Such practical recommendations may allow organizations to leverage hope in the workplace as a competitive advantage. Overall, Luthans (2002b) acknowledges the POB concept of hope has the potential for development and effective management practices moving forward.

Self-Efficacy

Albert Bandura was a notable and influential scholar who articulated the concept of self-efficacy, which originated from social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). In this theory, efficacy operates as state-like and can be developed through several factors. Through the cognitive process, those factors include mastery experiences, vicarious learning, positively oriented feedback, and physiological and psychological arousal (Bandura, 1997, 2000; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacy can be developed and sustained with (a) successful accomplishment of challenging tasks, (b) watching others one perceives to be similar to oneself succeed in a task, (c) through positive persuasion by respected others (e.g., leader, supervisor) and/or feedback in a given area, and (d) by experiencing psychological, physiological, and/or emotional arousal when engaged in a given task or activity (Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Individuals are able to develop PsyCap efficacy (i.e., confidence) by “repeatedly experiencing success in accomplishing the tasks in which efficacy is to be built” (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007, p. 44).

Central to social cognitive theory is the notion that “what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave” (Bandura, 1986, p. 25). Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Shortly thereafter, he conceptualized the

concept to include “judgements of how well one can execute courses of action to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). As previously mentioned, efficacy is state-like which means it is observed as domain specific and varies depending on context or situation (Bandura, 1997). For example, an employee may exhibit high efficacy on a technical report but low efficacy with a creative advertisement project. This dichotomy illustrates the state-like nature of self-efficacy, those factors that influence how efficacy is manifested, and the suitability for inclusion criteria within POB.

Based on theory building and empirical research, self-efficacy is arguably the most widely recognized POB concept and best fits the inclusion criteria (Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). A criterion of PsyCap, Luthans (2002b) suggested that self-efficacy is a human resource strength that has the psychological capacity for development. Otherwise labeled as confidence, self-efficacy beliefs are concerned with inner beliefs that an individual has about their capacity or ability to do something (Bandura, 1986). Within positive psychology, confidence and efficacy have been used interchangeably. It has been strongly emphasized that self-efficacy is the most essential and significant psychological mechanism for positivity (Bandura, 2000). This positive-based belief about self-efficacy falls nicely in line with the POB approach (Luthans, 2002b).

A commonly accepted definition of self-efficacy related to POB research references “an individual’s convictions (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66). Bandura (2000) added that “unless people believe that they can produce desired

effects and forestall undesired ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act” (p. 75). Self-efficacy as a state-like construct, has the ability to be developed and enhanced in all types of jobs within an organization (Luthans, 2002b). Instances of self-efficacy within the workplace may include employees trusting their abilities to accomplish a task, challenging themselves to complete a difficult project, and the self-assurance of achieving their goals.

Resilience

Throughout the course of one’s life, most people are exposed to or experience traumatic or violent events (Bonanno, 2004). The same is true in the work environment where employees will experience negative or stressful situations in their jobs. Understanding how to effectively cope with those challenges and grow as a result is the underlying key to resilience (Masten, 2001). Literature suggests that resilience is common in that almost all individuals exhibit resilient behaviors or patterns. In addition, resiliency can be reached by an array of different pathways and defined in a variety of ways (Bonanno, 2004; Luthans, 2002a; Masten, Cutuli, Herbers, & Reed, 2009). Masten et al. (2009) defined resilience as “patterns of positive adaptation during or following significant adversity or risk” (p. 118).

Resilience is portrayed as one’s ability to generate a positive outcome in the presence of a serious threat or situation (Masten, 2001). However, resiliency also offers implications for practical applications to today’s workplace (Luthans, 2002a). More recently, a growing number of scholars have examined the relationship between resilience and the workplace (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Masten (2001) reasoned that resilience “has profound implications for promoting competence and human capital in individuals and society” (p. 235).

As one of the inclusion criteria to POB, resiliency has emerged from the positive psychology movement (e.g., Luthans, 2002a; Masten, 2001). In POB, Luthans (2002a) defined resilience as “the capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility” (p. 702). Luthans and colleagues later described resilience as “the will to go beyond the normal, to beyond the equilibrium point” (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007, p. 116). An important distinction to this understanding of resilience includes positive occurrences (e.g., job promotion, new job, etc.) from which bouncing back might be necessary in certain situations. For this reason, resiliency is included as a POB capacity and is a state-like construct (Luthans, 2002a). These conceptualizations of resilience reflect a broader view in POB for its focus on learning and growth following adversity, as opposed to a form of recovery (Bonanno, 2004).

Optimism

In his book *Learned Optimism*, Martin Seligman (1998) developed the notion of theoretical optimism and its importance on individual well-being. He refers to the psychological capacity as state-like thus subject to learning and development. Seligman (1998) explains that optimism is an explanatory style in the way people explain happenings in their lives. More specifically, Seligman notes optimism is linked to attribution theory. When people express optimism, it is because they attribute the event or situation to being temporary, specific, and from external causes. On the other hand, people with a pessimistic perspective will attribute an event or situation to being

permanent, pervasive, and internal. Pessimism broadly refers to internalizing negative thoughts, passivity, and social estrangement (Luthans, 2003). An individual's outlook and explanation on events can have an impact on well-being (Seligman, 1998), thus reflecting an important component to daily life.

Scholars have recognized optimism as a major component of POB (Luthans, 2002a) as well as one of the least understood psychological strengths. PsyCap optimism goes beyond just thinking good things will happen. More importantly, optimism “depends on the reasons and attributions one uses to explain why certain events occur, whether positive or negative, past, present, or future” (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007, p. 87). The authors add that PsyCap optimism is an individuals' perceived explanations of positive and negative situations which have been personally encountered. The positive impact of optimism as a state-like construct on human health and wellbeing is well documented (Seligman, 1998). PsyCap optimism should be realistic and flexible; and not take extremes in one's work life (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007).

In the work setting where change and uncertainty is commonplace, optimistic and pessimistic employees vary in their reactions to workplace situations. Optimistic employees are more likely to embrace changes in the workplace and see new opportunities as positive outcomes (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007). They also could have high aspirations, persevere when encountered with difficulties, and exhibit higher morale (Luthans, 2002b). This optimistic approach may be beneficial for a variety of jobs such as media, sales, customer service, and social services (Luthans, 2002b). In the sport work environment, many employees are in positions that involve supervision or responsible with more tasks. Optimists will see the new challenge as an opportunity. Pessimists,

however, will reside in failure or question their ability to perform. Luthans, Youssef et al. (2007) encouraged scholars to investigate the benefits of PsyCap optimism in certain industries where it may be more predominant.

Gratitude

The concept of gratitude has been characterized as both a positive trait and positive state which originated from perspectives in positive psychology and POB research (Emmons & Crumpler, 2000; Emmons & Shelton, 2001; Grant & Gino, 2010; Luthans, 2002b; Wood, Froh, & Geraghty, 2010). Gratitude can be transformational and fuel individuals towards optimal performance (Di Fabio, Palazzeschi, & Bucci, 2017; Fredrickson, 2001). Subsequently, there has been an increased stream of research on gratitude in sport (Chen & Kee, 2008). Scholars have shown that gratitude has a positive influence on athletes' well-being (Chen & Kee, 2008) and sponsorships on consumers (Kim, Smith, & James, 2010).

As an important aspect of positive psychology, gratitude is likely to help promote personal growth and overall well-being (Chen & Kee, 2008). This positive emotion puts an emphasis on and appreciating the positive aspects of life (Grant & Gino, 2010; Michie, 2009; Wood et al., 2010). In the positive psychology framework (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), gratitude is conceived of as an appreciation of all the positive aspects of one's own life (Emmons & Shelton, 2001) and an important factor in understanding human functioning (Emmons & Crumpler, 2000). On a similar note, Emmons and McCullough (2003) found that grateful individuals not only demonstrated more positive mental states (e.g., enthusiastic, determined, attentive), but were also more generous and helpful to others.

McCullough et al. (2002) defined as “a generalized tendency to recognize and respond with grateful emotions to the roles of other people’s benevolence in the positive experiences of outcomes that one obtains” (p. 112). Emmons and McCullough (2003) conveyed gratitude as an adaptive psychological strategy that allows individuals to interpret everyday experiences in a positive manner. Similarly, gratitude refers to an “orientation towards noticing and appreciating the positive ‘in one’s work life’” (Wood et al., 2010, p. 891). Following McCullough et al.’s (2002) recommendation, this study considers gratitude as a disposition that can be enhanced with directed action involving the recognition and response to grateful emotion. People who rate themselves as having a grateful disposition perceived themselves as having more prosocial characteristics, which was expressed by their empathetic and moral behaviors (McCullough et al., 2002).

According to McCullough et al. (2002), there are four facets to a grateful disposition: intensity, frequency, span, and density. Gratitude intensity refers to the idea that individuals with a grateful disposition should feel more intensely grateful than people who are less grateful. Frequency involves the number of times the person experiences gratitude within a period of time. Span refers to the number of events a person feels grateful at a given time. Finally, density considers to the number of persons for which an individual feels grateful, regarding one particular positive outcome.

In the workplace, employees want to work for socially responsible companies (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Mirvis, 2012; Turban & Greening, 1997). Previous studies have affirmed that feelings of gratitude may develop when individuals recognize an organization’s corporate social responsibility (CSR) efforts (McCullough et al., 2002), including consumer responses (Romani et al., 2013). The authors contend CSR can

facilitate the feelings of gratitude through CSR actions upholding or surpassing their desired moral values. By extension, an understanding of gratitude in organizations requires attention to how the organizational context shapes the functions of gratitude itself (Fehr, Fulmer, Awtrey, & Miller, 2017). This focus on the organizational context is necessary given that it influences how individual employees feel, think, and act on regular basis (Fehr et al., 2017). Hence, an explicit consideration of how gratitude transpires, and influences workplace outcomes is important (McCullough et al., 2002).

Gratitude is an emotion that appears to have implications for CSR in the workplace (Andersson et al., 2007; Fehr et al., 2017). CSR can elicit emotional perceptions among employees that involve moral issues and lead to feelings of gratitude (Andersson et al., 2007; Romani et al., 2013). Andersson et al. (2007) demonstrated that employee feelings of gratitude were associated with greater feelings of social responsibility toward their employer. This positive emotion can arise when organizations engage in prosocial actions such as support local causes, community outreach efforts, and philanthropic work.

Job Engagement

In the pursuit of effectively managing human resources, employees can make a critical difference to organizational performance and the attainment of goals (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Hence, managers should understand how engagement can be enhanced in the workplace given the current competitive environment. Job engagement is defined as, “a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related wellbeing” (Bakker & Leiter, 2010, p. 1). Employees’ level of engagement is psychologically enhanced when performing or being entrenched in a job role (Saks, 2006). This is important because

engaged employees are more motivated to expend energy, which provides them with a strong sense of vigor, commitment, and engulfment with their work (Kahn, 1990).

Scholars have demonstrated support for the notion that the more individuals can show of their whole selves at work, the more they will be engaged (Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). It is not surprising then, that so many organizations engage in a wide range of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives (Bhattacharya et al., 2008).

Also, employees report that they want to be engaged in CSR initiatives (Mirvis, 2012).

Within micro-CSR research, scholars have explored the role of employee perceptions of CSR on engagement and found a positive relation (e.g., Du et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2018; Mirvis, 2012; Stawiski et al., 2010).

Organizational Pride

The concept of organizational pride is considered a dynamic psychological force that individuals can experience (Fischer & Tangney, 1995). For the purposes of this study, organizational pride is defined as a pleasurable *self-conscious emotion* reflecting an employee's understanding of his or her organization as socially valued (Mascolo & Fischer, 1995). Pride falls in the domain of self-conscious emotions in that it occurs during periods of self-reflection and self-evaluation (Fischer, & Tangney, 1995).

Moreover, pride is an emotion "generated by appraisals that one is responsible for a socially value outcome or for being a socially valued person" (Mascolo & Fischer, 1995, p. 66). This conceptualization of organizational pride is rooted in existing literature and comprised of two distinct components (e.g., Mascolo & Fischer, 1995). First, it is an emotion in which employees may experience an affective state or disposition. Second, feelings of pride in the workplace relate specifically to employees' pride in the

organization for which they work. From this perspective, pride enhances self-worth and also encourages future behavior that conforms to what is valued (Michie, 2009).

Pride is a focus for the current study because it is considered to be a morally relevant emotion (Fischer & Tangney, 1995). In this sense, pride in one's organization is distinct from happiness in that it involves employees' understanding of their organization as one that creates value and that others acknowledge this value (e.g., Mascolo & Fischer, 1995). Michie (2009) added that organizationally-directed pride is a type of value that organizations create for their internal stakeholders (i.e., employees). It also supports the notion that employees can experience pride as a result of not only their own actions but also the actions of the groups and organizations to which they belong.

The context of sport offers a unique setting to explore the role of pride in the sporting experience. Sport management literature has established a solid foundation for individuals outside the organization, however a clearer focus is needed on the role that emotion might play to those working within sport organizations (Todd & Kent, 2009). This notion is reflected in the passion and excitement surrounding sport (Taylor et al., 2008), which may also be present in employees working in the sport industry. Todd and Harris (2009) added that "the pride of sport employees can be a psychological benefit which leads to increased levels of satisfaction and performance" (p. 379). Moreover, feelings of pride are likely to garner positive feelings about the job (Bandura, 1997).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been identified as an important organizational outcome in organizational behavior literature (Saari & Judge, 2004). This is due in large part to the favorable consequences associated with high levels of employees being satisfied with

their job. One of the most often-used definitions of job satisfaction is by Locke (1969), who defined it as "... a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 309). The experiences from one's job includes all characteristics of the work environment. Moreover, this definition reflects the importance of both affect and cognition. Or as Saari and Judge (2004) put it, "when we think, we have feelings about what we think. Conversely, when we have feelings, we think about what we feel" (p. 396). In other words, job satisfaction depends on the various aspects between the individual and their work.

Scholars have determined a significant and positive relationship exists between employees' psychological capital (PsyCap) and job satisfaction (Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007). In the field of sport management, numerous studies have utilized the concept of job satisfaction to assess various types of stakeholders' (e.g., athletes, coaches, volunteers, and employees) and their experiences (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017; Todd & Harris, 2009; Todd & Kent, 2009).

Summary of Literature Review

The societal transition to more substantial attention of social responsibility has primarily resulted from increased stakeholder demand (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). As a way of building strong and positive relations with stakeholders, CSR may become an effective strategy for organizations. Academic inquiry regarding the impact of CSR on internal stakeholders (i.e., employees) and organizations remains limited, especially in the sport industry. Given that organizational resources can contribute to a competitive advantage, employees can facilitate a way to capitalize on those opportunities through better understanding sport employees' perceptions of CSR. Prior studies have shown support

for this relationship with employees in several industries (e.g., hospitality, healthcare, education, and retail), yet no such relationship has been investigated with employees working in sport.

Still, the relationship between CSR and job attitudes and behaviors is under-researched. With few exceptions, studies have neglected to consider employees' perceptions of CSR as a potential antecedent of job attitudes and behaviors. As a result, what is not well known is the relationship between these variables and the psychological processes underlying or intervening this relationship (Leal et al., 2015). Intent on addressing this gap in the literature, many scholars have called for further examinations of employees' perceptions of CSR (e.g., Aguilera et al., 2007; Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008; Stawiski et al., 2010).

Research Hypotheses

After the review of literature and evaluation of relevant research, the conceptual model and research hypotheses are developed. The conceptual model links sport employees' perceptions of CSR to attitudinal work outcomes (e.g., job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction) through the moderating role of gratitude and mediating role of PsyCap as depicted in Figure 2.

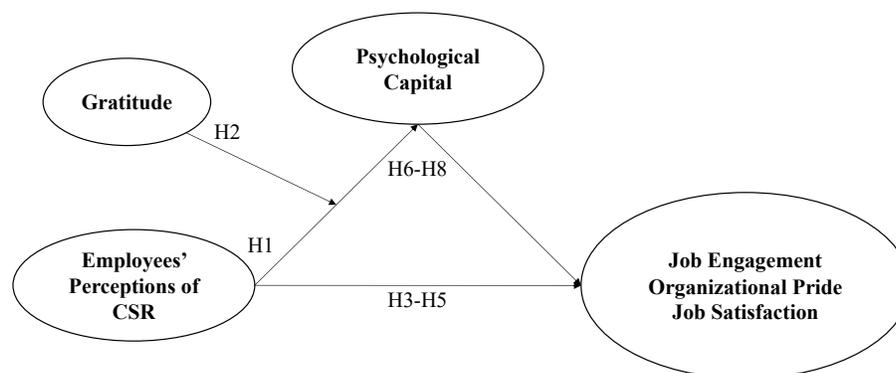


Figure 2. Hypothesized relationships from conceptual model.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Psychological Capital

In the sport management literature, psychological capital has received limited attention (Kim et al., 2019; Kim, Kim, & Reid, 2017; Kim, Perrewé, et al., 2017). Specifically, the relationship between sport employees' perceptions of CSR and PsyCap has not been examined in the context of sport. This is somewhat surprising given that the sport industry is comprised of several different sectors (e.g., public, non-profit, and commercial) and the workforce is a source of competitive advantage where positive workplace functioning is critical to achieve organizational goals (Hoye et al., 2005; Taylor et al., 2008). Therefore, this study hypothesizes a significant direct effect between sport employees' perceptions of CSR and their PsyCap levels in the workplace.

As previously mentioned, one approach that has received little attention through the lens of POB is CSR, specifically at the individual level (Anagnostopoulos & Papadimitriou, 2017). Recent studies have explored the notion that CSR has the opportunity to generate positive employee benefits such as commitment and performance (e.g., Lee et al., 2013; Turban & Greening, 1997). In addition, scholars have found

empirical support that organizations engaging in CSR are likely to have employees who engage in more prosocial behaviors (Fu et al., 2014; Sharma & Sharma, 2015), report greater satisfaction with their job (Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008), and perceived as more attractive places to work by prospective job applicants (Greening & Turban, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1997). Additionally, there have been calls for more research on the antecedents of employees' PsyCap (Avey, 2014).

Although most of the employee-focused CSR has focused on a handful of employee outcomes, scholars recommend that new research extend beyond the dependent variables addressed to date (Aguilera et al., 2007; Glavas, 2016). Among the common employee outcomes that are impacted by employees' perceptions of CSR, PsyCap has gained recent interest from scholars but has not been extensively addressed. Adopting a positive lens through POB can help elucidate certain conditions under which employees thrive at work (Luthans, 2002b; Luthans & Avolio, 2009; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Previous studies have found that perceptions of CSR positively relate to employees' PsyCap (Leal et al., 2012; Leal et al., 2015) and individual psychological resources (Andersson et al., 2007). When working for a socially responsible organization as a meaningful experience, employees are more likely to enhance their PsyCap levels and create a positive workplace (Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007).

While research has found positive influences of employees' perceptions of CSR in many business sectors, empirical support remains limited in the sport industry (Anagnostopoulos & Papadimitriou, 2017; Sheth & Babiak, 2010). Literature linking the effects of CSR to PsyCap has been sparse (Leal et al., 2015). According to Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007), making investments in employees' PsyCap is indicative of the

creative and proactive approaches required for organizations to increase their competitiveness. Accordingly, several studies have established a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and their ability in building individual positive psychological capacities (e.g., Andersson et al., 2007; Glavas, 2016; Romani et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2013). This logic connecting the two constructs rests on the notion that employees enjoy working for socially responsible organizations because it provides them with opportunities for personal and psychological growth (Bhattacharya et al., 2009).

In the sport industry filled with unpredictable work environments, Kim, Perrewé, et al. (2017) reasoned that "PsyCap can be a crucial instrument for long-term growth by producing desirable outcomes and encouraging personal development" (p. 663). However, few studies have offered a systematic consideration for antecedents of PsyCap (Avey, 2014; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). More specifically, past literature is lacking insight into how PsyCap might be influenced by employee perceptions of their organizations' CSR. Micro-CSR emphasizes the individual level of analysis and is guided by a person-centric emphasis (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). Youssef and Luthans (2010) suggested that CSR may influence employees' PsyCap. For example, when sport employees perceive that their organization acts in a socially responsible manner, they are likely to develop higher levels of optimism (e.g., belief that organization will act responsibly and ensure staff stability under hostile environmental conditions) and hope (e.g., develop higher waypower and willpower to reach work goals; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). Employees with positive perceptions of CSR will also be motivated and confident through developing a course of action to reach goals (self-efficacy; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H1 Recreational port employees' perceptions of CSR is positively related to PsyCap.

Moderating Role of Gratitude

The relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and PsyCap is not well-documented in the extant literature (Leal et al., 2015; Youssef & Luthans, 2010). Studies indicate that the relationship between perceived CSR and PsyCap cannot be fully explained without other influencing elements (e.g., Gond et al., 2017). One way to explain the relationship between sport employees' perception of CSR and PsyCap may be the role of gratitude, which has been conceptualized as a positive emotional response (Emmons & McCullough, 2003; McCullough et al., 2002). Gratitude is significant because it has been shown to increase positive relationships, social support, employees' well-being, and can enhance organizational success (Di Fabio et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2010).

As a positive emotion, gratitude can transform individuals and organizations for the better, particularly as it pertains to how this emotion relates to an organizations' socially responsible programs (e.g. CSR; Andersson et al., 2007; Giacalone, Paul, & Jurkiewicz, 2005; Romani et al., 2013). Rupp et al. (2006) suggested that employees' perceptions of CSR can trigger emotional, attitudinal, and behavioral responses that are beneficial to the organization. Likewise, scholars have maintained that gratitude is important in determining whether CSR activities are well-received by employees (Giacalone et al., 2005; Romani et al., 2013). Knowing whether gratitude as a moderator will affect the relationship between CSR and PsyCap has the potential to offer critical

considerations in the implementation of workplace interventions and human resource management policies within the sport sector.

As previously mentioned, this study suggests that specific theoretical mechanisms can help explain the proposed association between CSR and PsyCap. Individuals are predominantly moved by the moral virtue of social agents who do important things (Romani et al., 2013). Among these positive moral emotions, a key role is played by gratitude, where employees appreciate socially responsible efforts by their organizations. Feelings of gratitude increases when an individual perceives that another agent has intentionally acted to improve his or her well-being (Romani et al., 2013). In CSR contexts, employees can perceive benefits by viewing their organizations' social initiatives as aligning with one or more of their moral goals and recognizing such efforts (McCullough et al., 2002). For instance, employees might construe their organizations' focus on ethical, environmental, and social issues, as facilitating their own moral interests in a variety of ways. If sport employees perceive CSR to be a benefit and positive response, then this would suggest that increasing CSR and, by extension, feelings of gratitude, may build up PsyCap which is beneficial during difficult periods of working in sport organizations.

Scholars have found that gratitude is the typical positive moral emotion evoked in response to an organization's moral and virtuous behaviors (Romani et al., 2013). Knowing whether socially responsible actions exist has the potential to offer critical considerations in the implementation of workplace interventions and human resource policies. For example, if employees perceive CSR to be a benefit and positive response, then this would suggest that increasing CSR and, by extension, feelings of gratitude, may

generate PsyCap which is beneficial during difficult periods of working in sport organizations. Beyond this notion, Sheldon and Lyubomirsky (2006) suggested that practicing gratitude can encourage individuals to cope with negative situations by reinterpreting them in a more positive light. For example, a sport employee might reinterpret a stressful work situation as an opportunity to challenge themselves to do a good job. Based on prior research and theory showing the benefits of gratitude in clinical and general contexts (e.g., Emmons & McCullough, 2003), this study proposes similar benefits in a sport workplace setting.

Based on the above rationale, this study proposes that those who are higher in gratitude are more likely to transfer their perceptions of CSR into higher PsyCap than those who are low in gratitude. As such, this study expects that the positive association between perceptions of CSR and PsyCap will be stronger among those who are high in gratitude than those who are low in gratitude. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H2 The positive association between recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR and PsyCap is moderated by gratitude such that the relationship is stronger for recreational sport employees with high gratitude than for recreational sport employees with low gratitude.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Job Engagement

Regarded as an important workplace outcome, organizations are concerned with finding ways to increase employee engagement (Glavas, 2016; Mirvis, 2012; Seivwright & Unsworth, 2016). Highly engaged employees can be thought of as individuals who are attentive and self-efficacious. They are likely to participate in activities outside of the workplace, describe their work as an enjoyable duty, and perceive their work to be fun

(Saks, 2006). Previous studies have found positive relationships between perceptions of CSR and employee engagement (Glavas, 2016; Glavas & Piderit, 2009; Mirvis, 2012). Mirvis (2012) reasoned that CSR appeals to employees, which in turn, influences their engagement. Glavas (2016) proposed that a reason for the positive relationship between CSR and engagement is that employees find greater value congruence and meaningfulness at work. Glavas and Piderit (2009) found that the effect on employee engagement resulting from positive employee perceptions of CSR was strengthened by the importance of CSR to the employee.

Based on previous studies, employees with high perceptions of CSR are more likely to report greater prosocial attitudes such as job engagement. Bhattacharya et al. (2008) suggested that organizations notify employees of CSR activities as a way to increase engagement. Similarly, Luthans (2002b) recommend that employees receiving opportunities for psychological development can also add to engagement in the workplace. It appears that a way to increase engagement is to bring employees closer to their CSR activities (Bhattacharya et al., 2008) or allow them to form perceptions of those employee-directed initiatives (Mirvis, 2012; Stawiski et al., 2010). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H3 Recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR is positively related to job engagement.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Organizational Pride

By bringing employees' attention to events that reinforce the organization's goals, values, and identity (i.e., CSR), managers can cultivate a greater sense of pride among their workforce. In doing so, this pride can make employees not only feel good but also

shape the way in which they view their employer and the ways they interact with co-workers and other stakeholders (Jones, 2010). When employees are proud of the company for which they work, they may be more engaged in the work they do, more loyal to the organization, and more driven to perform at a higher-level. Beyond examining the nature of organizational pride, this study was designed to shed light on the process by which perceptions of CSR can lead to pride.

Such distinctions in organizationally-directed pride may enhance the well-being of organizations' internal (i.e., employees) stakeholders. Scholars suggested that CSR is linked to employee feelings of organizational pride (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Ellemers, Kingma, van de Burgt, & Barreto, 2011). It has also been proposed that pride in the workplace is an asset which is closely linked with employee performance and organizations success (Swanson & Kent, 2017). Pride may also influence positive organizational outcomes such as increased employee loyalty, and helping behavior (e.g., Michie, 2009; Todd & Harris, 2009).

In addressing calls for exploring affective (e.g., pride) responses to CSR (Du et al., 2010), this study can help in better understanding the psychological mechanisms of CSR. One such way entities may generate pride from employees is through favorable perceptions of their organization's CSR. Since CSR is related to positive employee attitudes, they are more likely to exhibit and internalize a stronger sense of pride (Bhattacharya et al., 2008). Although relatively few studies have assessed the association between employees' perceptions of CSR and pride in the workplace (Ellemers et al., 2011), some empirical support does exist for a positive relationship between CSR and

organizational pride (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Swanson & Kent, 2015, 2017). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H4 Recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR is positively related to organizational pride.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most examined employee-level outcomes in the sport management literature (e.g., Kim et al., 2019; Swanson & Kent, 2017; Taylor et al., 2008; Todd & Kent, 2009). In short, another positive employee outcome that is of importance to organizations is job satisfaction. Scholars have found a positive relationship between CSR and employees reporting greater satisfaction with their job (Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Glavas & Kelly, 2014; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008). In other words, job satisfaction is found to be higher in organizations that are perceived to be socially responsible from employees. Lee et al. (2013) contend that a good CSR reputation may indirectly contribute to job satisfaction by invoking positive reactions from stakeholders outside the organization. It would also reason that when employees perceive their organization is supporting them, they may respond more positively through increased job satisfaction (Glavas & Kelly, 2014). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H5 Recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR is positively related to job satisfaction.

Mediating Role of Psychological Capital

From the research model, this study proposes that psychological capital (PsyCap) could represent an underlying mechanism through which corporate social responsibility

(CSR) links to positive attitudes at work (e.g., job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction). By relying on the psychological foundations of CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013), it is necessary to consider PsyCap as a possible mediator in the relationship between sport employees' perceptions of CSR and positive attitudinal outcomes. Mediation is useful when a researcher wants to examine when a predictor affects a dependent variable indirectly through an intervening variable—also known as a mediator (Hayes, 2009; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Moreover, PsyCap is considered an outcome of various relationships and also expected to be a pivotal influencer for several individual and organizational outcomes (Avey et al., 2010; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Sharma & Sharma, 2015). Scholarly work examining the mediating role of PsyCap has been limited, however, this study addresses calls from scholars for additional underlying mechanism through which employee-focused CSR influences positive outcomes (e.g., Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Glavas, 2016; Gond et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2018; Rupp & Mallory, 2015).

With the focus on sport employees' workplace attitudes, this study not only includes job engagement but also organizational pride and job satisfaction as potential outcomes of PsyCap. Only a few sport management scholars have paid attention to factors associated with employees' work experience in sport organizations (e.g., Anagnostopoulos et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2019; Todd & Kent, 2009). The attitudinal outcomes studied in micro-CSR research is rather diverse with the dominant focus on positive workplace outcomes (Gond et al., 2017).

Prior studies have mainly focused on the effect of employees' CSR perceptions on organizational commitment (Brammer et al., 2007; Glavas & Kelly, 2014; Turker, 2009),

job satisfaction (Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008; Youn, Lee, & Lee, 2018), employee engagement (Glavas & Piderit, 2009; Seivwright & Unsworth, 2016). Several studies have also found that CSR can enhance organizational pride (De Roeck, Akremi, & Swaen, 2016), overall justice (De Roeck et al., 2014), and organizational trust (Ko et al., 2014). In addition, CSR is positively related to organizational identification (Jones, 2010) and attractiveness (Greening & Turban, 2000), which leads to employees being proud to work there. These findings indicate that more organizations have adopted a stakeholder-centric approach that reflects a commitment to both, social responsibilities and acknowledging stakeholder interests (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Sen et al., 2006).

The theoretical explanation for PsyCap as the mediator between employees' perceptions of CSR and attitudinal outcomes is described. In the current study, sport employees with higher levels of PsyCap will benefit from their ability to draw on positive psychological strengths to counter obstacles at work, replenish, and ultimately lead to positive consequences in the process of attaining ideal psychological functioning (Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008). According to Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007), self-efficacious and hopeful employees believe they create success in their jobs which leads to feeling satisfaction. Along those same lines, scholars have found a significant and positive relationship between employees' PsyCap and job satisfaction (e.g., Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007). Previous findings indicate that employees were inspired to work harder and felt more satisfied with their job when their organization supports social causes they care about and that impact the community (Bhattacharya et al., 2009).

As previously discussed, there is evidence which suggests employees' perceptions of CSR are positively related to PsyCap (Leal et al., 2012). For one, scholars have shown the important role of CSR in generating individual psychological capacities (e.g., Andersson et al., 2007; Leal et al., 2015; Romani et al., 2013). Second, working for a socially responsible organization can provide employees opportunities for personal and psychological growth (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). Alternatively, PsyCap has shown a positive effect on the job-related outcomes and facilitating prosocial attitudes (Avey, Wernsing, et al., 2008; Sharma & Sharma, 2015). A great deal of research has also focused on examining the direct relationships between PsyCap and workplace outcomes. With regard to the mediating role of PsyCap in organizational pride, De Roeck et al. (2014) argued that employees are more likely to feel pride of membership when they believe external stakeholders associate with a social cause.

Although no studies have analyzed the mediating role of PsyCap in the CSR-outcome relationship, some recent empirical findings designate a scenario likely exists. For example, Leal et al. (2015) showed that employees' perceptions of CSR were positively related to PsyCap. Consistent with current findings, employees with developed PsyCap are more likely to be satisfied and happy with their jobs (Avey et al., 2010; Larson & Luthans, 2006). Gond et al. (2017) outlined a number of attitudinal outcomes that have direct effects on employees' perceptions of CSR. Therefore, to test the mediating roles of PsyCap in increasing employees' job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H6 PsyCap mediates the relationship between recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR and job engagement.

- H7 PsyCap mediates the relationship between recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR and organizational pride.
- H8 PsyCap mediates the relationship between recreational sport employees' perceptions of CSR and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter three explains the methodology and various research methods used in order to address the purpose of this study. This chapter is meant to detail the research design, participants, procedures, and research instruments of the study. It also summarizes the pilot study that was conducted to confirm the reliability of the relevant scales to the current context. This is followed by details about the how the data were analyzed, and the specific statistical tests performed. Finally, a brief summary of the salient points of the study are included at the end of this chapter.

The three-fold purpose is to: (1) provide a conceptual framework of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and positive organizational behavior (POB) in sport by incorporating micro-CSR at the individual level of analysis as an antecedent, including both predictors and outcomes of psychological capital (PsyCap), (2) examine employees' perceptions of CSR on PsyCap through the moderating role of gratitude, and (3) test the mediating role of PsyCap for employees' job satisfaction, organizational pride, and job engagement.

Research Design

In order to select an appropriate design, a thorough understanding of the primary objectives of the study and proper information is necessary (Andrew, Pederson, & McEvoy, 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2004). In line with the purpose and intentions of

this study, the research design can be classified as descriptive and predictive research. Descriptive research examines the attributes and features of the variables studied (Andrew et al., 2011). Predictive research refers to the likelihood that specific conditions may lead to expected results (Andrew et al., 2011). This study is descriptive in that it builds on existing literature to describe how sport employees perceive CSR. It also reflects predictive research by attempting to explain how favorable perceptions of CSR can generate positive psychological capacities and relevant attitudes.

The next component when selecting a research design is determining the type of data (qualitative and quantitative) which best reflects the main purpose of the study. Qualitative research seeks to answer questions through thick and rich description and narrative (Andrew et al., 2011). Quantitative research primarily uses numerical data to answer questions or test hypotheses (Andrew et al., 2011). Within quantitative methods, a specific research design determines how numerical data is collected. For instance, a nonexperimental design does not manipulate any of the variables, and instead explores the relationships between variables (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorenson, 2010). This type of design typically focuses on correlational and survey research, which refers to the relationship between variables and collecting information on a certain population (Andrew et al., 2011; Ary et al., 2010).

A quantitative approach was selected because this study seeks to utilize statistical analyses to test the theoretical model and research hypotheses. Using numerical cross-sectional survey data, the association among variables were examined in order to identify potential causal relationships. As such, this study employed a quantitative, nonexperimental research design using cross-sectional survey data to assess the potential

moderating effect of gratitude and mediating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between recreational sport employees' perceptions of their organization's CSR activities and their attitudinal outcomes (e.g., job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction).

The goal of testing a theoretically based model of psychological and attitudinal outcomes associated with micro-CSR was for the findings to be applicable across numerous organizations in the recreational sport context. With this focus in mind, participants were selected from a relatively random sample of employees working for recreational sport organizations in the United States such that the generalizability of the results (i.e., external validity) would be robust.

Participants

The last component of the research design that is important to discuss relates to the selection of participants. According to Andrew et al. (2011), the researcher must define the population in order to select a sample based upon a particular set of criteria. In this study, the population of interest was employees working for recreational sport organizations. The types of organizations that fit this inclusion criteria were based on the sport sector framework developed by Hoye et al. (2005). As such, this was accomplished using the National Intramural Recreational Sports Association (NIRSA) and Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) directories, which lists all member organizations and chapter branches along with current full-time staff members, respectively. These types of organizations were chosen based on their missions of providing recreational sport programming and services on a community level.

Similar to many industry sectors, the scope and size of sport organizations varies considerably (Taylor et al., 2008). Sport organizations can range from small locally based volunteer clubs that have no paid employees, to medium-sized organizations with both paid staff and volunteers, to multinational sport organizations with a global workforce (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017; Taylor et al., 2008). In delineating these vast differences, Hoye et al. (2005) classified sport into three sectors: the public sector, non-profit sector, and professional or commercial sector. Examples of sport organizations in the public sector include the sport and recreation branches of local, state/provincial, and national governments (e.g., city recreation departments), and government-funded organizations that support such areas as elite athlete or coach development (e.g., national sports institute). The non-profit sector includes sport organizations such as community-based sport clubs (e.g., local golf or rugby club), as well as regional and national governing bodies (e.g., state or national sport associations; USA Baseball). The professional sectors include professional sport teams and their governing leagues (e.g., Golden State Warriors and the National Basketball Association (NBA)), sport apparel and equipment manufacturers (e.g., Nike, Under Armour), and sport facilities (e.g., Rose Bowl, USA; Wembley Stadium, UK). One important distinction that Hoye et al. (2005) makes in the sport sectors framework is that they do not operate in isolation, but rather there is significant overlap.

While the professional sport industry is a global enterprise, a dearth of literature exists in relation to understanding micro-CSR and employee functioning in the recreational sport work environment. This industry is comprised of recreational, sporting, and fitness facilities geared towards enhancing individuals' overall well-being. At the

community level, some of them include, but not limited to, collegiate recreation departments, YMCAs, commercial fitness centers, and sports clubs. Within each of these service-oriented facilities, individuals may find many different recreational activities and sport-specific programming. Therefore, the heterogenous sample consisted of current employees from 174 randomly sampled organizations from collegiate recreation departments and YMCA regional branches.

Data Collection Procedures

An online survey questionnaire was used as the singular mode of data collection. Prior to data collection, approval was granted from the University of Northern Colorado's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The approval from IRB is necessary to ensure that the research study complies with ethical research standards that appropriately protect the rights and safety of the research participants (Appendix B). After approval was obtained, data collection began through an online survey created with Qualtrics survey software. Qualtrics is an online data collection service that enables participants to complete a survey electronically through a secure and anonymous web link.

The survey was accessed using login credentials provided by the University of Northern Colorado and from the researcher's personal computer that is password protected in order to ensure confidentiality. The participants of the target population were recruited by retrieving email addresses from each staff directory page found on official websites. Follow up reminder emails were sent in consecutive 7-day increments and thereafter for three consecutive weeks in order to increase responses. These messages served as reminders to encourage participation and notify prospective participants when the survey link would expire and no longer be accessed.

Emails were sent directly to potential participants from the researchers personal account that fit the previously mentioned inclusion criteria. The initial introductory email contained a brief introduction about the purpose of the study and an invitation to participate in the study using a UNC-sponsored anonymous survey link that was generated from Qualtrics. Potential participants were notified in the initial email that their participation is completely anonymous and if they chose to participate, the survey link leaded them to an electronic informed consent form. When the survey link was first opened, participants were presented with the official IRB approved informed consent letter. This letter outlined the nature of the study, involvement of participants, and a statement that participation in the survey is completely voluntary and are allowed to stop for any reason at any time. For those that clicked continue to proceed to the beginning of the survey, this action indicated informed consent. The survey consisted of items for six main constructs (e.g., perceived CSR, PsyCap, gratitude, job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction) as well as demographic information questions (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, tenure). To reduce the potential presence of common method bias, all items for the six main constructs were randomized within the survey (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2000). The estimated time to complete the survey was approximately 15 to 20 minutes based on previous trial runs with colleagues to check for accurate spelling and estimated completion times.

One of the potential disadvantages of using an online survey is that respondents cannot be monitored and may respond to items in a careless manner. As a way of detecting participant fatigue and screening out inattentive responses, Meade and Craig (2012) recommend employing several techniques. One of which is including a small

number of “special” items that are unrelated to the entire survey in order to ensure respondents are paying attention to the questions asked. These “special” items would have only one correct answer and the endorsement of an incorrect response option suggests that the participant is either not paying attention or is not taking the study seriously. Given the nature and intended length of the proposed survey, the main survey included one item recommended by Meade and Craig (2012), which is “I am currently using a computer to answer this survey.” This item was mixed in with the measure of perceived CSR because of its importance to the dissertation study. Participants who incorrectly responded to the careless response test item were filtered out from the final sample.

For the purposes of this study, a *priori* power analysis was performed in order to determine the appropriate sample size to target before the study was conducted. Given traditional response rates of less than 20% for online surveys (Nulty, 2008), the target was to collect at least 2,000 employee email addresses.

Pilot Study

Before the final survey or questionnaire is completed and sent out to prospective participants, it is useful to conduct a pilot study to determine if the items are measuring the information that is needed for the main study. As Baker (1994) argued, “a pilot study is often used to pre-test or try out a research instrument” (p. 182-183). Similarly, pilot studies can be used as a “small scale version or trial run in preparation for a major study” (Polit, Beck, & Hungler, 2001, p. 467). They can also be used to ensure proper use of a research instrument and that the data obtained is consistent and reliable (Ary et al., 2010). Accordingly, a pilot study was completed in October 2018 with the main purpose of

testing previously used survey instruments, which were used for the main study because of their reliability with a similar sample in the sporting context.

The United States Golf Association (USGA) recently began a new partnership with 59 regional golf associations to enhance the golfer experience at the state and local levels (USGA, 2018). In addition, these organizations aim to provide golf-related services to members and operate as non-profit entities. Data were collected from employees representing regional golf associations that are affiliated with the USGA. This population was selected to test several of the variables because the characteristics of this sport sector are similar to the targeted sample of the main study (e.g., community non-profit sport employees).

An online Qualtrics survey was created and email contacts were obtained from all 59 executive directors working for regional golf associations. Out of the 60 contacts, all but four did not respond. Two executive directors declined for their golf association to participate. Of the remaining associations that agreed to participate, a survey link was distributed which resulted in an available sample of 471 individuals. After two reminder emails were sent in consecutive weeks, a total of 198 participants opened the survey link. After removal of missing data and incomplete surveys, 120 complete and usable responses were analyzed for descriptive statistics, reliability, and correlations. The final sample resulted in a response rate of 17%.

Following data collection, the internal reliability of all research instruments was examined using Cronbach's alpha. The recommended lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Items across all scales surpassed the .70 threshold, ranging from .75 to .92, indicating adequate internal reliability among the variables. More

specifically, the reliability estimates for the constructs that were used in the main study were calculated as .85 (CSR), .92 (PsyCap), .75 (job engagement), and .82 (job satisfaction).

A Pearson product correlation coefficient was also computed to explore the relationships among the group of variables. All correlations between CSR, PsyCap, job engagement, and job satisfaction were significant at the .01 level. For example, employees' perceived CSR correlated significantly with PsyCap ($r = .41$), job engagement ($r = .63$), and job satisfaction ($r = .55$). In addition, PsyCap was significantly correlated with job engagement ($r = .62$) and job satisfaction ($r = .61$). In sum, the purpose of this pilot study was to administer surveys with several key variables to a representative sample of sport employees that were similar to those sampled for the main study.

Instruments

This section outlines all of the variables that were utilized in this study and included in the online Qualtrics survey (Appendix A). This section provides a general description of each measure, several sample items, and information on Cronbach's alpha reliability from previous studies. Demographic items were also collected for the purpose of obtaining information about participants' employer organization (i.e., sport sector), participants' tenure with their current organization, gender, age, ethnicity, and department. All demographic questions were at the end of the survey and items related to the variables were randomly distributed in order to avoid fatigue bias (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The following is a description of all measures that were included in the questionnaire.

Perceived internal corporate social responsibility. Utilizing a stakeholder approach, six items developed by Turker (2009) were used to assess perceived internal corporate social responsibility (CSR) directed towards employees. This six-item scale refers to action their current organization is taking to meet and satisfy its employees in the workplace through a CSR lens. In order to better fit the context of this study, the term “company” was replaced in all items with “organization” in order to better reflect the participants who work in sport and recreation organizations. A sample item is “Our [organization] implements flexible policies to provide a good work and life balance for its employees.” Another item is “Our [sport organization] encourages its employees to participate in voluntarily activities.” Cronbach’s alpha was calculated as .88 in the original scale development study (Turker, 2009). The pilot study reported a reliability estimate of .85 among a sample of regional golf association employees.

Gratitude. The Gratitude Questionnaire-6 (GQ-6) developed by McCullough et al. (2002) was used to assess employee gratitude. This measure is a 6-item self-report questionnaire (two items reverse coded) designed to uncover individual differences with inclination to experience gratitude in daily life. Sample items include “I feel thankful for what I have received in life” and “long amounts of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone.” Participants rated each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), and scores were averaged with higher scores indicating higher levels of the variable. Previous studies have shown acceptable Cronbach’s alpha estimates (McCullough et al., 2002).

Psychological capital. Psychological capital (PsyCap) was measured using the 12-item Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-12) self-rate short form developed

and validated by Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007). This 12-item instrument consists of three items for self-efficacy, four items for hope, two items for optimism, and three items resilience. An example from the self-efficacy scale is the following: “I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company’s strategy.” A sample item from the hope scale is the following: “I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.” An example from the optimism scale is the following: “I always look on the bright side things regarding my job.” Previous studies have repeatedly demonstrated a second-order factor structure (Avey et al., 2010; Kim, Perrewé, et al., 2017; Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007) comprising self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. Each of the four subscales have demonstrated acceptable internal reliability: self-efficacy = .92, optimism = .78, hope = .87, resilience = .83, and overall PCQ = .95 (Avey et al., 2010). Each of the four PCQ subscales were calculated by taking the average of all items in the scale using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Similarly, the overall PsyCap score was calculated by taking the mean of all items in the PCQ-12. The mean score of the 12 items formed the PsyCap composite score and the four subscales assessed individually as well. Research permission for the PCQ-12 form was granted for administering the instrument online using a survey company (e.g., Qualtrics) other than Mind Garden.

Job engagement. This construct was measured using the job engagement scale developed by Saks (2006). This type of engagement refers to participant’s psychological presence in their job. The employee engagement scale consists of five items for job engagement and includes one reverse-scored item. Sample items for job engagement include “I am highly engaged in this job” and “This job is all consuming; I am totally into

it.” The reverse-scored item is “My mind often wanders and I think of other things when doing my job.” All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale where a higher average composite score indicates greater employee engagement in their role, and the scale had an alpha coefficient of .82. The job engagement scale has also demonstrated adequate reliability among a sample of collegiate recreation employees with Hazzaa, Oja, and Jung (2020) reporting an alpha level of .82, respectively.

Organizational pride. Organizational pride was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Todd and Harris (2009). Smith and Tyler (1997) conceptualized pride as an employees’ evaluations of a group’s general worth. As a result, organizational pride is likely to elicit positive feelings or attitudes about the job in general (Todd & Harris, 2009). In order to measure pride, the authors patterned and altered the items used by Jackson (2002). The items were, “I feel especially respected in social settings when I discuss my job in sports,” “My job gives me a feeling of importance when talking to others outside work,” and “In social settings, I feel valued and admired because of my job.” Todd and Harris (2009) found the Cronbach’s alpha reliability (.76) for this measure was acceptable from a large sample of professional sport employees.

Job satisfaction. A three-item scale developed and validated by the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983) was used to assess job satisfaction. This particular scale measures an individuals’ emotional appraisal of their job. Sample items are “All in all, I am satisfied with my job” and “In general, I like working here.” Past studies have shown acceptable reliability for the three-item scale ($\alpha = .88$; Valentine & Fleischman, 2008).

Control variables. Demographic variables that have shown a potential significant relationship with perceptions of CSR and PsyCap were included in the survey. More specifically, questions about participants' age, ethnicity, education, department, and tenure were included and controlled for in the analyses. Participants were also asked to identify their gender because previous studies have found evidence that women tend to be more concerned with CSR initiatives than men (Glavas & Kelly, 2014). These demographic variables are important to control for because internal stakeholders can have different perceptions of CSR depending on personal characteristics or individual differences that have been identified in past studies (e.g., Glavas, 2016; Kim, Lee, et al., 2010; Rupp et al., 2013).

To account for confounding effects, gender and organizational tenure were used as individual-level control variables as the literature has suggested that these variables may influence various job-related outcomes (Glavas & Kelly, 2014; Kim, Lee, et al., 2010). Gender was coded 1 (*male*) or 2 (*female*). In line with guidance of Glavas and Kelly (2014), tenure was coded 1 (*1-4*), 2 (*5-9*), 3 (*10-14*), or 4 (*over 15 years*).

Data Analysis

One of the primary purposes of this dissertation were test the research hypotheses using a regression-based approach and path analysis techniques. In order to do so, PROCESS was utilized, which is a computational tool for estimating conditional direct and indirect effects in mediation and moderation models (e.g., Hayes, 2009, 2012). This tool runs separate regression equations for each mediator where the mediator is regressed on a series of predictor variables. It also runs additional equations for each dependent variable where each dependent variable is regressed separately on all of the mediators.

However, before the research hypotheses can be tested for both direct and indirect effects, a series of steps were completed beforehand to properly analyze the dataset. These steps include an explanation of the preliminary steps, descriptive statistics, reliability and validity, and hypothesis testing.

Preliminary steps

Prior to conducting any analyses, a series of assumptions were acknowledged and tested. First, the data file was imported from Qualtrics into SPSS version 23. Next, the data were screened for missing responses (e.g., Little's missing completely at random test). The pattern of missing data is more important than the amount missing, in which missing values scattered randomly through a data matrix pose less serious problems (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, examining the data for missing responses is regarded as one of the most important issues because it can influence the generalizability of the findings (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition to missing values, an examination of multivariate outliers and normal distributions of the data were also performed through frequency distributions. Second, variance inflation factors (VIF) and tolerance statistics were examined to detect the potential presence of multicollinearity. When two or more variables are highly correlated (i.e., multicollinearity), there is the potential for statistical problems. No such issues were present in the data during this screening phase.

Descriptive Statistics

Once the preliminary steps were complete using the series of assumption tests and correlation matrices, descriptive statistics were calculated. The scores from all of the constructs through descriptive statistics provided information related to central tendency

(e.g., mean, median, and mode), variability (e.g., variance and standard deviation), as well as a general representation of the data in a meaningful manner. Calculating descriptive statistics is useful for summarizing data, however, it does not provide any statistical evidence for causal relationships to test the hypotheses. Because of this, further data analysis is required after the preliminary steps and descriptive statistics were completed.

Reliability and Validity

In any study, the researcher should attempt to select instruments that can provide an accurate measure of the variables under investigation (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The general premise of establishing reliability (i.e., internal consistency) is to determine if items of each instrument is measuring the same thing (Ary et al., 2010). Two commonly used procedures to establish reliability estimates are the Kuder-Richardson 20 formula (K-R 20) and Cronbach's Alpha (Ary et al., 2010). K-R 20 is not applicable for this study because it is primarily intended for dichotomous scores (Ary et al., 2010). Cronbach's alpha, however, is especially useful when the scores to be measured are represented by a range of values, such as a Likert-type scales (Ary et al., 2010). A Cronbach's alpha value between .70 and .90 indicates good reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Cronbach's alpha scores that fall outside of that recommended range (i.e, below .70 or above .90) are not consistently measuring the latent constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The last way that reliability was assessed was by examining the item-to-total correlations for each construct. A value above .50 indicates that the scale is reliable and items with item-to-total correlations below the .50 threshold can be removed from further analysis (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). No items were

removed during this process as Cronbach's alpha scores item-to-total correlations for all constructs surpassed their recommended thresholds which indicates acceptable reliability.

Assessing validity is a vital part of the research process for studies that rely on various instruments. As with reliability assessments (e.g., Cronbach's alpha), it is critical for studies using instruments to establish validity. Validity refers to the extent that a measure accurately measures what it was designed to measure (Andrew et al., 2011). One procedure for ensuring statistical validity were to run a power analysis using G*Power 3.1 to select an appropriate sample size. This tool has been shown to be both flexible and accurate (Faul, Erdfelder, & Buchner, 2007). The term, power, refers to the probability of detecting a "true" effect when it exists and helps to improve the reliability of statistical decisions (i.e., regression-based analysis). Based on recommended guidelines for regression analysis, an alpha of .05, a power of .95, a medium effect size of .15, and one to two independent variables was entered into the G*Power software. Thus, the minimum sample size necessary for the analyses was at least 89 to 107 participants (Faul et al., 2007).

Hypothesis Testing

To evaluate the proposed relationships, a series of moderated mediation regression-based models were run using the PROCESS macro in SPSS version 23. Both direct and indirect effects were analyzed to support or reject the research hypotheses. The research model included four direct effects (CSR → PsyCap, CSR → job engagement, CSR → organizational pride, CSR → job satisfaction), the moderating effect of gratitude on CSR → PsyCap, and three indirect effects (CSR through PsyCap on job engagement,

CSR through PsyCap on organizational pride, and CSR through PsyCap on job satisfaction).

A moderated mediation effect is a model which incorporates both mediation and moderation into a single model. Moderated mediation can be defined as an effect in which the magnitude of an indirect effect varies as a function of a moderator variable (Hayes, 2018). Thus, the linear relationship between X and Y via M is contingent on the values of the third variable W . Then W moderates the relationship between X and Y . According to Hayes (2012), “because the sampling distribution of the conditional indirect effect should not be assumed normal, PROCESS provides asymmetric bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals for inference about the conditional indirect effects...” (p. 19).

For each model, 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals using 5,000 iterations were calculated for each estimated parameter (Hayes, 2018). The confidence intervals were calculated for all regression coefficients and reported for all direct and indirect paths because PROCESS does not calculate p values for indirect effects. Confidence intervals are also used minimize the likelihood of non-normal distributions that are commonly found with indirect effects. Therefore, a confidence interval for each hypothesized relationship that includes zero represents insignificance.

Moderated regression analysis. According to Hayes (2012), moderation analysis is used when testing whether the magnitude of a variable’s effect on an outcome variable depends on a third variable. In other words, variables that affect the hypothesized relationships among a set of variables is known as moderators and tested as interaction effects (Hayes, 2012). Moderation analysis can help assist in better understanding how a

moderating variable places constraint on how or when the relationship between X and Y functions (Hayes, 2009). The PROCESS macro can also accommodate the inclusion of one or more moderating variables in the model, where interactions can subsequently be investigated for areas of significance (Hayes, 2018). In this study, gratitude was examined as the moderator between recreational sport employees' perception of CSR and PsyCap.

Mediated regression analysis. Mediation regression analysis is used for exploring the relationship between independent and dependent variables by uncovering underlying mechanisms (Hayes, 2009). In a mediation model, a mediating variable transmits the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable (Hayes, 2018; MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007; Zhao et al., 2010). Moving beyond the traditional causal approach to mediation, there is a growing body of knowledge from scholars that a total effect of X on Y should not be regarded as a prerequisite for evidence of indirect effects (Hayes, 2009; Hayes, 2018; Zhao et al., 2010). Additionally, Hayes (2018) argued that labeling findings in terms of complete and partial mediation should be abandoned and not consistent with recent evidence. In practical terms, this is because almost all effects are mediated by something. Thus, this adopts the rationale from Hayes (2018) and reports indirect effects for testing mediation.

Following recommendations from most scholars on mediation analysis (e.g., Hayes, 2009; Zhao et al., 2010), hypotheses were tested using 5,000 bootstrapped samples at a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval to minimize the likelihood of non-normal distributions that are commonly found with indirect effects. Therefore, a confidence interval for each hypothesized relationship that includes zero represents

insignificance. On the other hand, the PROCESS macro that produces a confidence interval without zero, indicates a significant indirect effect. In this study, PsyCap was tested as a mediator between perceived CSR and the three employee outcomes.

Summary

Chapter three detailed the rationale for a nonexperimental, cross-sectional research design, sampling selection, and data collection procedures. This chapter also discussed the pilot study, instruments, and data analysis performed for testing the hypotheses. The following chapter includes the results and chapter five provides a discussion of the findings, theoretical and practical contributions, limitations and recommendations for future work.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to develop and test a conceptual model in an attempt to better understand the influence of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on sport employee functioning in the workplace. The analyses comprised of three separate moderated mediation models using Hayes' (2018) PROCESS macros for SPSS. In each model, the moderating effect of gratitude on the mediating role of psychological capital (PsyCap) between employee perceptions of CSR and job engagement, pride, and job satisfaction were examined. The previous chapter detailed the methodology utilized, including the statistical procedures and analyses. Chapter four presents the results of the testable research hypotheses.

Descriptive Analyses

Participants were recruited through an invitation email which outlined the nature of the present study and guidelines for completing the survey. The target population was employees who work in nonprofit service-oriented recreation organizations in the United States. Two primary organizational sectors were targeted that fit the inclusion criteria: collegiate recreational sport departments and YMCA chapter branches. As a result, there were 4,647 accessible email addresses that were collected from each organization's official department staff directory. After sending a UNC-sponsored Qualtrics link for the survey, 305 email addresses were designated as undeliverable. 67 more emails were

returned to the researcher due to being no longer employed, change of positions, or retirements. Two YMCA chapter branches declined to participate so 169 email addresses were also removed. Among 4,105 employees who successfully received an invitation to participate, 1,072 employees opened the survey link (26.1%), and 705 employees (17.2%) completed the survey and included for data analysis.

The participants were recreation employees who were at least 18 years of age located in the United States. The demographic information that was requested from participants included gender, age, ethnicity, work status, organizational type, and organizational tenure. Table 2 details the frequencies and percentages for all demographic information. The sample was comprised of 356 females (50.5%), 321 males (45.5%), and 27 declined to specify (3.9%). The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 71 years old with a mean age close to 40 years old ($M = 39.88$; $SD = 11.71$). There were 571 White or Caucasian (81%), 34 Black or African American (4.8%), 31 Mexican or Latino (4.4%), 20 Multicultural (2.8%), and 28 chose not to identify their ethnicity (4%). Participants' work status was 640 full-time (90.8%), 37 part-time (5.2%), and 25 did not specify their current work status (3.5%). 518 participants work for collegiate recreation organizations (74%), followed by 147 at YMCA organizations (21%), and 25 did not specify the type of organization (5%). Lastly, the tenure of the participants ranged from less than a year to 43 years with an average of seven years ($M = 9.89$; $SD = 8.87$). Over half of the participants reported working for their current organization for nine years or less.

Table 2

Frequencies and percentages for demographic variables

Variable	Group	n	%
Gender	Female	356	50.5%
	Male	321	45.5%
	Did not specify	28	4.0%
Age	18 - 24 years	26	3.7%
	25 - 34 years	240	34.0%
	35 - 44 years	176	24.9%
	45 - 54 years	127	18.0%
	55 - 64 years	73	10.4%
	65 years +	15	2.1%
	Did not specify	48	6.8%
Ethnicity	Caucasian	571	81.0%
	African American	34	4.8%
	Hispanic	31	4.4%
	Asian	7	1.0%
	Multicultural	20	2.8%
	Other	14	2.0%
	Did not specify	28	4.0%
Work status	Full-time	642	91.0%
	Part-time	39	5.5%
	Did not specify	25	3.5%
Tenure	0 to 4 years	255	36.2%
	5 to 9 years	145	20.6%
	10 to 14 years	96	13.6%
	15 years +	183	26.0%
	Did not specify	26	3.7%

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to conducting any of the analyses, there were several steps taken to ensure a proper data screening process. Initially, data were screened for missing data, inaccurate values, duplicate responses, and outliers. Data were visually inspected to identify cases with insufficient completion; a number of responses were immediately removed upon identifying that the participant completed a small number of items, if any at all. No item from the research variables had more than one percent of its data missing. No discernable patterns were found by visually inspecting the missing data, which suggested that they were missing at random. To account for the degree and randomness of the missing data, Little's missing completely at random test was performed. This test determines if the missing data is to be considered missing completely at random and removes a potential source of bias in the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Little's test revealed that the data should be considered MCAR with an insignificant chi-square, $\chi^2 = 538.04$, $df = 684$, $p = 1.00$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, the missing data were most likely missing completely at random as Little's test was not significant.

Next, the data were scanned for outliers by conducting a visual examination of histograms of the scores for each variable and by using the Mahalanobis distance assumption check (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This test is used to create a random variable, run a linear regression where *random* is the dependent variable and all variables under investigation are placed in the independent variable dialog box, and then sort by descending values. Based on the chi-square statistics table using $df = 6$ and $p < .001$, Mahalanobis distances greater than $\chi^2 = 22.46$ were removed. On this basis, 22 participants exceeded that threshold for potential outliers and were removed from further

analysis. After removing cases with minimal completion, missing data, and outliers, the total number of participants was 705 ($N = 705$).

Since the primary method for estimating moderated mediation is based on ordinary least squares (OLS) regression using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS macro; violations of the assumptions of this statistical analysis were examined. Based on Hayes' (2018) guidelines, the assumptions are: normal distribution of estimation errors; linearity in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables; homoscedasticity; and independence of observations. The data were reviewed for normality. To assess this assumption, histograms revealed approximately normal distribution. Further, PROCESS generates bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals (CI) based on bootstrap resamples (Hayes, 2012). Values from the confidence intervals that do not include zero offer support that the direct and indirect effects are significantly different from zero at $p < .05$ (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). This is done in order to avoid problems related to violating assumptions of normality of the sample distribution (Preacher et al., 2007). The assumption of linearity among variables and homoscedasticity were tested by performing separate linear regression analyses and a scan of the residual scatterplots revealed no violations of linearity and homoscedasticity. The last assumption that was checked was the issue of multicollinearity. This potential issue was assessed using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF), where values less than 1 or exceeding 10 are indicators of issues with severe multicollinearity. The VIF values of the constructs were as follows: CSR (1.23), PsyCap (1.45), gratitude (1.32). Thus, the assumption of multicollinearity was confirmed.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the entire sample, including means, standard deviations, reliabilities and for the main variables are presented in Table 3. The means and standard deviations were within expected ranges for all variables. Since the data were generated using Likert-type scaled responses, it was necessary to examine the reliability and internal consistency of the participants' responses. Reliability provides an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a construct (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 3 shows that the measures were reliable using Cronbach's alpha, ranging from .81 to .89, which aligns with past studies involving the same measurement items (e.g., Cammann et al., 1983; Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007; McCullough et al., 2002; Saks, 2006; Todd & Harris, 2009; Turker, 2009). All reliability coefficients for the variables surpassed the recommended threshold of .70, which indicated that the measurements were unidimensional and reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 3

Descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha reliability

Construct	M	SD	Cronbach's α
CSR (6)	5.45	.95	.85
PsyCap (12)	5.74	.66	.87
Gratitude (6)	6.16	.66	.81
Job Engagement (6)	5.05	.98	.81
Pride (3)	4.93	1.18	.88
Job Satisfaction (3)	5.73	1.11	.89

Note. $N = 705$. Scales ranged from 1 to 7. The number in parentheses corresponds to the number of items for each construct.

Table 4 provides the bivariate correlation matrix across each of the main variables by calculating a Pearson correlation coefficient. The correlations were all positive and statistically significant at the .01 level. Employees' perceptions of CSR were positively and significantly associated with PsyCap ($r = .43$), gratitude ($r = .33$), job engagement ($r = .27$), pride ($r = .41$), and job satisfaction ($r = .59$). As expected, PsyCap and gratitude had a positive significant correlation given that the latter construct also emerged from the positive psychology movement (Emmons & Shelton, 2001; Luthans, 2002a). As previously mentioned, none of the associations between variables were too highly correlated to suggest collinearity issues. All of the variables were significantly intercorrelated and in the expected directions by previous studies, thereby providing some preliminary support for the hypotheses.

Table 4

Correlation matrix

Construct	CSR	PsyCap	Gratitude	JE	Pride	JS
CSR	1					
PsyCap	.432*	1				
Gratitude	.327*	.476*	1			
JE	.268*	.459*	.226*	1		
Pride	.405*	.478*	.288*	.336*	1	
JS	.592*	.647*	.444*	.450*	.469*	1

Note. JE = job engagement; JS = job satisfaction.

* $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypotheses Testing

The next phase involved testing the hypothesized relationships that were developed and discussed in chapter two and three, respectively. In order to test the research model, a series of first-stage moderated mediation models utilizing Hayes' (2018) PROCESS macro was conducted for each of the three employee outcome variables. According to Preacher et al. (2007) and Hayes (2012), mediation and moderation can be combined through the estimation of a *conditional process* model. The model allows for the direct and indirect effects of an independent variable X on a dependent variable Y through one or more mediators M to be moderated (Hayes, 2012). Gender and tenure were included as control variables. Each model produced nonsignificant values for gender; thus, no further action was taken. Tenure, however, was significant with the job-related outcomes of engagement ($p < .01$), pride ($p < .00$), and

job satisfaction ($p < .01$). Therefore, tenure was included as a covariate for each model in order to control for these potential effects.

Moderated mediation analysis (see figure 3 and 4) exists when the value of the indirect effect is conditional on the value of the moderator variable (Hayes, 2018). Such a model calculates the *conditional indirect effect* at varying levels of the moderator, whereby variables constituting the interaction effect ($CSR \times gratitude$) are mean centered. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported for all analyses (Hayes, 2018). PROCESS macros also produced bias-corrected confidence intervals (CI) for these effects. Figure 3 portrays the conceptual representation of gratitude potentially modifying the relationship between sport employees' perceptions of CSR and their PsyCap. Alternatively, Figure 4 represents the statistical model, which illustrates how the interaction between gratitude and CSR is used as the moderating variable.

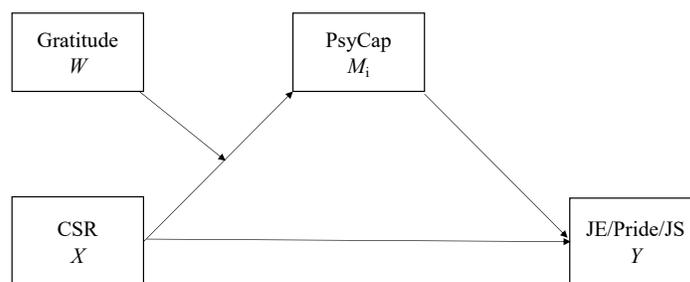


Figure 3. Conceptual diagram of PROCESS model 7. JE = job engagement, JS = job satisfaction.

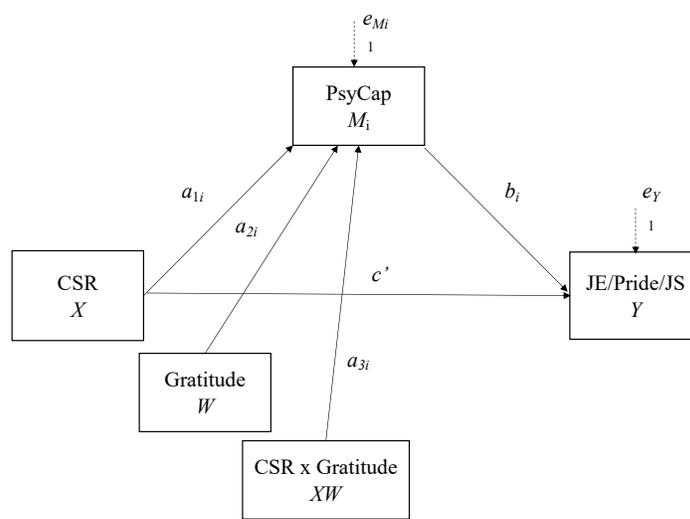


Figure 4. Statistical diagram of PROCESS model 7. JE = job engagement, JS = job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1 stated that sport employees' perceived CSR would be positively related to their PsyCap. Results from the analysis demonstrated that perceived CSR is positively related to PsyCap ($b = .22$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.17, .27]), thereby providing support for Hypothesis 1 (see Table 5). As shown in figures 3 and 4, PROCESS Model 7 was selected to best test the hypothesis that the relationship between perceived CSR and the mediator, PsyCap, varies conditionally based on the moderator, gratitude.

Hypothesis 2 stated the positive association between sport employees' perceived CSR and PsyCap would be moderated by gratitude such that the relationship is stronger for sport employees with high gratitude than for sport employees with low gratitude. Though not a hypothesis in this study, the direct effect of gratitude on PsyCap was positively related and significant ($b = .39$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.32, .46]).

However, as displayed in Table 5, the interaction between sport employees' perceived CSR and gratitude on PsyCap was not significant ($b = .01$, $SE = .03$, $p < .92$, 95% CI [-.06, .06]), thereby suggesting that gratitude did not differ across levels (i.e., the mean plus or minus 1 standard deviation; conditional effect) of employees' gratitude; thus, hypothesis 2 was not supported. Because of this result, the CI for the Index of Moderated Mediation included zero (95% CI [-.04, .05]), which suggests that the conditional indirect effect was nonsignificant. This finding indicates that the strength of the indirect effect of CSR on employees' PsyCap did not depend on the level of gratitude.

Table 5

PROCESS Model Summary for Mediator (DV = Psychological Capital)

	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	5.79	.08	72.47	.00	5.63	5.95
CSR	.22	.02	9.13	.00***	.17	.27
Gratitude	.39	.04	10.96	.00***	.32	.46
CSR x gratitude	.01	.03	.10	.92	-.06	.06
Gender	-.06	.04	-1.45	.14	-.14	.02
Tenure	.02	.02	1.24	.21	-.01	.05

Model summary: $R^2 = .32$, $F(5, 673) = 63.81$, $p < .00$

Note. LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval.

** $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.*

Hypotheses 3 through 5 stated that the direct effect of perceived CSR to the job-related outcomes would be positively related. Tables 6, 7, and 8 depict the model summary for job engagement, pride, and job satisfaction as the dependent variables. Hypothesis 3 proposed that sport employees' perceived CSR would be positively related to job engagement. Results revealed perceived CSR is positively related to job engagement ($b = .08$, $SE = .04$, $p < .04$, 95% CI [.00, .16]). Thus, hypothesis 3 was supported (see Table 7). Tenure was also significantly related job engagement ($b = .07$, $SE = .03$, $p < .01$).

Table 6

PROCESS Model Summary for Job Engagement

	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	1.32	.39	3.90	.00	.66	1.99
CSR	.08	.04	2.02	.04*	.00	.16
PsyCap	.62	.06	11.10	.00***	.51	.73
Gender	.00	.06	0.03	.97	-.13	.13
Tenure	.07	.03	2.51	.01**	.01	.12

Model summary: $R^2 = .23$, $F(4, 674) = 49.06$, $p < .00$

Note. LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that sport employees' perceived CSR would be positively related to feeling a sense of pride towards the organization. Results indicated that perceived CSR is positively related to pride ($b = .31$, $SE = .04$, $p < .00$, 95% CI [.22, .40]); thus, hypothesis 4 was supported (see Table 7). Tenure was also significantly related pride ($b = .11$, $SE = .03$, $p < .00$). Finally, Hypothesis 5 stated that sport employees' perceived CSR would be positively related to job satisfaction. Results revealed perceived CSR is positively related to job satisfaction ($b = .45$, $SE = .03$, $p < .00$, 95% CI [.38, .52]). Thus, hypothesis 5 was supported (see Table 8). Tenure was also significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = .06$, $SE = .02$, $p < .01$).

Table 7

PROCESS Model Summary for Pride

	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	1.10	.38	2.89	.00	.35	1.86
CSR	.31	.04	7.08	.00***	.22	.40
PsyCap	.62	.06	9.87	.00***	.50	.75
Gender	.00	.07	0.01	.98	-.14	.15
Tenure	.11	.03	3.39	.00***	.04	.16

Model summary: $R^2 = .29$, $F(4, 674) = 70.53$, $p < .00$

Note. LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 8

PROCESS Model Summary for Job Satisfaction

	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	.92	.29	3.16	.00	.35	1.49
CSR	.45	.03	13.30	.00***	.38	.52
PsyCap	.81	.06	11.10	.00***	.51	.73
Gender	.03	.06	0.44	.66	-.09	.14
Tenure	.06	.02	2.43	.01**	.01	.10

Model summary: $R^2 = .55$, $F(4, 674) = 207.48$, $p < .00$

Note. LLCI = lower level confidence interval; ULCI = upper level confidence interval.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Lastly, for hypotheses 6 through 8, employees' PsyCap was expected to mediate the relationship between perceived CSR and (a) job engagement, (b) pride, and (c) job satisfaction, respectively. To test the hypotheses for total and indirect effects, three separate simple mediation models using Hayes' (2018) PROCESS macro were performed. Again, 5,000 bootstrap samples with bias-correct 95% confidence intervals were calculated and any value including zero indicates no significance. Hypothesis 6 stated that PsyCap would mediate the relationship between perceived CSR and job engagement. The effect of perceived CSR on job engagement, as mediated by PsyCap, was significant (Indirect = .19, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [.14, .24]), which suggests an indirect effect. Thus, hypothesis 6 was supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that PsyCap would mediate the relationship between perceived CSR and pride. The effect of perceived CSR on pride, as mediated by PsyCap, was significant (Indirect = .19, *SE* = .02, 95% CI [.15, .24]), which offers support for an indirect effect. Thus, hypothesis 7 was accepted. Hypothesis 8 stated that PsyCap would mediate the relationship between perceived CSR and job satisfaction. The indirect effect of perceived CSR on job satisfaction through PsyCap, was significant (Indirect = .25, *SE* = .02, 95% CI [.19, .30]), since the CI does not include zero. Thus, hypothesis 8 was supported.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to investigate the moderating effect of gratitude and the mediating effect of PsyCap on the relationship of sport employees' perceptions of CSR and their job engagement, pride, and job satisfaction. Data were collected from a sample of employees in recreational sport organizations across the United States. Moderated mediation analysis using Hayes' (2018) PROCESS macro was conducted to test the hypotheses guiding this study. Findings from the moderated mediation analysis indicated that the relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and PsyCap was not dependent on the moderating role of gratitude. Simply put, there was no statistically significant interaction effect despite gratitude influencing PsyCap. The direct effects between CSR and the recreational sport employee outcomes were examined and found to be statistically significant. In addition, the mediating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between CSR and job engagement, pride, and job satisfaction were supported, which suggests a significant indirect effect. Table 9 presents a summary of the decision for each hypothesis test. Chapter five

includes a discussion of the findings, including implications to both theory and practice, as well as recommendations for future research directions.

Table 9

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Decisions

Hypothesis	Accept or Reject
H1: Perceived CSR is positively related to PsyCap	Accept
H2: The positive association between perceived CSR and PsyCap is moderated by gratitude such that the relationship is stronger for participants with high gratitude than for participants with low gratitude	Reject
H3: Perceived CSR is positively related to job engagement	Accept
H4: Perceived CSR is positively related to pride	Accept
H5: Perceived CSR is positively related to job satisfaction	Accept
H6: PsyCap mediates the relationship between perceived CSR and job engagement	Accept
H7: PsyCap mediates the relationship between perceived CSR and pride	Accept
H8: PsyCap mediates the relationship between perceived CSR and job satisfaction	Accept

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Overview of Findings

The primary intent of this study was to address knowledge gaps in the corporate social responsibility (CSR) and recreational sport employee literature by proposing and testing a model of employees' perceptions of CSR and their attitudinal outcomes (i.e., job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction). The model also included psychological capital (PsyCap) as a mediator between CSR and the attitudinal outcomes, as well as gratitude as a first-stage moderator on the association between CSR and PsyCap. This comprehensive model originated from the belief that when organization's engage in CSR activities directed towards their employees, they perceive it, and their perceptions might affect their psychological development, which ultimately influences their attitudes towards their workplace. The hypotheses were tested through reliable and established survey measures administered to a representative sample of 705 employees working for recreational sport organizations across the United States.

The overall results indicated that high perceptions of CSR from the employee perspective was a strong antecedent in generating positive psychological capacities and their subsequent workplace attitudes. Additionally, PsyCap was found to further explain how recreational sport employees psychologically experience micro-CSR. Hypothesis one was supported, as perceptions of their organization's CSR activities was found to be

significantly related to their PsyCap. For hypothesis two, results suggested no statistically significant interaction between CSR and the moderator, gratitude, on PsyCap. In other words, the level of gratitude had no effect on the positive relationship between sport employees' CSR and their PsyCap. Regarding hypotheses three through five, results indicated that CSR was significantly related to the outcomes of job engagement, pride towards their organization, and job satisfaction, respectively. Finally, hypotheses six through eight were supported, as PsyCap mediated the relationship between CSR and job engagement, organizational pride, and job satisfaction.

Although the majority of the variables of interest were significantly related and in the expected direction, the overall moderated mediation index was not significant. In other words, the indirect effect of PsyCap was not dependent on the moderating role of gratitude. Nevertheless, the hypotheses testing, and supplementary analyses provide important theoretical and practical contributions that should serve to inform future work in this emerging area of sport employee psychology and; more broadly the sport management literature.

The final chapter discusses the results from chapter four with respect to the hypotheses derived from the research model. Following discussion of the hypotheses, an overview of this study's practical contributions is provided. Lastly, a consideration of the study's limitations and future directions are discussed.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Psychological Capital

Hypothesis one proposed that perceived CSR would positively influence employees' PsyCap levels. The results from this study found support for the hypothesis that perceived CSR was found to have a significant and positive influence on PsyCap. In

other words, favorable perceptions of CSR activities directed towards employees are likely to lead to increased PsyCap levels. This notion appears to indicate that one's ability to thrive at work is at least partly a result of employees perceived treatment from the socially responsible actions of their organization. When employees receive their organization's CSR efforts, they are able to generate alternate paths towards goals and bounce back after unforeseen setbacks in the workplace (Leal et al., 2012; Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007). Along with hope and resiliency, increased efficacy and optimism are maintained through ongoing support from management and socially responsible actions from the organization. Recreational sport organizations which show CSR behavior directed towards employees are likely to trigger the ability for employees to increase their positive psychological resources and ultimately enhance employee functioning.

This finding is consistent with previous work highlighting the ability for organizations to promote employees' PsyCap by investing in CSR practices that their workforce perceives such practices (Leal et al., 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2010). While research involving sport employee functioning is continuing to garner interest from scholars, the sport industry offers unique insight into the role of micro-CSR (Walker et al., 2017; Walzel, Robertson, & Anagnostopoulos, 2018) and PsyCap (Kim et al., 2019; Kim, Perrewé, et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2020; Oja et al., 2019), respectively. However, no studies in the sport management literature have examined the relationship between employees' perception of CSR and their PsyCap. Thus, this study offers initial support for recreational sport organizations to engage in CSR towards employees as a

management strategy and a potential mechanism to generate higher levels of employee PsyCap in the workplace.

In the sport management literature, not much is known about corporate social responsibility from the perspective of the individual level of analysis. This finding helps to illuminate the importance of examining micro-level nonfinancial outcomes of CSR, such as attractiveness to prospective employees (Turban & Greening, 1997), retention (Jones, 2010), and engagement (Glavas & Piderit, 2009). Using the information from this finding on recreational sport employees, we are now able to identify important knowledge gaps in the CSR literature by integrating a psychological perspective that draws upon psychological theories (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). It also highlights that little is known about how employees psychologically experience CSR (Rupp & Mallory, 2015). That is, the CSR-PsyCap finding is especially meaningful because it is the first study in the sport and recreation context to establish that working for a socially responsible organizations can lead to increased PsyCap.

Moderating Effect of Gratitude

Hypothesis two proposed that the positive and significant association between employees' perception of CSR and PsyCap would be moderated by gratitude such that the association would be stronger for employees with high levels of gratitude than for employees with low levels of gratitude. The hypothesized moderating effect of gratitude in this study was based on the premise that it would further explicate the effects of CSR on employees' PsyCap. The results revealed a nonsignificant interaction effect for gratitude, thus hypothesis two was not supported. In other words, the level of gratitude did not alter the direction and/or strength of the relationship between CSR and PsyCap,

showing that the effect of PsyCap did not depend on feelings of gratitude. While this finding does not refute or support any previous findings, it does at the very least, provide initial evidence as to the role gratitude may play with CSR at the individual level.

According to Romani et al. (2013), feelings of gratitude typically permeate when an employee perceives that another agent (i.e., organization) has intentionally acted to improve his or her well-being.

Despite an insignificant interaction effect between CSR and gratitude on employees' PsyCap, the finding still offers theoretical value and a basis for future work. Given the correlation among the constructs, it did substantiate that gratitude shares some association to CSR and PsyCap, respectively. As a positive emotional response (Emmons & McCullough, 2003), gratitude has been shown to increase positive relationships and employees' well-being (Di Fabio et al., 2017). For instance, though not a hypothesis in the study, employee gratitude was found to be significantly related to PsyCap. Based on the result of hypothesis one, it is also plausible that PsyCap is such a powerful construct in this context that an employees' level of gratitude would not influence their PsyCap to any significant difference between high and low gratitude.

Another possible explanation for insignificant moderating effect of gratitude between CSR and PsyCap may be rooted in the gratitude measure used. McCullough et al.'s (2002) measure is designed to assess the inclination to experience gratitude in daily life. The six-item scale uses general statements about daily life and not about the CSR initiatives that the organizations engaged in towards employees. It is reasonable to suggest that future work use different scales for gratitude or adapt the items to more closely match the research context.

Direct Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility on Employees

In addition to testing the relationship between perceived corporate social responsibility and psychological capital, one of the central purposes of this study was to examine CSR's direct effect on positive employee attitudes such as job engagement, pride, and job satisfaction. Various studies have investigated the association between employees' perception of CSR and attitudes and behaviors in the workplace setting (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Gond et al., 2017). The findings from this study extends the literature by demonstrating that CSR is positively related to employee attitudes in the recreational sport work setting. It also provides empirical evidence that favorable perceptions of CSR may be effective in triggering positive responses for recreational sport employees.

Hypothesis three proposed that employees' perception of CSR would be positively related to job engagement. The results show support for this hypothesis. This finding supports the work of Glavas (2016) and Mirvis (2012) by showing that high perceptions of CSR contributes to employees' engagement with their role in the organization. It also indicates that as a way to improve engagement, organizations should deploy and communicate CSR activities towards their employees. The implication is that CSR can generate positive reactions in stakeholders such as employees.

This finding corroborates previous studies between CSR and job engagement. Glavas and Piderit (2009) concluded that the effect of job engagement resulting from positive perceptions of CSR was strengthened by CSR importance to each employee. Additional studies have indicated that as a way to increase job engagement is to allow employees to form perceptions of employee-directed initiatives (Mirvis, 2012).

Therefore, when organization's put CSR actions into place, these actions send signals to employees about their values which may then add to feelings of engagement in the workplace. This finding adds to our understanding about the important role of CSR to enhance job engagement in the recreational sport workplace.

Hypothesis four was developed to assess the direct impact of employees' perception of CSR on pride towards the organization. It was proposed that there would be a positive and significant relationship between employees' perception of CSR and their pride towards the organization. Results found support for hypothesis four that CSR leads to feelings of pride. In other words, by bringing employees' attention to socially responsible actions that reinforce the organization's goals and values, employee pride is likely to emerge. This finding supports the work of Ellemers et al. (2011) and Ng, Yam, and Aguinis (2019), which demonstrated that pride is a likely emotional reaction to favorable perceptions of an organization's CSR activities.

It also reveals that recreational sport employees are likely to feel a sense of pride when they believe that their organization is acting in a socially responsible manner. While many working in this sector of the sport industry are passionate about their work (Taylor et al., 2008), it could be that favorable perceptions of their organization doing good for employees might play a meaningful role for these individuals in this context. As a result, the current study extends the literature by addressing calls for exploring affective (e.g., pride) responses to CSR (Du et al., 2010). The effect of CSR on pride is especially important for recreational sport organizations seeking to elicit favorable responses among their workforce. As an outcome of CSR, pride also reflects the inherent value of feeling

important and appreciated, as it has a positive impact on employee functioning on behalf of the organization (Oja et al., 2019).

Hypothesis five proposed that employees' perception of CSR would be positively related to job satisfaction. Locke (1969) referred to job satisfaction as an employees' psychological state towards their work. Results indicated that an organization's sense of care and socially responsible actions positively influenced employees' attitude towards the job. Thus, hypothesis five was supported. In other words, when employees perceive their organization is supporting them, they may respond more positively through increased levels of job satisfaction (Valentine & Fleischman, 2008). This finding supports previous studies which found a positive relationship between perceived CSR and job satisfaction (Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Glavas & Kelly, 2014). It also confirms past studies on the role of job satisfaction in the sport industry as a crucial employee-level outcome (e.g., Kim et al., 2019; Swanson & Kent, 2017). Such a relationship is meaningful to the recreational sport workplace in which managers are seeking a more positive and satisfied work environment for their employees. As such, this particular finding indicates that perceptions of an organization's CSR can lead to greater job satisfaction.

Indirect Effects of Psychological Capital

A major focal point of the current study was to examine the mediating role of psychological capital between corporate social responsibility and employee attitudinal outcomes. As previously mentioned, the direct effects of CSR on job engagement, pride, and job satisfaction were statistically significant. Regarding indirect effects, hypotheses six proposed a relationship between CSR and job engagement through PsyCap. Findings

revealed the indirect effect of PsyCap was significant, thereby suggesting there was mediation between CSR on job engagement. It was found that employees who favorably perceive their organization's internal social responsibility efforts increase engagement with their job with PsyCap serving as a possible link between these two constructs. Individuals who have positive perception of the CSR actions in their organization are more likely to be amass PsyCap and therefore have a higher propensity to be engaged with their jobs.

With regard to the mediating role of PsyCap in organizational pride, De Roeck et al. (2014) argued that employees are more likely to feel pride of membership when they believe external stakeholders associate with a social cause. Hypothesis seven proposed that the path from perceived CSR to pride through PsyCap would be a positive and significant relationship. Results revealed a significant indirect effect of PsyCap on the link between perceived CSR and pride towards the employee's organization. One explanation is that recreational sport employees with higher levels of PsyCap will benefit from their ability to draw on positive psychological strengths to counter obstacles at work and lead to the process of attaining ideal psychological functioning (Avey, Wernsing, et al., 2008). According to Luthans, Youssef et al. (2007), self-efficacious and hopeful employees believe they create success in their jobs which leads to feelings of pride and satisfaction.

Along those same lines, hypothesis eight was also supported as PsyCap mediated the relationship between perceived CSR and job satisfaction. Previous studies suggested that employees were inspired to work harder and felt more satisfied with their job when their organization supports social causes they care about and that impact the community

(Bhattacharya et al., 2009). This finding supports previous work by uncovering a positive association between employees' PsyCap and job satisfaction (e.g., Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007). As a result, employees may exhibit greater levels of PsyCap due to the favorable perceptions of the organization's CSR efforts directed internally, resulting in making them more satisfied with their job.

The current study provides support and extends the literature on PsyCap as a mediator in the CSR-employee outcome relationship. Specifically, perceived CSR activates employees' PsyCap. Organizations implementing internal CSR initiatives have the ability for employees to maintain competence and confidence in their skills (Avey, 2014) and find ways to accomplish their goals. They are also optimistic about succeeding (Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007) and demonstrate the capacity to bounce back from adversity (Avey et al., 2010). These employees in turn show increased engagement with their job and express an increased level of job satisfaction. Such employees also have favorable perceptions of pride towards their organization.

Implications

Taken altogether, the results of the current study contribute to the sport management literature in several ways. First, it makes a theoretical contribution by introducing micro-CSR at the individual level in sport management and focusing on employee perceptions of their organization's CSR activities. The majority of CSR-related work in sport has focused on the macro level and external stakeholders, with little attention on the internal stakeholders of these organizations. When it comes to employees in the workplace, scholars and practitioners are concerned with finding the best ways in which organizations can use CSR strategically to elicit positive attitudes and behaviors

from their current workers (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Bhattacharya et al., 2008). This study has uncovered additional mechanisms at work to explain CSR results. More specifically, the inclusion of gratitude into CSR theory adds to the theoretical puzzle regarding the effectiveness of CSR programs and its connection to attitudinal and emotional elements. Given the continued demand and prevalence for better understanding the role of CSR in the sporting context (e.g., Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Breitbarth et al., 2015; Walker et al., 2017), this study is timely and offers insight into how CSR may lead to desirable employee outcomes. As a result, recreational sport managers should find ways for employees to reciprocate acts that could improve organization-employee relationships in the sport setting.

Second, this study demonstrates the indirect effect of PsyCap through the CSR-employee outcome relationship. Literature is lacking on exploring and identifying the potential underlying mechanisms through which CSR affects employees' attitudes' attitudes and behaviors (Rupp & Mallory, 2015; Rupp et al., 2013). Although the results do not completely explain the relationship between CSR and the outcomes, they do still provide further explanation of the bridge role of PsyCap, particularly in the recreational sport context.

Most importantly, the study identifies perceived CSR as a new antecedent to PsyCap and demonstrates the important role of CSR in the recreational sport workplace. This underlying mechanism enhances our understanding of this important relationship and further explains how CSR activities directed towards employees help develop enhanced psychological functioning from the four primary components that make up PsyCap-self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resiliency. By introducing a new mediator in

the relationship between CSR and employee attitudes, this study extends previous work, which has mainly focused on organizational identification (e.g., De Roeck et al., 2014; Jones, 2010; Jones et al., 2017) and organizational trust (e.g., De Roeck & Maon, 2018; Ko et al., 2014).

Third, this study provides theoretical and practical value for investigating POB in the sport and recreation setting. One of the key goals of management is to create and maintain strong employee relationships. According to Wright (2003), POB in the workplace should focus on the “pursuit of employee happiness, health, and betterment issues as viable goals or ends in themselves” (p. 441). Indeed, research conducted by Anagnostopoulos and Papadimitriou (2017) and Kim, Perrewé, et al. (2017) have argued for greater attention to sport organizational behavior literature by adopting a positive perspective to the recreational sport workplace and each employee’s psychological well-being and overall functioning (Kim et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2020; Oja et al., 2019). According to these researchers, POB and PsyCap are well-fitted concepts for sport organizations which takes a proactive, and positive perspective by valuing each employee. Therefore, the current study makes a timely contribution by applying positivity to the recreational sport work setting. Simply put, rather than examining individual and organizational performance, this study emphasizes and highlights the important of employees’ PsyCap, leading to higher levels of engagement, pride, and job satisfaction.

Limitations

The findings from this study offer new insight on CSR from the employee perspective and its impact on subsequent workplace attitudes in the recreational sport

setting. Yet, no study is without limitations. First, the present study was a cross-sectional study, in which data were collected at a single point in time. Although the conceptual model is seemingly compatible through a causal ordering of variables with the specified relationships, no causal conclusions can be made. Moreover, this particular research design was limited because of the potential for time sensitive circumstances to affect the data based on different points in time. For example, data collection for this study occurred during the month of May which may be a stressful time for the organizations that were sampled. Given the positively oriented nature of the study, it is possible that employees could have been influenced to respond differently to the survey questions. Therefore, additional research in this area should employ a longitudinal design in order to address any concerns with causal relationships and cross-sectional data.

Second, the sampling technique may limit the generalizability of the present study. The sample was comprised of online staff directory webpages, which could have reported incorrect or missing information at the time of data collection. Many of the organizations there were sampled also ranged in size and capacity, which may limit their access to resources that would be targeted for socially responsible actions directed at employees exclusively. These organizations also can be classified as community sport organizations given their nonprofit and service-oriented status (Taylor et al., 2008). Future work should attempt to incorporate random sampling and obtain employee data from other types of sport organizations in order to increase the generalizability of the findings.

Third, the measure of perceived CSR (Turker, 2009) captured specifically the initiatives directly related to employees within the organization. While this scale focuses

more on CSR initiatives targeted at employees, it would be worthwhile for future studies to examine employees' perceptions of external CSR activities. In addition, the present study is limited in that it only reflects the perceptions of employees, not the actual CSR activity of each organization. It is possible that the participants were not entirely aware of the internal CSR activity from their organization. Although, according to Rupp et al. (2013), "how employees perceive the CSR of their employer has more direct and stronger implications for employees' subsequent reactions..." (p. 897). Despite this notion, future studies should consider to what extent actual and specific CSR efforts may affect employees.

Finally, the last limitation of the current study is the potential for common method bias from the participants. With most self-report measures, participants may be more likely to respond based on what they think is the "correct" response instead of responding honestly and accurately. In order to control for this type of bias, the ordering of the survey items was randomized (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Another approach utilized was the inclusion of a marker variable in order to limit the potential for common method bias and self-reporting procedures in general. For instance, Meade and Craig (2012) recommended that researchers include a "special" survey item unrelated to the survey in order to ensure respondents are paying attention and answering the survey in a serious manner. Despite the limitations addressed in this section, the current study makes meaningful contributions to the existing sport CSR literature.

Directions for Future Research

In building upon the theoretical development and findings, this study's findings point to several areas of future work to extend this topic. First, studies that utilize

longitudinal design to address long-term effects and causal relationships need to be conducted in the future. This is especially pertinent for investigating sport employee functioning in the workplace environment given its hostile and turbulent nature. It may also be that effects are more or less pronounced when examined across multiple points in time or situational factors such as time year and when various CSR initiatives are implemented. For example, it is possible that perceptions of CSR and how one contextualizes their own work environment could have more prominent effects on workplace attitudes based on the seasonal nature of how sport and recreation organizations are managed.

Second, the qualitative analysis of sport employees regarding a positively oriented workplace should be of interest to sport management scholars. Based on existing literature, new methodological approaches could offer a deeper understanding of the complex nature in which CSR affects stakeholders at all levels of sport organizations. For instance, Oja et al. (2018) studied how culture influences employee behavior within the intercollegiate sport setting. Although not directly related, Babiak and Wolfe (2009) explored the internal and external effects of CSR from executive leaders in professional sport organizations utilizing semi-structured interviews and a qualitative content analysis. Qualitative reasoning applied to the recreational sport workplace may provide researchers the ability to continue uncovering rich, deeper meanings to complex phenomena such as CSR and employee functioning. For example, qualitative studies can provide insights as to what employees think and feel in relation to the CSR activities from their organization. Future work into exploring these issues through a qualitative lens may assist researchers

through theory development and frameworks to further examine relevant constructs such as the present study.

Third, future studies at the individual level are needed to continue examining the relationship between CSR and other workplace attitudes and behaviors. In addition to examining certain direct effects, efforts to move beyond by considering other underlying mechanisms to explain these potential relationships within the CSR-employee domain. A review of micro-CSR studies suggests that CSR likely triggers multiple attitudes and behaviors by employees (Glavas, 2016; Lee et al., 2013; Rupp & Mallory, 2015). For example, the effects of employees' CSR perceptions have been linked to positive attitudinal outcomes such as organizational identification (De Roeck et al., 2014; Gond et al., 2017), psychological needs (Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Bhattacharya et al., 2009), organizational embeddedness (Ng et al., 2019), and commitment (Brammer et al., 2007; Glavas & Kelly, 2014). Along these lines, the integration of additional micro-level theories may also aid in a deeper understanding of how CSR affects employees at the individual level. A step in this direction would be to develop and test alternative frameworks that feature individual differences and dispositions on the development of CSR attitudes and behaviors via CSR reactions. More specifically, the potential role of instilling feelings of gratitude within the sport work environment warrants further investigation from scholars.

Conclusion

In closing, the current study contributes to the sport management literature in the areas of corporate social responsibility and positive organizational behavior. Specifically, the results imply that employees' perceptions of CSR can lead to positive psychological

capacities and relate to key attitudinal outcomes of which are pertinent to the workplace. Moreover, this study provides evidence for the distinct nature of the recreational sport industry with regard to managing employees in this context. The sport organizational behavior literature lacks empirical support on how and why employees can be seen as one of the most important organizational constituencies (i.e., internal stakeholders) when it comes to CSR, and how employees' view of CSR may lead to enhanced PsyCap and favorable attitudes such as engagement, pride, and job satisfaction. As such, this study contends that one attempt to address this knowledge gap is by examining how and why sport and recreation employees psychologically experience CSR. Given its importance of to society and stakeholders, scholarly work on this topic will undoubtedly continue to grow across disciplines. Specifically, the recreational sport context offers many questions for sport management scholars to address moving forward. In building off the findings from this study, it appears that micro-level CSR holds considerable value to both theory and practice for both individuals and organizations involved in the various sporting spaces and sectors. Further exploring the nexus between sport employees and POB represents new opportunities to move moves towards a better understanding of positivity in the context of the sport workplace.

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Perceived Internal CSR (Turker, 2009)

1. Our company encourages its employees to participate to the voluntarily activities
2. Our company policies encourage the employees to develop their skills and careers
3. The management of our company is primarily concerned with employees' needs and wants
4. Our company implements flexible policies to provide a good work and life balance for its employees
5. The managerial decisions related with the employees are usually fair
6. Our company supports employees who want to acquire additional education [or skills]

Psychological Capital (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007)

Self-efficacy

1. I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.
2. I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.
3. I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.

Hope

4. If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.
5. Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.
6. I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.
7. At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.

Optimism

8. I always look on the bright side things regarding my job.
9. I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.

Resilience

10. I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to.
11. I usually take stressful things at work in stride.
12. I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.

Gratitude (McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002)

1. I have so much in life to be thankful for.
2. If I had to list everything that I felt grateful for, it would be a very long list.
3. When I look at the world, I don't see much to be grateful for. (R)
4. I am grateful to a wide variety of people.
5. As I get older I find myself more able to appreciate the people, events, and situations that have been part of my life history.
6. Long amount of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone. (R)

Job Engagement (Saks, 2006)

1. I really "throw" myself into my job.
2. Sometimes I am so into my job that I lose track of time.
3. This job is all consuming; I am totally into it.
4. My mind often wanders and I think of other things when doing my job. (R)
5. I am highly engaged in this job.

Organizational Pride (Todd & Harris, 2009)

1. I feel especially respected in social settings when I discuss my job in sports.
2. My job gives me a feeling of importance when talking to others outside work.
3. In social settings, I feel valued and admired because of my job.

Job Satisfaction (Cammann et al., 1983)

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job
2. In general, I don't like my job (R)
3. In general, I like working here

APPENDIX B
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



Institutional Review Board

DATE: May 3, 2019

TO: Rammi Hazzaa
FROM: University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB

PROJECT TITLE: [1431723-1] The psychological foundations of corporate social responsibility:
An investigation of sport employee functioning

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: APPROVAL/VERIFICATION OF EXEMPT STATUS

DECISION DATE: May 3, 2019

EXPIRATION DATE: May 3, 2023

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB approves this project and verifies its status as EXEMPT according to federal IRB regulations.

Rammi,

Thank you for a very well written application. Your project has been approved and you may proceed with your data collection.

Best of luck with your research,

Nicole Morse

Research Compliance Manager

We will retain a copy of this correspondence within our records for a duration of 4 years.

If you have any questions, please contact Nicole Morse at 970-351-1910 or nicole.morse@unco.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB's records.

APPENDIX C
ELECTRONIC CONSENT FORM



CONSENT FORM FOR HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Project Title: The psychological foundations of corporate social responsibility in sport organizations: An investigation of sport employee functioning

Researcher: Rammi Hazzaa, Doctoral student, School of Sport & Exercise Science, Sport Administration

Phone Number: (510) 368-6013

Email : rammi.hazzaa@unco.edu

Research Advisor: Brent Oja, Ph.D., School of Sport & Exercise Science, Sport Administration

Phone: 970-351-1725

Email: brent.oja@unco.edu

We are conducting a study to better understand the impact that perceptions of corporate social responsibility have on employees' emotions and attitudes. You must be at least 18 years old to participate. You will be asked to provide information regarding your age, gender, job title, and tenure. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The survey should not take longer than 20 minutes to complete.

By agreeing to participate in this study you are allowing researchers to use survey responses and demographic information for academic purposes only and that the results may be published. To protect your identity, your name, and exact organization will not be identified in the study. Only two researchers will have access to your responses, which will be kept in private and under password protected computer files. Results will be reported in aggregate form. Although all possible efforts will be taken to maximize confidentiality, the researchers cannot guarantee confidentiality due to the electronic nature of the data collection.

The risks of this study are no greater than those normally confronted in a workplace or social setting. The risks associated with participating in this research are slight and improbable due to the exclusion of identifying information and nature of the survey items you will be asked to answer. The potential benefits to you include gaining familiarity completing surveys and contribution to better understanding the attitudes of sport and recreation employees in the workplace.

Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected and will not result in loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Having read the above and having had an opportunity to ask any questions, please complete the questionnaire if you would like to participate in this research. By completing the questionnaire, you give your permission to be included in this study as a participant. You may keep this form for future reference. If you have any concerns about your selection or treatment as a research participant, please contact Nicole Morse, Research Compliance Manager, Office of Research, Kepner Hall, University of Northern Colorado Greeley, CO 80639; 970-351-1910.