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Conditions that influence the relationship between Corporate Reputation, Corporate Social Responsibility, and the affective outcomes of employees

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October 2023

Departament of Human Resources and Organizational Consultancy

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Acknowledgments

I would like to express my gratitude and appreciation to everyone that supported me throughout this dissertation journey. Without your constant encouragement and guidance, I would have been able to finish this journey.

Firstly, I would like to thank my supervisor Ana Junça Silva, for their dedication and expertise. I want to thank you for all the patience, constant guidance and feedback.

Secondly, I want to thank my mother Ermelinda, my dad Vitor, my sister Vera, my boyfriend Antoine, and all of my friends. Without their support, and their encouragement to make me go, it wouldn’t have been possible.

Finally, I want to thank ISCTE-IUL that has been my home for the past five years. The commitment to excellence in education has been an inspiration to me. Being able to be in two schools inside ISCTE-IUL contributed to my intellectual growth and development.

Resumo

Este estudo tem como objetivo testar o papel mediador da reputação corporativa na relação entre a responsabilidade social corporativa e o compromisso interno com a marca. Pretendeu-se também testar se uma cultura individualista versus coletivista moderaria esta relação indireta. Foi utilizado um método quantitativo em que foi aplicado um inquérito online a uma amostra total de 265 participantes, distribuídos por dois países, Portugal e França. Os resultados confirmaram que a responsabilidade social das empresas melhorou o empenhamento interno dos trabalhadores na marca através do aumento da reputação da empresa. Também demonstraram que a cultura nacional moderou o caminho da reputação corporativa para o compromisso interno com a marca, e que o grau de individualismo ou coletivismo dentro de uma cultura afetou a forma como os empregados percebiam a reputação da organização. Por fim, também demonstrou que a cultura nacional moderou o efeito indireto da responsabilidade social corporativa no compromisso interno com a marca através da reputação corporativa, de tal forma que esta relação foi mais forte nos países coletivistas. O presente estudo contribui para reforçar a importância de adaptar a reputação corporativa e as iniciativas de responsabilidade social corporativa, como uma estratégia para melhorar o compromisso dos funcionários para com a sua marca.

Palavras-chave: Reputação Corporativa; Responsabilidade Social Corporativa; Compromisso Interno com a marca; Cultura nacional

JEL Classification: Y40 dissertations; O15 - Human Resources; Human Development; D23 – Organizational behavior

Abstract

This study aims to test the mediating role of corporate reputation on the relationship between corporate social responsibility and internal brand commitment. It was also intended to test whether an individualistic versus collectivistic culture would moderate this indirect relationship. A quantitative method was used in which an online survey was applied to a total sample of 265 participants that were distributed in two countries, such as Portugal and France. The results supported that corporate social responsibility improved employees' internal brand commitment through increases in corporate reputation. It also demonstrated that national culture moderated the path from corporate reputation to internal brand commitment, and that the degree of individualism or collectivism within a culture affected how employees perceived the reputation of the organization. Finally, it also showed that national culture moderated the indirect effect of corporate social responsibility on internal brand commitment through corporate reputation, in such a way, that this relationship was stronger in collectivistic countries. The present study contributes to reinforce the importance of adapting corporate reputation and corporate social responsibility initiatives, as a strategy to improve employees' commitment towards their brand.

Keywords: Corporate Reputation; Corporate Social Responsibility; Internal Brand Commitment; National Culture.

JEL classification: Y40 dissertations; O15 - Human Resources; Human Development; D23 – Organizational behavior

Index

Contents

1. Introduction 1
2. Literature Review 5
   2.1 Definition of constructs 5
   2.2 Relation between Corporate Reputation and Corporate Social Responsibility 11
   2.3 Relation between Corporate Reputation and Internal Brand Commitment 13
   2.4 Relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility and Internal Brand Commitment 15
   2.5 The moderating role of national culture 16
3. Methodology 21
   3.1 Participants 22
   3.2 Instruments 22
   3.3 Control variables 23
4. Results 25
   4.1 Data Analyses 25
   4.2 Results 25
5. Discussion and Conclusion 33
   5.1 Theoretical implications 33
   5.2 Practical Contributions 36
   5.3 Limitations and Future Research 37
6. References 39
7. ANNEX A 59

Figures Index

Figure 1 – Moderation/Mediation model

Figure 2 – The moderation/mediation model results

Figure 3 – Interaction between corporate reputation and the national culture (collectivistic versus individualistic)

Tables Index

Table 1 – Confirmatory factor analysis results

Table 2 – Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliabilities

Table 3 – Hypothesis Testing: Indirect effect

Table 4 – Moderation/Mediation results

Acronym List

CR – Corporate Reputation

CSR – Corporate Social Responsibility

IBC – Internal Brand Commitment

1. Introduction

The relationship between corporate social responsibility and subsequent increases in corporate reputation is a hot topic within the field of organizational behavior and management (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Brown & Dacin, 1997). The interplay between these variables can significantly impact the organization's performance (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001), employee morale (Brammer et al., 2007), employee attitude and behavior (Chhokar et al., 2007) and success (Turban & Cable, 2003). As a result, nowadays, organizations are increasingly developing efforts to adhere to a wide range of social responsibility practices (e.g., Yuan & Cao, 2022; Mukhuty et al., 2022).

According to ISO 26000 (2010), CSR relates to a wide range of transparent and ethical behaviors, in which the company assumes responsibility for decisions and activities that positively contribute to both the environment and society. For instance, CSR encompasses ethical practices and social responsibility (Carroll, 1979). This usually relates to the contribution of sustainable development, including health and social well-being; the concern about diverse stakeholders' expectations and needs; the compliance of the applicable laws and international behavior norms; and integration of the entire organization and throughout its relationship practices. According to the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984), the current connotation of CSR seems to refer a critical social issue that includes managerial practices aiming to address and balance diverse internal and external stakeholders' interests with an interest in improving the reputation of the company (Zhang et al., 2022). Thereby, CSR initiatives are the most profitable method to construct a good reputation and a positive perception in consumers and stakeholders (Aksak et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2021).

Corporate Reputation (CR) is the stakeholders' perception of an organization (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990) and it is strongly influenced by employer branding (Junça-Silva & Dias, 2022) and CSR (Aksak et al., 2016). Although the nature of CR has become critical for organizational survival and commitment, it can also manifest as a liability when it harms the organizational outcomes, including employees' affective states, such as internal brand commitment (Walker, 2010).

Internal brand commitment has emerged in achieving brand consistency and fostering a positive corporate culture (Brammer et al., 2007) and is often the result of internal brand management, such as CSR practices, and both provide the sources of sustainable competitive advantage (Qureshi et al., 2022). Internal brand commitment is the dedication and loyalty of employees towards their organization's brand and values (Mael & Ashforth, 1992); that is, it is a psychological and emotional attachment of employees to the brand they are working for (Ahn et al., 2016). It is a crucial driver for the success of many industries. Thus, the higher the corporate reputation, the higher the likelihood of employees developing a higher internal brand commitment (Qureshi et al., 2022).

The relationship between CSR and internal brand commitment may be shaped by the culture in which the organization operates (Mukhtar et al., 2023). Culture, comprising shared values, beliefs, and norms, may act as a moderator as it may shape employee's perception and responses to both CSR and CR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Nowadays, organizations operate in diverse cultural contexts, and have employees from different countries and cultures; therefore, individualism and collectivism play a crucial role in shaping the dynamics between CSR, CR, and internal brand commitment (Le, 2022).

Individualistic cultures emphasize individual autonomy, personal achievement, and self-interest (Hofstede, 1980). In these cultures, employees often prioritize their personal career development and self-fulfillment (Hofstede, 1980). Companies with a strong reputation for ethical practices and social responsibility that focus individuals' well-being may attract and retain top talent more effectively (Bhattacharya et al., 2008). Many Western countries tend to be individualist (MasterClass, 2022). Examples of individualistic societies could be the USA, United Kingdom, Western Europe, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand (Masterclass, 2022). Employees may respond positively to CSR programs that align with their personal beliefs (i.e., focused on their well-being or work-life balance) and less positively to CSR programs that are more focused on the community or society in general (Brammer et al., 2007); hence, individualistic cultures may buffer the beneficial effects of CSR on internal brand commitment via CR. A positive corporate reputation and meaningful CSR activities can foster a sense of belonging and commitment (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). On the opposite, collectivistic cultures prioritize group harmony, cooperation, and loyalty (Hofstede, 1980). In these cultures, employees often place a high value on the collective goals of the organization and its impact on society (Hofstede, 1980). Some countries are much more oriented towards collectivism than others, in particular, countries such as China, Japan, Indonesia, India, Ghana, and Guatemala (Metcalf, 2023). CSR initiatives in collectivists cultures may be seen as a reflection of the organization's commitment to societal harmony and community welfare (Agle et al., 1999). Employees from collectivistic cultures may be more inclined to engage with CSR activities that align with collective values (Agle et al., 1999). Thus, collectivistic cultures may potentially amplify the indirect relationship between CSR and internal brand commitment via CR.

The research question of this study is: “How Corporate Social Responsibility can influence the Internal Brand Commitment of employees through Corporate Reputation?”. Thus, this study aimed to analyze the relationship between corporate social responsibility and affective outcomes (i.e., internal brand commitment) through corporate reputation. It was also intended to test whether the national culture (individualistic versus collectivistic) would moderate the indirect effect of corporate social responsibility on internal brand commitment through corporate reputation. The goal was to assess how individualistic and collectivistic cultural dimensions influence the relationship between CSR, the perceived corporate reputation, and the commitment to the internal brand (Agle et al., 1999; Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Brammer et al., 2007; Brown & Dacin, 1997).

Overall, understanding the impact of CSR on internal brand commitment through CR is relevant for theoretical and practical reasons (Barakat et al., 2016; Singh & Misra, 2021). The aim is to help organizations align their corporate reputation management, CSR program design, and internal brand commitment to align with the cultural values of their employees and stakeholders. We thereby intend to expand the current knowledge in the fields of organizational behavior that are focused on CSR, CR, and internal brand commitment.

Moreover, understanding how culture potentially moderates this relationship is essential for organizations seeking to foster a dedicated and committed workforce, while maintaining a positive corporate reputation through responsible practices (Yuan & Cao, 2022). It may thereby provide valuable insights for organizations that want to improve their brand image (Junça-Silva & Dias, 2022), work engagement (Zhang et al., 2022), and good reputation (Mukhtar et al., 2023).

Lastly, this research can impact organizations that aim to improve their reputation and foster a committed workforce. By adapting their strategies, to fit the cultural needs, organizations can enhance their global competitiveness, improve their brand image, and foster a committed and engaged workforce. Studying the relationship between Corporate Reputation, Internal Brand Commitment and Corporate Social Responsibility is important since it was reported that 86% of the workforce does not want to keep working or apply to a company with a bad reputation (2DAYSMOOD, 2021) and 50% would not recommend it to their friends (Glassdoor Data Labs, December 2015).

This research follows a well-structured and logical framework, which begins with an introduction, that provides the necessary context, definition of the research problem, significance of the study, and the questions and objectives of the investigation. Subsequently, there is the literature review, which is divided, at first, with the definition and explanation of the key concept, then, the relation between the concepts, and the research hypotheses, as well as the existing gaps in the literature. The research model is then outlined, followed by a detailed methodology section that elucidates the research design, data collection methods, sample, and the measures employed. The results section presents the findings derived from the analysis of the collected data from the questionnaire. For that, it was used data, tables, graphs, and statistical analysis retrieved from SPSS. Finally, the last sections provide the discussion and conclusion, where the obtained results are discussed and compared with the literature review and the research hypotheses defined. It is also where we highlight the theoretical and practical contribution of the study, as well as the limitations and future research recommendations.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Definition of constructs

2.1.1 Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has its roots in the social activism of the 1960s and 70s (Roblek et al., 2019). The evolution of CSR can be categorized into three stages: Philanthropy, Regulated, and Instrumental/Strategic CSR (Hamidu et al., 2015; Homer & Gill, 2022). The first period - Philanthropy - was comprehended between the 1950s and 1960s, and it refers to the corporate discretionary responsibility or voluntarism towards the public (Hamidu et al., 2015). The second period - regulated CSR - was comprehended between the 1970s and the 1980s, and its characteristics were the extension of CSR commitments, CSR as a symbol of corporate citizenship, stakeholder relationship management, CR, socio-economic priorities, bridging the governance gap, stakeholders' rights, and legal and ethical responsibilities (Hamidu et al., 2015). The last period was instrumental/strategic CSR, which has been used since the 1990s and comprehends competitive strategy, environmental protection, sustainability, internationalization of CSR standards, transparency, and accountability (Hamidu, et al., 2015).

In recent years, awareness of CSR has grown across the globe (Vuong & Manh Bui, 2023). Corporate Social Responsibility is a process that is concerned with treating the stakeholders of a company or institution ethically or in a responsible manner. 'Ethically or responsibly' means treating key stakeholders in a manner deemed acceptable according to international norms (Hopkins, 2006). It encompasses the relationships between organizations and their stakeholders, including customers, employees, communities, owners/investors, government, suppliers, and competitors (Su & Jie, 2015). CSR is one of the most critical issues that organizations should address if they are to navigate highly competitive markets (Vuong & Manh Bui, 2023).

Organizations have been driven to prioritize CSR due to several key factors, such as moral obligations, contributing positively to society, recognizing the relevance of sustainability, the necessity of a license to operate, and the understanding that a strong reputation can bring benefits (Porter & Kramer, 2006; Vuong & Mahn Bui, 2023). Several organizations, such as Ben & Jerry', Discovery, Microsoft, and Kodak have incorporated CSR as a necessity (Jacques, 2010). Therefore, CSR appears to be a core part of an organization's strategy, making organizational practices more transparent and socially responsible (Asif et al., 2013), which became a success criterion (Maon et al., 2010).

CSR encompasses the voluntary integration of social and environmental concerns into business operations, benefiting employees, communities, and the environment. It involves ethical decision-making, compliance with laws, and stakeholder respect, aiming to improve quality of life, achieve sustainable success, and foster transparency (Crane, Matten & Spence, 2013). Most large companies, and even smaller ones, now feature CSR reports, managers, departments, or at least CSR projects, and the subject is increasingly promoted as a core area of management, next to marketing, accounting, or finance (Crane, Matten & Spence, 2013). For example, in India, companies such as Tata can pride themselves on more than 100 years of responsible business practices, including far-reaching philanthropic activities and community involvement (Elankumaran et al, 2005).

Key components of CSR include economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities (Hemingway, 2002). Implementing an effective CSR strategy involves alignment, metric development, coordination, and interdisciplinary approaches, with priorities including human and employee rights, environmental protection, community involvement, and supplier relations (Green Business Bureau, 2023; Roblek et al., 2019). It encompasses respect for gender equality, health, well-being, and worker training, ensuring the care of the environment, fighting against fraud and corruption, participating in improving the local community, integrating challenged people, and ensuring the well-being of consumers (Barrera-Cerezal, 2016).

CSR serves various purposes and motivations for businesses. For instance, some researchers suggested that some organizations adopt CSR as a cover-up or defensive measure, while others highlight the role of CSR in meeting societal expectations and reducing the need for external regulation (Hemingway, 2002; Visser, 2012; Homer & Gill, 2022). On the contrary, others argue that it can be an effective marketing tool, led by marketeers or used to enhance the company's brand and public reputation (Lantos, 2001; Lewis, 2003). Others advocate for CSR as the right way to behave or a means to promote profitability, competitive advantage, and new opportunities (Asgary & Li, 2016; Novak, 1996; Trevino and Nelson, 1999; Wan-Jan, 2006). It can also boost employee motivation, loyalty, and perception of social responsibility (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001), manage business risks, foster a positive brand image, and create a happy and productive workforce (Moratis & Brandt, 2017; Verbeke & Tung, 2013). Thus, one can conclude that CSR impacts the corporate reputation of a company (e.g., Khan & Digout, 2018).

2.1.2 Corporate Reputation

Corporate Reputation has gained recognition in strategy, corporate social responsibility, management, and marketing (Dowling, 2018), and it is one of the most valuable organizational assets and key intangible resources (Walker, 2010). It is a universal concept that is relevant for all organizations, regardless of their size and market (Khan & Digout, 2018).

Corporate reputation encompasses stakeholders' evaluations and perceptions of a company based on its past actions and future prospects (Walker, 2010; Wartick, 2002). It is thereby a dynamic concept that takes time to build and manage (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). It involves a bilateral relationship with the corporate image in which stakeholders develop perceptions based on behavior, communication, and symbolism on a daily basis (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). Evaluating corporate reputation involves dimensions such as environmental practices, leadership quality, governance, competence development, social responsibility, and ethical values (Abratt & Kleyn, 2012; Brammer & Pavelin, 2004; Dowling, 2004; Porter & Kramer, 2006). Drivers of corporate reputation include competitive effectiveness, market leadership, customer orientation, popularity, corporate culture, and communication (Markovič, Dorčák, & Pollák, 2019). Furthermore, corporate reputation plays a critical role in facilitating economic transactions and providing incentives for organizations to behave predictably and acceptably (Barnett & Pollock, 2012; Dowling, 2016).

Building a strong reputation requires strategic alignment of decisions around strategy, culture, and corporate communication (Abratt & Kleyn, 2012), which impacts market value and influences consumer choices and business decisions (Markovič, Dorčák, & Pollák, 2019; Jeffery, Rosenberg & McCabe, 2018). It has been demonstrated that a positive reputation contributes to better corporate performance, talent acquisition, trust, and confidence, while also fostering stakeholder engagement, survival, profitability, competitive advantage, customer retention, and media coverage (Dowling, 2016; Khan & Digout, 2018; Roberts & Dowling, 2002; Abratt & Kleyn, 2012). Conversely, behaving unreliably or dishonestly can have immediate and long-term consequences, impacting positive reputation and future actions toward the company (Walker, 2010), such as internal brand commitment or employee loyalty (O'Callaghan, 2013).

2.1.3 Internal Brand Commitment

Research on commitment has prioritized external factors, paying less attention to internal brand commitment (O'Callaghan, 2013). Allen and Meyer (1996) conceptualized organizational commitment as a "psychological state", emphasizing its implications on the decision to maintain organizational membership. This framework has become important to understand internal brand commitment in the context of corporate reputation (O'Callaghan, 2013).

Internal brand commitment refers to the employees' psychological attachment to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert additional effort toward achieving the brand's goals, known as brand citizenship behavior (Burmann et al., 2009). It encompasses both behavioral and attitudinal aspects (O'Callaghan, 2013) and is driven by brand orientation at the organizational level (Burmann et al., 2009). It plays a crucial role in shaping employees' brand-oriented attitudes and behaviors, such as cooperation behaviors or loyalty to the organization (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Thomson et al., 1999).

To generate brand commitment, three levels are recognized: (1) brand-centered human resources activities; (2) brand communications, and (3) brand leadership (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). Brand-centered human resources activities refer to the alignment of human resources activities with the brand (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005)., which includes recruiting employees who resonate with the brand values and training them to understand and embody the brand's identity (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). In this regard, it is possible to speculate how the HR department can play a major role in the internal branding initiative through the effective implementation of the HRM practices that are brand focused or centered (Al-Shuaibi & Shamsudin, 2016). Brand communication involves consistent messaging in advertising and marketing campaigns, managing public relations to maintain a positive image, engaging with the target audience, through social media, and creating relevant content that reinforces the brand's values and expertise (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). Brand communication causes customers to gain exposure to a brand, where the impact can maximize the highest increase in awareness and memory of the brand (Chinomona, 2016) and it can lead to brand trust (Zehir et al., 2011). Brand leadership involves aligning the brand's vision and strategy, encouraging innovation that aligns with brand promises, empowering employees to contribute to the brand's success, and ensuring the brand's adaptability to changing market conditions while staying true to its core values (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). It plays a significant role in ultimately influences consumers' decision-making process to purchase products and services (Khamwon & Sorataworn, 2021).

However, these levels only lead to brand commitment if corporate culture is aligned with brand identity (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). Several factors have been identified for the formation of brand commitment, such as internal and external communication, human resource management, leadership, and brand identity relevance (Ravens, 2013), and include drivers, such as compliance, identification, and internalization (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005).

Brand compliance was conceptualized as the adoption of relevant behavior by employees that conform to the organization's brand positioning to gain rewards and avoid penalties (Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2012). Hence, brand rewards were expected to influence brand compliance (Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2012). Brand compliance has some significant positive impact to helping behavior, sportsmanship, self-brand-development, and brand endorsements (Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2012). For example, in a company that rebranded with a focus on sustainability, mandatory training is provided to employees to introduce the new brand values (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). Some employees attend these sessions because it is required to adjust their behavior to meet the brand guidelines and avoid negative consequences (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). Their commitment is motivated by external pressures rather than genuine alignment with the brand's principles (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005).

Identification was mainly a perception of unity with a group of people or an organization (Cuong, 2020). Identification also happened when a person perceived oneself as psychologically intertwined with the traits of the group (Cuong, 2020). Brand identification was defined as the extent to which the client recognized oneself's image as overlapping the brand image (Cuong, 2020) and was also described as a person who understood the degree to which one determined oneself by the same attributes held by the brand (Cuong, 2020). For example, in a company that values innovation, employees willingly discuss and promote the brand's innovative projects on social media, where they even create content related to these initiatives without being prompted This reflects identification with the brand, where employees integrate the brand's values into their personal identity, going beyond the obligation to genuinely resonate with the brand's core principles (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005).

Internalization is the appropriation of core brand values into one's self-concept as guiding principles for actions (Burnmann & Zeplin, 2005). Employees tend to internalize the information distributed and demonstrate it in performance (Tseng, 2012). Employee brand congruence promotes internalization in the form of brand identification (Helm et al., 2016). The internalization of values in employees' behaviour initiates during the very first encounter with the employees for the right candidature in selection (Gulati, Mathur & Upadhyay, 2023). The internalization process progresses and strengthens from identification towards commitment

(Gulati, Mathur & Upadhyay, 2023). At the individual level, internal brand commitment is influenced by internal brand knowledge (employees' knowledge about the brand) and internal brand involvement (relevance of the brand for employees) (Baumgarth & Schmidt, 2010).

Internal brand commitment enhances business performance and brand success (Thomson et al., 1999). It is positively related to brand orientation, internal brand knowledge and involvement (Biendenbach & Manzhyski, 2016), brand identification, understanding (Piehler et al., 2016) and communication (Sharma & Kamalanabhan, 2014). High commitment has also been associated with favorable outcomes such as reduced turnover intention, lower absenteeism, increased organizational citizenship behavior, improved performance, higher customer satisfaction, sales achievement (Ravens, 2013), increased purchase intention, positive word-of-mouth, willingness to pay a premium price, and stronger self-brand connection (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Fullerton, 2005; Hur et al., 2011; Kemp & Bui, 2011; Kim et al., 2008; Lacey, 2007; Shuv-Ami, 2012; Wang, 2002).

2.1.4 National Culture: Individualism versus Collectivism (concept of Hofstede)

According to the "layers" model of culture (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 1992), assumptions, beliefs, and values constitute the deep core elements of culture, whereas tangible artefacts and patterns of activities and behaviours are culture's outwardly visible manifestations; much of individual behaviour is influenced by cultural values and norms. Following this view, one can assume that cultural values affect the relationship between CR and internal brand commitment.

Individualism and collectivism are two constructs of Hofstede's theory (1980), designed as a way of differentiating between those who think more about their own interests and goals and those who focus on the social systems and the interests of the community (Kececi, 2017). Cultural differences in individualism and collectivism are constituted by independent and interdependent views of the self (Fiske et al., 1998; Markus & Kitayama, 1991), and how each one values organizational practices (Cohen et al., 2016).

Individualism is a social pattern that consists of less linked individuals, who view themselves as independent of collectives (Triandis, 1995). Thus, this culture is characterized by self-orientation, identity based on the individual, low-context communications, emotional independence from institutions or organizations, individual achievement, privacy and autonomy (Maiyaki, 2013). People in this culture are primarily motivated by their own preferences, needs, goals, rights, and the contracts they have established with others (Triandis, 1995). They only perform their duty when their computation of the advantages and disadvantages suggests they would derive a clear benefit (Triandis, 1995); they are more prone to segmentation, having their private and work lives separated, and finding pleasure in individual achievement (Haque & Mohammad, 2013). Leaders in individualistic cultures with fewer bureaucracies are more inclined to distribute authority and are further from centralized decision-making (Kececi, 2017). Moreover, customers are more independent, self-centered, and demanding (Maiyaki, 2013). Countries with an individualistic culture are for instance, the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Italy, or France.

Collectivism is defined as a social pattern consisting of closely linked individuals who see themselves as parts of one or more groups (family, co-workers, tribe, nation) (Triandis, 1995). Collectivists are concerned with the goals of collectives and individuals, if such goals are consistent, then the individual does what the collective expects, asks, or demands, without opposing their will (Triandis, 1995). People from this culture carry out obligations and perform what is expected of them as specified by ingroup norms (Triandis, 1995). Individuals are more prone to integration, where their work and private lives are intermixed, and they find pleasure in group achievement. Leaders in collectivist cultures where paternalistic culture is more common are more authoritarian, do not transfer power and make central decisions (Kececi, 2017). Customers in this culture need harmony and interdependence in social relationships, are more tolerant of mistakes and have lower expectations of reliability but will have a greater need for the service provider to show empathy, assurance, and responsiveness (Maiyaki, 2013). The approach to recognising great performance is structured not to place an individual above the group (Pontevalle, 2022). In fact, the belief is more likely to be that “we” succeeded with little or no thought of how one individual was better than the other (Pontevall, 2022). Collectivist countries include for instance, Japan, Iran, Taiwan, Portugal, and Colombia (Maiyaki, 2013).

2.2 Relation between Corporate Reputation and Corporate Social Responsibility

Nowadays, Global Enterprises are paying more attention to the strategic role of CSR (Le, 2022). As it was stated by Islam et al. (2021), 90% of Fortune 500 companies are involved in CSR for their business survival and development (Le, 2022; Ozdora Aksak et al., 2016). Organizations are increasingly asked to demonstrate that their actions and policies meet various predetermined social and ethical criteria (Fombrun, 2005). Doing so can help them to build a positive reputation while failing to do so can be a source of reputational risk (Fombrun, 2005).

Several theories shed light on the connection between CSR and CR, such as the signaling theory; accordingly, it posits CR as an outcome of CSR initiatives, since they improve the organization's image and credibility when reported to the public (Basdeo et al., 2006; Javed et al., 2010; Pfau et al., 2008). Stakeholders, including customers, employees, creditors, suppliers, and communities, play a key role in shaping a company's reputation through CSR activities since they are concerned not only with the goods produced but also with how they are manufactured (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006; de Quevedo-Puente et al., 2007; Javed et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2020; Reverte, 2009). However, to attain a positive CR there is a need for stakeholder awareness and reliability of CSR activities through effective communication, such as websites, press releases, and reports (Ajayi & Mmutle, 2021; Coombs & Holladay, 2013). Building strong relationships with the community through CSR activities, particularly through special support from the local community and the media further strengthens the organizational reputation (Božić et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2017). For instance, BMW, Ferrari, Amazon, Barilla, and Daimler invested in their CSR activities and transmitted their progress using media (Sánchez-Torné et al., 2020). Indeed, one study found that 75% of a company's value is the result of its reputation (Creel, 2012). Directors and managers must recognize that, to improve CR, they need to focus not only on environmental protection and supporting social causes but also on enhancing Workplace conditions and governance practices, displaying transparency and ethical management (Sánchez-Torné et al., 2020).

CSR practices have a positive and significant relationship in elevating corporate reputation (Lai et al., 2010; Le, 2022; Maldonado-Guzman et al., 2017; Valdez-Juarez et al., 2018; Melo & Garrido-Morgado, 2012; Pérez & López, 2019; Mzembe et al., 2015; Lin-Hi & Blumberg, 2018; Keh & Xie, 2009; Islam et al., 2021), as it was stated by the Reputation Institute (2015); indeed, they showed that CSR-related aspects accounted for more than 40% of the reputation score (Lin-Hi & Blumberg, 2018). CSR is a dimension of reputation, and it means that an organization is reliable, honest, and committed to its stakeholders and society's well-being (Ajayi & Mmutle, 2021; Aksak et al., 2016; Schnietz & Epstein, 2005; Zhou et al., 2012). Organizations with higher levels of philanthropic expenditures (Bramner & Millington, 2005) - that are actively engaged in CSR activities - perform better than those that are not (Islam et al., 2021).

Several organizations adopted CSR activities to positively shape their firm reputation. For instance, BP and Shell successfully changed their image by stressing their environmental and social initiatives (e.g., Yoon et al., 2006). Further, automobile manufacturing companiesinitiated CSR activities supporting traffic safety, which led to less skepticism (Aksak et al., 2016). Countries, like Germany, Great Britain, South Korea, and Pakistan have launched broader CSR initiatives to improve social acceptance (Khan et al., 2013; Park et al., 2014; Silberhorn & Warren, 2007). In Pakistan, more than 60% of corporations contributed to community development, making donations, and charity for religious or humanitarian purposes (Yawar, 2009), and, in the long run, improved their CR (Khan et al., 2013). Practicing CSR can protect corporations from reputational damages (Fombrun & Gardberg, 2000) when they become embroiled in irresponsible behavior (e.g., Aqueveque, et al., 2018; Coombs & Holladay 2015; Doh et al. 2010; Koh et al. 2014; Peloza 2005).

Companies that effectively use a strong CSR strategy can increase their sales and profitability by expanding their consumer base through strong relationships, which is a major purpose of public relations (Aksak et al., 2016). CSR activities make corporations more attractive to stakeholders such as employees, business partners, shareholders, governments, and customers, resulting in increased brand loyalty, image, awareness, morale, motivation, financial performance, customer satisfaction and loyalty, long-term commitment, environmental protection, share value in financial and international environment, and market share, thereby reducing the risk of corporate reputation loss (Hsu, 2012; Lacey & Kennett-Hansel, 2010; Kazlauskaite, 2012; Taghian et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2019; Javed et al., 2020).

However, in some controversial industries, such as tobacco, nuclear energy, and weapons manufacturing, demonstrating social responsiveness may be unreliable where negative perceptions jeopardize the core of companies (Abdullah & Abdul, 2013; Gonzalez-Benito & Gonzalez-Benito, 2006; Grougiou et al., 2016). In these types of industries, stakeholders pressure companies into initiating CSR activities (Aqueveque et al., 2018), since CR depends on the evaluation of stakeholders in each setting (Agarwal et al., 2015). Recently, Dorobantu et al. (2017) showed that in contested markets, stakeholders' negative beliefs about these industries could trigger critical events, such as protests or boycotts that, as a consequence, negatively affected organizations. For instance, when Philip Morris started to support a youth smoking prevention campaign, both critics and consumers criticized its CSR campaign (Fairclough, 2002; Landman et al., 2002).

2.3 Relation between Corporate Reputation and Internal Brand Commitment

Employees are crucial for shaping and maintaining a company's reputation (Semnani et al., 2015; Yang & Driffield, 2012; Gill, 2015). They are the brand ambassadors willing to project internally and externally the organization's values (Gofton, 2000; Gündoğdu & Şeşen, 2022; Kumari et al., 2021; Shamma & Hassan, 2009). Senior management plays a crucial role in defining and communicating the brand values to foster employee identification and commitment (De Chernatony, 1999). They need to ensure that internal communication activities and human resources practices are aligned with the brand values (Gotsi, 2001). Successful organizations leverage employees to humanize their brand and promote public trust (Ali, 2013; Melewar, 2008).

Corporate reputation directly influences organizational commitment (Abbas & Sagsan, 2019; Almeida et al., 2019; Ferit & Faruk, 2021; Kurcharska, 2020; Kwan Soo Shin et al., 2019; Ramayah et al., 2022), especially affective commitment (Alniacik et al., 2011; Brammer et al., 2007; Coenen et al., 2010; Turker, 2009). Plus, the relationship between brand trust and brand commitment is largely influenced by the brand's reputation (Kwan Soo Shin et al., 2019; Sims, 2009). Working for a reputable company enhances commitment as it contributes to sustainable success and competitive advantage (Gündoğdu & Şeşen, 2022). Other studies have shown that employees' awareness of CR directly impacts their self-esteem, job satisfaction, and emotional commitment (Helm, 2011; Kim & Brymer, 2011; Magnini et al., 2013; Moncarz et al., 2009; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011; Lievens et al., 2007; Chun & Davies, 2010; Helm, 2007; Kashive & Khanna, 2017). Positive perceptions of CR motivate employees to enhance the firm's competitiveness (Fu, Li & Duan, 2014; Mael & Ashford, 1992). Thus, organizational commitment is crucial to organizational success (Lee et al., 2012; Meyer et al., 1989;). A strong reputation leads to higher employee engagement and commitment (Shirin & Kleyn, 2017), while an insecure environment weakens commitment (Ferit & Faruk, 2021; Gozukara & Yildirim, 2015). Therefore, organizations need to ensure that their employees have a positive perception of their organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dutton et al., 1994; Esenyel and Emeagwali, 2019; Kim et al., 2010).

In the banking sector, CSR activities positively impact both the bank's reputation and employees' organizational commitment (Gündoğdu & Şeşen, 2022). This finding supports the theory highlighting the importance of corporate reputation in generating positive signals that positively influence employees (Gündoğdu & Şeşen, 2022). Another study focused on shared-service call centers, found that low commitment was attributed to agents working for multiple brands (Burmann & König, 2011). Positive perceptions of an organization have been found to lead to brand commitment in various contexts, such as employees in Iran (Beheshtifar &

Allahyary, 2013), hotel employees in China (Fu et al., 2014), and small and medium-sized enterprises in Northern Cyprus (Esenyel, 2019).

2.4 Relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility and Internal Brand Commitment

CSR programs and initiatives have been recognized as social obligations and a way to satisfy the need of employees to work for organizations that are aligned with their values (Lee et al., 2013). By aligning their whole business and brand strategy with CSR, brands such as "Ben & Jerry," "Ecover," "Green Mountain," "Patagonia," and "Björk," have successfully established themselves as socially responsible brands (Brunner & Langner, 2017; Lindgreen et al., 2012).

Employees, as internal stakeholders, have a significant role in the development and implementation of CSR strategies (Prutina, 2016). The perception of CSR activities, such as human rights activism, training and development, health and well-being, work-life balance programs, and educational drives (Kuehnl et al., 2019) directly influences their organizational identification and commitment (Abbas, 2020; Gond et al., 2017; Kowalczyk & Kucharska, 2019; Kumari et al., 2021; Kurcharska, 2020; Rodrigo et al., 2019). Organizational commitment increases when employees perceive that their company works for social welfare through CSR initiatives that go beyond profit maximization (George et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2023).

Empirical studies have demonstrated that CSR practices play a crucial role in shaping employees' attitudes, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. For instance, Bouraoui et al. (2018), Mory et al. (2016), Choongo (2017), and Al-bdour et al. (2010) investigated the link between CSR and employee commitment in different contexts, such as private and public organizations in Tunisia, a German company, SMEs in Zambia, and the banking sector in Jordan, respectively. These studies found a direct positive relationship between CSR and employee commitment, especially affective commitment (Bouraoui et al., 2020; Gilder et al., 2005; Ramayah et al., 2022). Socially responsible corporations are more attractive to potential employees and benefit from larger applicant pools (Greening & Turban, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1996), and a more committed workforce due to the positive reputation associated with CSR (Peterson, 2004; Turker, 2009; Gündoğdu & Şeşen, 2022). Internal branding activities, focused on sustainability, for example, Health and Safety, enhance employee awareness and affective and continuance commitment to the corporate brand (Baumgarth & Schmidt, 2010; Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Qureshi et al., 2022; Thang & Fassin, 2017). Managers play a crucial role in communicating CSR actions to employees and fostering commitment to CSR, thereby driving integrative CSR efforts for a sustainable future (Bouraoui et al., 2020; Collier & Esteban, 2007).

Increasing social activities undertaken by organizations, such as reducing pollution rates, having a secure work environment, and high-quality products to customers increase the brand commitment of employees (Ebeid, 2010). Enhancing employees' social identity within a legitimate organization through CSR initiatives can positively impact job outcomes and corporate prestige (Chatzopoulou et al., 2021), especially in stigmatized industries (Silva et al., 2023). Therefore, it is argued that CSR is likely to have a positive relationship with brand commitment (Qureshi et al., 2022).

Hypothesis 1. Corporate social responsibility has a positive influence on internal brand commitment through corporate reputation.

2.5 The moderating role of national culture

2.5.1 National culture and Corporate Reputation

Only a few scholars have analyzed CR internationally, mostly comparing a small number of countries and linking CR's effects differences to selected Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Swoboda & Hirschamann, 2017).

Firms' behaviours may be perceived differently and may have a different impact on both corporate reputation and internal grand commitment in different national cultures (Swoboda & Hirschamann, 2017; Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023; Deephouse et al., 2016; Deephouse & Jaskiewick, 2013; Soleimani, Schneper & Newburry, 2014; Schiffman, Kanuk, & Hansen, 2008; Ali, Lynch, Melewar & Jin, 2015). National culture affects both managers' decisions and their actions (Thanetsunthorn, 2015) as well as the way through which different stakeholders perceive such actions (Maignan, 2001; Deephouse et al., 2016; Maignan, 2001; Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006). Culture may thereby create different leadership styles, managerial styles, motivation policies, and human resources management applications and it affects the implication and success of some management models that do not succeed in every culture (Dayanç & Çalışkan, 2012). For example, culture affects the CR-loyalty relationship of multinationals across nations because it affects how CR signals influence loyal behaviour towards multinationals, given that different cultural values exert different influences on consumer behaviour, which explains 71,7% of the country-level variance (Swoboda & Hirschamann, 2017). For instance, people from the United States are expected to rely more on corporate reputation than those in the United Kingdom due to their strict regulatory environment that considers lower risk and higher long-term institutional ownership associated with a higher corporate reputation (Ali, Lynch, Melewar & Jin, 2015).

The interaction between CR and individualism and collectivism has been studied in the literature and has been shown that the culture moderates the impact of CR on affective outcomes (Swoboda & Hirschamann, 2017). For instance, in countries with a high level of individualism, as for example, the United States, Australia and France (Gallén & Peraita, 2018) people look out for their own and their closest relatives' interests and satisfaction, without considering the interests of the rest of the society. Each stakeholder tends to care about their own interest (Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023), and thereby appraise less positively collectivistic actions such as community-based CSR (Mukhtar et al., 2023). People in more individualistic cultures evaluate corporations less favorably (Deephouse, Newburry & Soleimani, 2016), they perceive corporations, especially large ones, as constraining their abilities to control their own actions, even though they may be offsetting opportunities for self-development within large corporations, and this tends to lead to lower levels of work engagement and internal brand commitment (Deephouse, Newburry & Soleimani, 2016). Furthermore, in individualist cultures, where individual achievement and creativity are valued, corporations are more likely to be viewed as providing such opportunities, and thus, be viewed more favourably leading thereby to higher levels of internal brand commitment (Deephouse, Li & Newburry, 2009).

On the other hand, collectivism has a different interaction with CR because corporate social performance implies that the company considers the interests of all stakeholders (Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023). Stakeholders give a more positive evaluation of a company that is responsible for all of them because they feel that they are part of the same community and this improves their commitment and loyalty (Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023). Members of collectivist cultures may view large corporations as opportunities for collective interaction, solidarity, and achievement (Deephouse, Newbury & Soleimani, 2016). Countries with high collectivism, for example, Portugal (Gallén & Peralta, 2018), have a strong feeling of taking part in society (Hofstede, 2001) and value goals that favour society (Deephouse et al., 2016). They tend to be more integrated within groups and extended families (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004; Bartikowski et al., 2011). These people are expected to be more loyal and committed in their business relationships with the firms with which they deal (Ali, Lynch, Melewar & Jin, 2015).

Thus, based on the literature review, we hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 2. The culture (individualistic versus collectivistic) moderates the positive relationship between corporate reputation and internal brand commitment.

2.5.2 The moderated mediation model

Although the body of literature on Individualism/Collectivism has grown following the theory of Hofstede (1980), not much work has been done to link the construct to work-related variables such as job commitment and satisfaction (Hui, Yee & Eastman, 1995). Organizational commitment levels vary between nations (Gelade, Dobson & Auer, 2008), and the differences in the employee's behaviour become a consequence of the impact of the culture where they are members (Stankiewicz & Moczulska, 2012).

Individualism and collectivism vary both across cultures (Hofstede, 1980) and across individuals (Hui, 1988). Anglosphere countries, such as Germany, France, and the Netherlands are examples of Recognize Me countries - that is, individualistic societies (Ponte Valle, 2016; Stankiewicz & Moczulska, 2012). On the other hand, The Middle East, West Asia, and South America are examples of Acknowledge Us regions - that is, are more collectivist (Ponte Valle, 2016). Employees from individualistic companies compared to those from collectivistic companies, possess less ethically oriented behaviours (Akkah, 1990), and there is higher job satisfaction among collectivists than among individualists (Hui, Yee & Eastman, 1995). For example, China is a country with a collectivistic culture, where the employee's engagement becomes the result of a sense of obligation (Stankiewicz & Moczulska, 2012). They expect that other members of the group they belong to will look after them, and in turn, they owe loyalty to the group (Salter, Sharp & Chen, 2013).

Research has shown that national cultural values were a condition that impacted how stakeholders reacted to CSR initiatives (Thanestsunthorn, 2015). In fact, prior research has found evidence of the role of national culture as a moderator of the relationship between the companies' socially responsible policies and diverse outcomes, including affective commitment (Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023; Koprowski, Mazzioni, Magro & Rosa, 2021), and engagement (Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017). For instance, Eastern Asia and European countries have different perceptions of CSR practices (Thanetsunthorn, 2015); European corporations have a higher awareness of CSR and outperformance on each initiative, compared to other countries (Thanestsunthorn, 2015). Supporting evidence for the moderating effect of national culture on the relationship between

CSR and attitudes and behaviours was demonstrated by Svensson and colleagues (2009); they explored differences in ethical behaviour of corporations in Australia, Canada, and Sweden. The findings revealed that there was a variation in ethical corporate behaviours among corporations in different countries. They concluded that the way in which corporations outlined their approach to business ethics depended on the national cultural values where the corporations operated (Svensson et al., 2009). Halkos and Skouloudis (2017) also explored this influence. They considered 86 different countries, and they found evidence that national culture influenced national engagement in CSR issues and could potentially affect how stakeholders perceived socially responsible business initiatives.

Regarding the role of specific individualism/collectivism values in CSR, it was shown that more individualistic consumers attached less importance to corporate social behaviours (Maigan, 2001). High scores of individualisms demonstrated a negative perception of CSR disclosure and led to negative outcomes, including less attachment to such initiatives (Gallen & Peraita, 2018; Ho, Wang & Vitell, 2012; Thanetsunthorn, 2015; Halkos & Skouloudis, 2017) even on different aspects of CSR, such as society, health and safety, environmental-related CSR, employee and community (Radovanović et al., 2022; Thanetsunthorn, 2015). In individualistic societies, organizations tend to be less concerned about the impact of their businesses, the interests of society, the environment, employees, and other stakeholders. (Ringov & Zollo, 2007; Soschinski et al., 2021). Therefore, these individuals tended to engage with lower intensity in CSR practices (Ringov & Zollo, 2007; Soschinski et al., 2021; Thanetunthorn, 2015).

However, there were also other findings that mentioned that dimensions of individualism had a positive effect on perceived CSR practices and subsequent engagement (Thanetsunthorn, 2015); because it was expected that collectivist cultures would favour some groups and disadvantaged others, giving rise to corruption and ethical insensitivity (Vachon, 2010).

On the other hand, collectivism has a meaningful impact on employees' engagement with CSR practices (Dayanç & Çalışkan, 2012; García-Sanchez et al., 2016) and company environmental proactivity is influenced positively by in-group collectivism (Radovanović et al., 2022). For instance, in companies with public ownership in-group collectivism was found to have a significant moderating effect on how employees reacted to CSR practices (Radovanović et al., 2022). Unlike individualistic societies, collectivists had more significant concerns about the impact generated by their business given their tendency to be more concerned with others and provide more guidance to their stakeholders on CSR (García-Sánchez et al., 2016; Radovanović et al., 2022).

Thus, based on the above-mentioned references, we hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 3. The culture moderates the positive indirect relationship between corporate social responsibility and internal brand commitment through corporate reputation, in such a way that the relationship becomes stronger for those who live on a collectivistic national culture (versus individualistic culture) (see Figure 1).

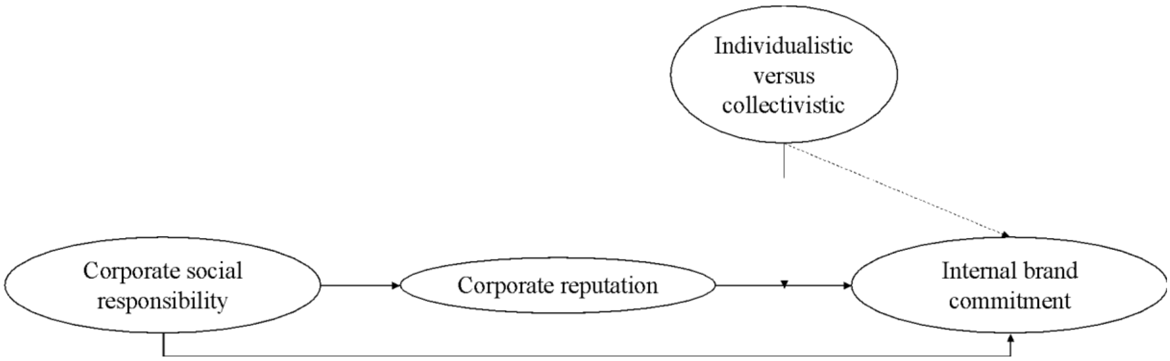


Figure 1: *Moderated mediation model*

3. Methodology

The objective of the research was to examine the condition that shape the relationship between Corporate Reputation, Corporate Social Responsibility, and the affective outcomes on employees by considering the national culture as a moderator. Additionally, it aimed to investigate the link between Corporate Reputation, Corporate Social Responsibility and how that can affect workers.

For the present research, a quantitative research method was utilized; it involves the systematic investigation of a social phenomenon using statistical or numerical data (Watson, 2015). This methodology relies on the measurement of variables and assumes that the phenomenon being studied can be effectively quantified (Watson, 2015). By employing this approach, the collected data can be quantified and analyzed, allowing for the extrapolation and generalization of findings to larger populations. Furthermore, this research employed correlational research, which is a type of nonexperimental research that enables the analysis and explanation of relationships among variables (Seeram, 2019). Correlational research design involves measuring two or more variables to examine the extent of their relationship (Seeram, 2019). This method is particularly appropriate for this research as it aims to explore the relationship between corporate social responsibility, corporate reputation and internal brand commitment.

To conduct quantitative research, a questionnaire (Annex 1) was created and distributed using Qualtrics Software to collect statistical data and thereby validate the research model. The questionnaire was developed to cater two languages, Portuguese and English, to facilitate data collection in two countries, Portugal and France. The questionnaire commenced with an introductory section that provided an overview of the research topic and included essential instructions for accurate completion. It also emphasized the assurance of anonymity and data confidentiality to encourage participants' trust. Participants were given the option to voluntarily accept or refuse participation in the research. To maximize the reach of the research, the questionnaire was distributed online through multiple platforms, such as LinkedIn, Facebook, Instagram, and WhatsApp. The questionnaire was shared through an anonymous link, simplifying engagement from a diverse audience. The sampling approach adopted for this study was non-probabilistic convenience sampling. Furthermore, a snowball sampling technique was also employed, allowing participants to share the survey with individuals within their networks.

3.1 Participants

The sample serves as a crucial means to establish the validity of the study by providing information about the target population. In this research, the target population comprised employees working in companies located in Portugal and France. To ensure the relevance and focus of the study, certain exclusion criteria were applied. Specifically, individuals who were unemployed, underage, or working for companies that did not engage in corporate social responsibility activities were excluded from the study.

Overall, participated in this study 265 working adults, of which 74.41% were female. On average, participants were 27 years old (SD=10.191) and ranged between 18 and 68 years. Most of the sample were Portuguese participants (77.73%). The remaining 22.27% of the participants were French. Most of the sample held a bachelor's degree (44.55%), followed by those who held, at least, a graduation (44.09%).

3.2 Instruments

The questionnaire was designed based on the theoretical framework and hypotheses of the study. The structure of the questionnaire incorporated scales that have been validated.

To measure corporate social responsibility (CSR), we used the scale developed by Turker (2009). It is composed of 18 items that assess a specific aspect of CSR (in which each aspect included three items), namely community domain: (e.g., “Contribute to the economic development of the region.”), employee: (e.g., “Treat employees equally.”), shareholder (e.g., “Provide sustainable growth and long-term success”), environment (e.g., “Prevent waste.”), society (e.g., “Make donations to social facilities.”), and customer (e.g., “Implement fair sales practices.”). Participants answered on 5-point Liker scale (1 – *Strongly Disagree*; 5 – *Strongly Agree*). The scale showed a good internal consistency (α= 0.89).

To measure corporate reputation, it was used the four-item scale developed by Turban et al. (1988). These evaluated the reputation of the company (e.g., "This company has a good public image") on a five-point Likert scale (1 – *Strongly Disagree*; 5 – *Strongly Agree*). The scale presented a good internal consistency (α= 0.76).

To measure internal brand commitment, it was used the scale adapted from Burmann et al. (2009) and O’Reilly and Chatman (1986). It included three items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree. An item example is “In my company, I feel like I am part of a family”. The scale presented a good internal consistency (α = 0.87).

National culture was measured with a control question “please, identify in which country do you live=. Responses were binary (1 – Portugal; 2 – France). Control variables were used to control for the potential influence on the criterion variable (i.e., internal brand commitment). Sex and age were used as both variables appear to influence affective responses such as internal brand commitment (e.g., Burmann et al., 2009).

3.3 Control variables

I used participants’ sex and age as controls. Sex was used as a control variable since some studies that shown that women tend to be more sensitive, and as such might influence the representation of the organization and their internal brand commitment (Burmann et al., 2009). Hence sex differences could influence both mediators and criterion variables. Furthermore, age could also account for influences on internal brand commitment, as there have been identified differences in the way older and younger appraise their relationship with the organization (Burmann et al., 2009).

4. Results

4.1 Data Analyses

In our moderated mediating model (see Figure 1), there was identified four types of variables: (1) predictor (corporate social responsibility); (2) criterion variable (internal brand commitment); (3) one mediator (corporate reputation), and (4) one moderator (the national culture).

SPSS 28.0 and the Software JASP (version 0.14.1) were used to test the proposed research models. Firstly, the multivariable normality test was done, to test if the sample data has been drawn from a normally distributed population (within some tolerance). Secondly, descriptive analysis was conducted to calculate the mean and standard deviation for each variable. Thirdly, correlational analysis was performed to examine whether social responsibility practices were associated with the mediators and the criterion variables. Fourthly, the measurement model's goodness of fit was evaluated. In this regard, we found that the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) < 0.08, Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) < 0.08, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) > 0.90, and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) > 0.90 evidenced a good fit (Kline, 2015).

Subsequently, to test Hypothesis 1, model 4 of the PROCESS macro in SPSS was used (Hayes, 2018). This macro is particularly important for estimating indirect effects as it uses the bootstrapping method (5000 times) which allows confidence intervals (CI) to be obtained. To be able to test Hypothesis 2, Model 1 (also from PROCESS) was used and to test Hypothesis 3, that is, the moderated mediation, Model 14 from PROCESS was used (Hayes, 2018). The products (moderations) were centered on their average value, and the bootstrapping method (5000 times) was used to calculate the confidence intervals.

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Common method bias and multicollinearity issues

Although, we have followed some recommended procedures to reduce the potential common method bias, by using closed-ended questions mixed in the survey (e.g., "I like my work"), and resorting to previously validated surveys to assess the variables under studied, it cannot be completely avoided (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In order, to understand its presence in the study, it is relevant to follow some recommendations (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

First, we performed Harman's single factor test to check for common method bias. The findings showed that the first factor only accounted for 33.04% of the total explained variance; hence, the common method bias was not a serious issue.

Second, as Kock (2015) suggested, we also performed a full collinearity evaluation test to check for the potential common method bias. The results demonstrated that all the variance inflation factor values ranged from 1.01 to 1.40; because the values were less than the cut-off point of 3.33, multicollinearity concern was not a severe issue in this study.

At last, we performed three confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to confirm the independence of the variables under study. To assess the adequacy of the model and compare it with other reasonable alternative models, diverse fit indices were analyzed (Hair et al., 2010), namely CFI, TLI, SRMR, and RMSEA. Model 1 was the hypothesized three-factor model comprising separate scales for corporate social responsibility, corporate reputation and internal brand commitment. Model 2 was a two-factor model where corporate reputation and internal brand commitment were combined into a unique factor. Model 3 was a one-factor solution in which all items were loaded onto a single factor. Table 1 shows that the three-factor model (Model 1) provided a good fit for the data (CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, SRMR = 0.03, and RMSEA = 0.08), and all other alternative models evidenced a poorer fit. These results together with the Cronbach alpha reliability scores across all the measurement scales evidenced the discriminant and convergent validity of the study; hence, we proceeded with the hypotheses testing.

Table 1 *– Confirmatory factor analysis results*

Models	$\chi 2$	Df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 1	900.524	264	0.96	0.95	0.12	0.08
Model 2	1792.12	263	0.89	0.88	0.19	0.12
Model 3	2,308.09	262	0.86	0.84	0.22	0.13

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics, together with the correlations and internal consistency indices of the variables under study. In line with Field (2009), the relatively small standard deviations compared to the mean scores of the variables suggested that the means represented the observed data.

As seen in Table 2, the reliability of the study variables is above the recommended limit of 0.70, in line with Fornell and Larker (1981). The result of convergent validity, which measures how the latent construct indicators correlate, reveals that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values for all latent constructs in the study are above 0.5. Further, the AVE for each construct was evaluated against its correlation with the other constructs, and AVE was larger than the construct's correlation with other constructs, hence, convergent validity was supported. While the discriminant validity that demonstrates how the indicators of each latent variable are unique was valid, as the square roots of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) indicated by the diagonal value of each latent variable were all greater than the correlations of each variable (Hair et al., 2010), further we also analysed the Maximum Shared Variance (MSV); the results of the MSV showed that it was lower than the AVE for all the constructs; thus, the discriminant validity was supported.

Thus, the reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the study were confirmed. Based on the validity of the study instrument, we proceeded and analyzed the study hypotheses. As expected, all variables showed significant correlations with each other and in the expected direction.

Table 2 *– Descriptive Statistics, correlations and reliabilities*

Variable	*M*	*SD*	CR	AVE	MSV	1	2	3	4	5
1. CSR	3.59[1]	0.64	0.95	0.87	0.28	(0.93)				
2. Corporate reputation	4.10[1]	1.05	0.88	0.71	0.05	0.13	(0.84)			
3. IBC	3.99[1]	0.87	0.93	0.81	0.28	0.53**	0.09	(0.90)		
4. Culture[2]	-	-		-	-	-0.19*	-0.22**	-0.16*	-	
5. Age	27.63	10.18	-	-	-	0.02	0.07	0.15	-0.01	-
6. Sex[3]	-	-	-	-	-	-0.03	-0.11	-0.09	0.11	-0.02

[2] Culture codes: 1 – Collectivistic; 2 – Individualistic.

[3] Sex codes: 1 – female; 2 – male.

The square roots of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) are in brackets. M = Mean; SD = Standard-deviation; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; MSV = Maximum Shared Variance. CR = Composite Reliability. CSR = Corporate Social Responsibility. IBC = Internal Brand Commitment.

Note. $N = 265$; $^{*}p < 0.05$ $^{**}p < 0.001$.
[1]Scale ranging from 1 to 5.

Hypothesis 1

To test hypothesis 1, one mediation test (model 4) was performed using the PROCESS macro in SPSS version 28 (Hayes, 2018). Mediation is significant when the predictor variable (X = corporate social responsibility) influences the criterion variable (Y = internal brand commitment) through the mediating variable (M = corporate reputation). The total effect of X on Y represents the total effect (c). The direct effect of X on Y after adding the mediating variable (M) is c'. The effect of X on M is effect a, and the effect of M on Y (controlling for the effect of X) is effect b. The indirect effect between Y and X is defined as the ab effect. In most cases, the indirect effect (ab) represents the difference between c and c’ and, as such, the total effect (c) can be obtained as the sum of c’ and ab. As a rule, we have a partial mediation, when the indirect effect value (ab) is smaller than the total effect value (c) with the same sign.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the relationship between corporate social responsibility and internal brand commitment would be mediated by corporate reputation. The results showed that the indirect effect of corporate social responsibility on internal brand commitment through corporate reputation was 0.04, with a 95% CI [0.00, 0.13] that did not include zero, indicating, as such, a statistically significant indirect effect. The model explained 24% (R^2=0.24, $p < 0.01$) of the variance in internal brand commitment. The relationships between corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation (a; B = 0.36, $p <0.05$) and between corporate reputation and internal brand commitment (b; B = 0.34, $p < 0.05$) were significant. After the introduction of corporate reputation, the effect of corporate social responsibility on internal brand commitment was still statistically significant (c'; B = 0.60, $p < 0.001$), revealing a partial mediation. As such, hypothesis 1 was supported by the data (see table 3).

Table 3 *– Hypothesis Testing: indirect effect*

	Model 1		Model 2	
	Corporate reputation		Internal brand commitment	
	B	SE	*b*	SE
Intercept	2.69***	0.45	1.41***	0.38
CSR	0.36***	0.12	0.61***	0.10
Corporate reputation	-	-	0.34**	0.08
Sex[a]	-0.22	0.18	-0.16	0.13
Age	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
F	8.69**		24.43***	
R^2	0.05		0.24	
D*f*	1, 156		2, 155	
Direct Effect	0.36***	0.12	0.61***	0.10

Indirect Effect	-	0.04**	0.03
CI 95% indirect Effect		0.00	0.13

n = 265. Non standardized coeffeicients. CI= Confidence interval.

[a] 1 = female, 2 = male.

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

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 assumed that the national culture would moderate the relationship between corporate reputation and internal brand commitment. To test the hypothesis, we used model 1 PROCESS (Hayes, 2018). The results revealed a significant interaction effect between corporate reputation and the national culture toward internal brand commitment (B = -0.78, SE = 0.14, $\Delta R^2 = 0.17$, $F_{(1, 146)} = 32.21$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 2 received support from the data.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 expected that the indirect effect of corporate social responsibility on internal brand commitment through corporate reputation would depend on the moderation of the national country (collectivistic versus individualistic), such that it would be stronger for collectivistic cultures (versus individualistic). To test this hypothesis, the moderated mediation model we used model 14 in PROCESS. The results revealed that the index associated with mediation moderation was statistically significant (B= -0.22, SE = 0.08, 95% CI [-0.38, -0.05] (see table 4 and Figure 2).

__Table 4__ - Moderated mediation results.

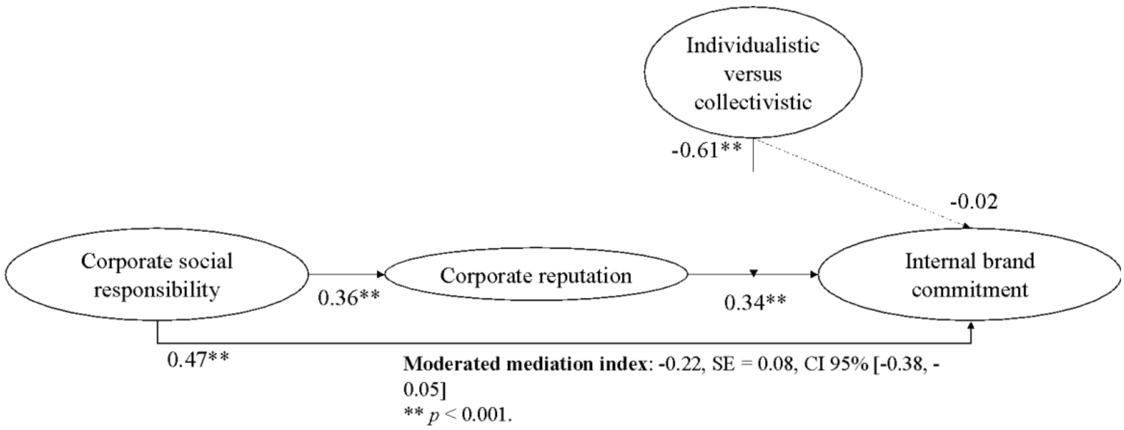
	Corporate reputation	Internal brand commitment
Corporate social responsibility	0.36***, R^2 = 0.07	0.47, R^2 = 0.33
Corporate reputation	-	0.34**
National culture	-	-0.02
Corporate reputation * National culture	-	-0.61***
Sex[a]	-0.22	-0.16
Age	0.01	-0.00
R^2 =0.33 $F_{(6, 139)}$ = 11.37, p < 0.001, ΔR^2 = 0.09, $F_{(1, 139)}$ = 17.93, p < 0.001		

n = 265. Non standardized coefficients. CI = Confidence interval.

[a] 1 = female, 2 = male.

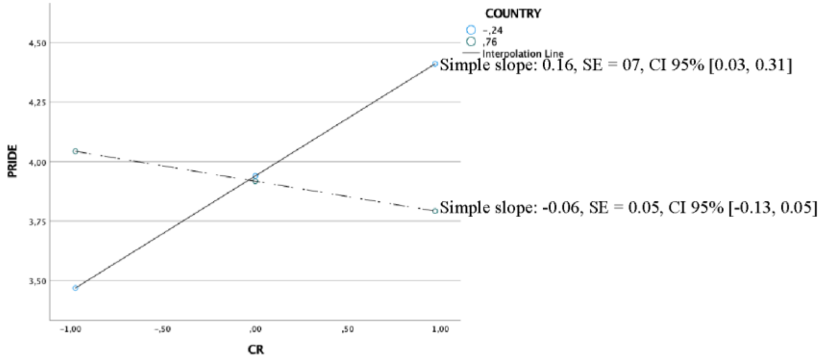
* p<0.05. ** p<0.01. *** p<0.001.

__Figure 2__ - The moderated mediation model results.



The significant interaction indicated that the indirect effect varied depending on the different levels of the moderating variable, in this case, the national culture. Analyzing the simple slopes, as suggested by Dawson and Richter (2006), we could conclude that the indirect effect was significant and stronger when the national culture was collectivistic (- 1 SD: B = 0.16, SE = 0.07, p < 0.01, 95% CI [0.03, 0.31]) and lost strength and significance as the culture becomes individualistic (+ 1SD: B = -0.06, SE = 0.05, p > 0.05, 95% CI [-0.13, 0.05]) (see figure 3). Thus, h3 was supported by the data.

Figure 3 *- Interaction between corporate reputation and the national culture (collectivistic versus individualistic).*



5. Discussion and Conclusion

CSR has been gaining a presence in both literature and organizations (Turker, 2009; Carroll, 2021). CSR has been portrayed as a critical element in how companies can achieve a better CR and elevate the commitment of employees toward their company's brand (Bouraoui et al., 2018; Mory et al., 2016; Choongo, 2017 & Al-bdour et al., 2010). Furthermore, CR has been described as one of the most important factors an organization should consider when the aim is a committed workforce (Bhattacharya et al., 2008), able to retain the most talented ones (Walker, 2010). Hence, this research is timely and relevant as it is important to better understand how and when CSR impacts internal brand commitment.

This research explores the relationship between CSR, CR, and internal brand commitment. It further tests the moderating role of national culture (individualism versus collectivism) in the relationship between CSR and internal brand commitment through increases in CR. Considering the previous literature about the variables, the aim is to develop a model that explains the relationship (CR-CSR-IBC) but at the same time introduces a new variable (national culture – individualism versus collectivism).

The findings show that CSR practices promote a positive image of the company which enhances its reputation and, in turn, increases employees' internal brand commitment. This relationship is moderated by the country in which employees are located in a way that being in a collectivistic culture strengthens the indirect relationship (when compared to those who are located in an individualistic culture).

5.1 Theoretical implications

From a theoretical perspective, the mediation and moderation relationship studied in the present research has not been previously tested, which demonstrates that the research model implemented brings a new added value and approach to the literature.

First, the results show that CSR improves employees' internal brand commitment through increases in CR. This finding is aligned with the previous literature on the topic. Organizations have been prioritizing CSR due to moral obligations, and because it brings a positive impact on society, and enhances a positive reputation, which can bring several benefits to the company (Porter & Krammer, 2006). Organizations building strong relationships with the community through CSR initiatives tend to garner a favorable reputation, which influences the stakeholders' perceptions and organizational image leading thereby to positive attitudes, such as internal brand commitment (Božić et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2017; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen

& Bhattacharya, 2001). Several theories shed light on this connection, such as the Signaling theory (Spence, 1973), which posits a positive CR as an outcome of CSR initiatives, since they will improve the organization's image and credibility (Basdeo et al., 2006; Javed et al., 2010; Pfau et al., 2008), which therefore, will improve the commitment of employees towards their brand. CSR programs and initiatives have been shown to satisfy the needs of employees, motivating them to work for organizations with whom they share values and social objectives (Lee et al., 2013). CSR activities, such as human rights or animal rights activism, and charity (Kuehnl et al., 2019), directly influence organizational identification and commitment (Abbas, 2020; Gond et al., 2017; Kowalczyk & Kucharska, 2019; Kumari et al., 2021; Kurcharska, 2020; Rodrigo et al., 2019). Furthermore, the positive reputation of a company has a profound influence on internal stakeholders, particularly employees, who tend to exhibit a higher level of commitment to the brand (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Considering that it is essential for organizations to ensure the internal brand commitment of employees, it is important to promote a perception of socially responsible practices that can be useful in constructing a positive reputation for the company. There are several studies that prove the positive influence of CSR on internal brand commitment, such as George et al (2020), and Silva et al (2023) which posit that organizational commitment increases when employees perceive that their company works for social welfare through Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives. Therefore, this relationship can be strengthened with the introduction of corporate reputation, since it states that working for a reputable company enhances commitment as it contributes to sustainable success and competitive advantage (Gündoğdu & Şeşen, 2022). In conclusion, it is possible to argue that employees are more committed to a brand that practices socially responsible activities, as it tends to have a better reputation.

Second, the findings show that the national culture moderates the path from CR to internal brand commitment. National culture (individualism versus collectivism) exerts a significant influence on organizational behaviour and values, which, therefore, can impact how employees perceive and engage with their organization (Hofstede, 1980). Firm's behaviours may be perceived differently and have a different impact on corporate reputation in different national cultures (Swoboda & Hirschamann, 2017; Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023; Deephouse et al., 2016; Deephouse & Jaskiewick, 2013; Soleimani, Schneper & Newburry, 2014; Schiffman, Kanuk, & Hansen, 2008; Ali, Lynch, Melewar & Jin, 2015). The degree of individualism or collectivism within a culture can affect how employees perceive the reputation of the company influencing a wide range of attitudes, such as internal brand commitment. Individualistic cultures tend to prioritize personal achievements; hence CR is perceived differently than in collectivistic cultures, which prioritize group harmony. Therefore, it is important to consider the moderating role of national culture on shaping the relationship between corporate reputation and internal brand commitment, since in individualistic cultures, the employee may identify more with the organization's brand based on personal achievements and recognition, influencing their internal brand commitment differently, when compared to collectivistic cultures, where they value group cohesion and a shared identity (Triandis, 1995). All in all, the national culture moderates the relationship between CR and internal brand commitment, because different cultural contexts can lead employees to have different perspectives about the organization's image.

Finally, the results evidence that the national culture moderates the indirect effect of CSR on internal brand commitment through CR. That is, in a collectivistic culture (Portugal), the positive relationship between corporate social responsibility and internal brand commitment via corporate reputation becomes stronger (when compared to those living in an individualistic culture – France). The role of cultural dimensions in shaping the relationship between CSR, corporate reputation, and employee brand commitment can vary due to the different cultural orientations that the country where the employee is located. This finding is thereby related to prior research that explored the importance of cultural values in shaping how CSR initiatives are perceived and embraced by employees (Kim et al., 2012; Mu et al., 2017). In collectivistic cultures, where shared values and communal harmony are crucial values, CSR initiatives that align with these values tend to impact more employees, which therefore enhances the corporate reputation and fosters a stronger internal brand commitment (Kim et al., 2012; Mu et al., 2017). Therefore, organizations should consider and adapt their CSR strategies based on the cultural context in which operate, since previous research has found evidence that national culture acts as an influencing factor in the design and implementation of companies' socially responsible policies and practices (Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023; Koprowski, Mazzioni, Magro & Rosa, 2021). Overall, if companies take into consideration the moderating influence of individualism and collectivism on the relationship between CSR, corporate reputation, and internal brand commitment, organizations can create more effective CSR campaigns that are aligned with the cultural values of the local culture of the country.

In conclusion, the perceptions of CSR practices have an indirect effect on constructing a positive reputation, which therefore, impacts the employees' internal brand commitment, in such a way, that this relationship is stronger in collectivistic countries (when compared to individualistic).

5.2 Practical Contributions

First, it can be argued that CSR initiatives and policies can boost a positive corporate reputation, hence, influencing employees' perception and commitment towards their company's brand (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001). In terms of practical contributions, it may help companies that aim to enhance their internal brand commitment. For instance, to achieve a committed workforce, it is important to implement CSR initiatives that can foster a positive corporate reputation and drive stronger internal brand commitment. Therefore, by implementing CSR initiatives, such as cause-related marketing (CRM), philanthropic minority aid (Mahmood & Bashir, 2020) that enhance a positive reputation and internal brand commitment, organizations can achieve higher advantages, such as organizational success, performance, and satisfaction.

Further, individualism versus collectivism can impact the perception of corporate reputation within organizations that operate across diverse cultural contexts (Auh et al., 2013). Therefore, the culture in which the employee is located can impact their perceptions of the company and their degree of commitment, which means that organizations should consider the national culture when defining the CSR practices to adopt.

Further, cross-cultural management and cultural dimensions theory (Hofstede, 1980) should be taken into consideration when exploring the link between CR and internal brand commitment, since reputation varies across countries (Swoboda & Hirschamann, 2017; Perez-Cornejo, de Quevedo-Puente & Delgado-Garcia, 2023; Deephouse et al., 2016; Deephouse & Jaskiewick, 2013; Soleimani, Schneper & Newburry, 2014; Schiffman, Kanuk, & Hansen, 2008; Ali, Lynch, Melewar & Jin, 2015). Thus, it can help organizations that operate in multiple cultural environments to use reputation strategies, according to the country they are located in. For example, in collectivistic cultures, using more group initiatives, such as collective decision-making, workplace teams, peer accountability, team-building activities, would attract and commit employees more effectively, while in individualistic having more individual initiatives, such as entrepreneurship, performance-based pay, independent decision-making, and competitive work environment, would be an added value. Plus, organizations can align their Corporate Social Responsibility activities and initiatives to the cultural values of the country, therefore improving the commitment of employees towards their brand. For example, adapting CSR efforts and reputation initiatives are aligned with the cultural values of Collectivistic countries, employees in that culture will feel more committed and loyal to the brand and the organizational performance will increase.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

When constructing empirical research, it is important to know that each study has its limitations, that could be related to the data collection, type of method employed, sample size, or the outcomes and hypothesis testing. This research has some limitations that must be highlighted. One limitation is the sample size; that is, there is a difference in the sample size of those who are in Portugal (a collectivistic country) when compared to France (an individualistic country), therefore the sample size might not be representative of the entire population. To improve future research on the present topic, it would be important to extrapolate a higher sample to make it representative of the population. Therefore, in future studies, there should be included both a range of individualistic and collectivistic cultures, encompassing more than one country on each side, to have a more representative population.

Another limitation is the fact that the questionnaire was distributed online, which could be difficult if any participant had any doubts or questions, they would like to clarify. Moreover, the use of self-reported data could lead to common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012). However, some measures were followed to understand if the common method bias was a severe issue, and as we could see (in the results section), it was not a concern.

Culture is a sensitive topic to study, so cross-cultural variability can be seen as a limitation, since it is difficult to make direct comparisons and generalizations, as cultures differ significantly in terms of values, norms, and behaviors. For example, it is difficult to generate cultural values since we do not have access to other contexts that could influence the weakness or strength of the relationship between CSR, CR, and internal brand commitment. Therefore, external factors could also be considered as a limitation, because some of them, such as economic conditions or political changes could influence corporate reputation, CSR practices, and internal brand commitment.

Another limitation is causality. Demonstrating causality in the relationship between CSR, CR and Internal Brand Commitment can be challenging since we cannot determine it, as the study relies on a cross-sectional design. Thus, future studies could use alternative designs, for instance, a longitudinal one, that could help to establish causality between the variables.

In this research, it was not specified what role the participants had in their organization; thus, future research could also consider the point of view of leaders and managers and add a new variable that could also moderate the relationship, which could be a hierarchy in the organization.

Lastly, it would also be interesting to compare the relationship between CSR, CR, and internal brand commitment, in terms of the field in which the participants work. The degree of the relationship could be higher, for example, on participants working in consultancy companies when compared to participants working in law firms. Adding to this relationship, culture could also be a moderator of the relationship, and to understand if the type of business could also impact the view of Individualism and Collectivism.

5.4 Conclusion

This research showed that CSR significantly influences employee commitment to their brand, primarily through the enhancement of corporate reputation. This relationship underscores the interconnected and interdependent nature of these three components within organizations. Furthermore, this study highlighted the substantial influence of culture as a moderator. Specifically, in collectivistic cultures, employees exhibited higher levels of brand commitment and held more favorable perceptions of their organizations.

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7. ANNEX A

Introduction of the questionnaire

Hello everybody!

My name is Micaela Guilherme and I am a student of the Master in Human Resources Management and Organizational Consulting at ISCTE Business School. At the moment, I am in the last year of the Master's, and in the context of the Master's Dissertation, I am working on my thesis, about: "Conditions that influence the relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Reputation and affective results of workers".

In this sense, I developed the following questionnaire to explore the theme, which I ask for your collaboration. Participation in the questionnaire is optional and voluntary, and all information collected will be anonymous and confidential. I will only use the data within the framework of my dissertation and for statistical purposes.

Do you agree to participate in the questionnaire?

() Yes

() No

1. Gender

- Feminine
- Masculine
- Other

2. Age

3. What is your nationality?

- Portuguese
- French
- Italian
- Brazilian
- Spanish

- Other

4. Academic Education

- Up to 9th grade (3rd cycle)
- Secondary Education (10th, 11th, 12th)
- Bachelor
- Post-Graduation
- Master
- Doctorate
- Currently in University

5. What is your professional status?

- Student
- Student/Worker
- Employed
- Retired
- Unemployed
- Other

6. Does the company you work for practice social responsibility activities?

Examples of social responsibility activities: charitable giving, carbon footprint reduction, environmental responsibility, diversity, equality, and inclusion.

- Yes
- No

(The questionnaire will end, for the participants that don't have socially responsible activities in its company)

7. Respond to the following statements using the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- I know a lot about this company
- I am very familiar with this company
- I am familiar with the products and services of this company

8. Respond to the following statements using the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

My work:

- Offers excellent promotion possibilities
- Provides good professional paths
- Provides high morale for employees
- Provides challenging and interesting work
- Offers the opportunity to use my skills
- Provides opportunity for new learnings experiences

9. Respond to the following statements using the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

I am proud:

- Of being an employee of this company
- Telling others I work for this company
- In identifying myself personally with this company

10. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- Contribute to the economic development of the region
- Create jobs for people in the region
- Source products and raw materials locally

11. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- Define decent working conditions
- Treat workers equally
- Offer adequate compensation

12. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- Properly investing shareholder capital
- Communicate openly and honestly shareholder decisions with employees
- Deliver sustainable growth and long-term success

13. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- Reduce energy consumption
- Reduce emissions such as CO2
- Prevent Waste

14. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- Employ people with disabilities

- Employing the long-term unemployed
- Make donations to social facilities

15. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- Implementing fair selling practices
- Label products clearly and understandably
- Comply with quality standards

16. Thinking about the organization where you work, indicate the frequency with which each of the situations presented is valued, taking into account the following scale: 1 – Never; 2 – Rarely; 3 – Sometimes; 4 – Almost always; 5 – Always

- Take risks (make decisions that imply uncertainty about the results)
- Mutual understanding (understanding between people) ´
- Clear objectives (to know concretely and the goals to be achieved)
- Emphasis on task accomplishment (concerning with achieving results)
- Openness to the criticism (acceptance of other opinions, even if different)
- High performance standards (doing a lot and well)
- Compliance with rules (people are encouraged to comply with rules)
- Established procedure (formal, written rules and instructions)
- Flexibility (adaptations to the circumstances)
- Formalization (everything put in writing)
- Support for colleagues (concern for co-workers)
- Mutual trust (people trust each other)
- Efficiency (doing the most possible with the fewest resources)
- Pioneering spirit (striving to be the first and the best)
- Respect for authority (respect/value superiors)

17. In this section I present some questions related to the way in which problems at work are usually dealt with in your organization. Please indicate whether the following questions apply (or not) to what your organization does to deal with problems at work,

where 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Agree; 5 – Completely agree.

- In my Organization, by mastering a task people can learn a lot from their mistakes
- In my Organization we make mistakes, however we do not give up on the final objective
- In my Organization, if people are unable to continue their work after an error they can count on peers

18. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the company where you currently work, considering the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- I feel that my job is wearing me out
- When I finish my workday, I feel drained
- I feel like I’m working too hard

19. Respond to the following statements using the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- I am very responsible for my actions at work
- I often have to explain why I do certain things at work
- My management holds me accountable for all my decisions

20. Respond to the following statements using the following scale: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2 – Partially Disagree; 3 – Neither agree nor disagree; 4 – Partially agree; 5 – Strongly Agree.

- I can satisfy my own needs and the needs of the important people in my life
- I can manage my duties related to family and work-life in a balanced way
- I can gain enough time for myself while preserving the balance between my work-life and family life
- I feel loyalty to my roles both in my professional life and in my family
- I can deal with situations that arise due to the conflict between my specific roles in my professional and family life

Thank you for taking the time to complete my questionnaire.

Your answer has been recorded!

If you have any questions about the questionnaire, you can contact me via email:

micaela_cristina_guilherme@iscte-iul.pt