iscte

INSTITUTO
UNIVERSITÁRIO
DE LISBOA

Are employee-focused CSR practices promoting psychological well-being at work? The mediating role of perceived organizational support in a comparison study of affective and psychological well-being of employees

Emily Luisa Kau

Master in Human Resources Management and Organizational Consulting

Supervisor:
PhD, Ana Patrícia Pereira Duarte Baltasar, Integrated Researcher,
Business Research Unit (BRU-IUL), ISCTE-IUL

October, 2023

iscte

**BUSINESS
SCHOOL**

Department of Human Resources and Organizational Behavior

Are employee-focused CSR practices promoting psychological well-being at work? The role of perceived organizational support in a comparison study of affective and psychological well-being of employees

Emily Luisa Kau

Human Resources Management and Organizational Consulting

Supervisor:
PhD, Ana Patrícia Pereira Duarte Baltasar, Integrated Researcher,
Business Research Unit (BRU-IUL), ISCTE-IUL

October, 2023

Acknowledgments

With the end of this thesis, I would like to thank my family and friends who not only supported me a lot during this writing process, but who were always there for me during my move to study abroad in Lisbon.

Of course, I would not be anywhere without my parents and my sister, so thank you for always standing by my side no matter how far away I am.

Thank you to Lisa and Freddy for our lifelong friendship and supporting me from back home.

Thank you to Fabian and Maren for creating unforgettable Lisbon memories with me.

Thank you to Peri for always making me smile whenever my nerves were on edge.

And another thank you goes out to Lars and Alica for always taking care of me and giving me emotional and parental support.

And finally, a big thank you to Professor Duarte who guided and advised me throughout this whole process of writing my thesis.

Abstract

Initially, the commitment to socially responsible practices in running a business has been primarily aligned to ensure economic performance by addressing issues regarding external stakeholders. The focus of corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices has then gradually shifted to internal stakeholders, namely employees. Thereby, previous research determined several favorable employee outcomes predicted by an adequate implementation of CSR practices in organizations including higher levels of organizational commitment, organizational identification or well-being. Since well-being at work has been usually determined by moods and emotional states in form of positive and negative affect, little attention was paid to employees' deeper-rooted psychological well-being in the context of employee-focused CSR activities. Given that employees perceive CSR practices in terms of the extent to which they feel being taken care of and supported, it is not only of interest to examine the general potential impact of CSR practices on employees' psychological well-being compared to affective well-being, but also whether perceived organizational support acts as a mediator. A survey with 150 participants was conducted, assessing employees' affective and psychological well-being and their perceptions of the support and the CSR activities of their organizations. Evidence was found that employees' perceptions of their organization's CSR practices positively influence their psychological and affective well-being and that perceived organizational support mediates those relationships. Consequently, CSR practices not only tend to take positive effect on employees' affectional sates but also guide their psychological consciousness serving as a powerful tool to increase employees' affective and psychological well-being.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, psychological well-being, affective well-being, perceived organizational support, personnel management

JEL Classification: Y40-Dissertations; O15 Economic Development: Human Resources; D23 Organizational Behavior

Resumo

O compromisso para com práticas socialmente responsáveis na gestão de uma empresa foi principalmente alinhado para garantir o desempenho económico, abordando questões relativas às partes interessadas externas. O enfoque das práticas de responsabilidade social das empresas (RSE) deslocou-se então gradualmente para as partes interessadas internas, nomeadamente os trabalhadores. Assim, investigações anteriores determinaram vários resultados favoráveis para os trabalhadores, previstos por uma implementação adequada das práticas de RSE nas organizações, incluindo níveis mais elevados de bem-estar. Uma vez que o bem-estar no trabalho tem sido geralmente determinado por estados de espírito e emocionais sob a forma de afetos positivos e negativos, pouca atenção foi dada ao bem-estar psicológico mais profundo dos trabalhadores no contexto das atividades de RSE centradas nos trabalhadores. Dado que os trabalhadores percecionam as práticas de RSE em termos da medida em que se sentem cuidados e apoiados, não só é interessante examinar o potencial impacto geral das práticas de RSE no bem-estar psicológico dos trabalhadores em comparação com o bem-estar afetivo, como se o apoio organizacional percebido atua como mediador. Foi realizado um inquérito com 150 participantes. Verificou-se que as perceções dos trabalhadores sobre as práticas de RSE da sua organização influenciam positivamente o seu bem-estar psicológico e afetivo e que o apoio organizacional percebido medeia essas relações. Consequentemente, as práticas de RSE não só tendem a ter um efeito positivo nos estados afetivos dos trabalhadores, como também orientam a sua consciência psicológica, servindo como uma ferramenta poderosa para aumentar o bem-estar afetivo e psicológico dos trabalhadores.

Palavras-chave: Responsabilidade social das empresas, bem-estar psicológico, bem-estar afetivo, perceção de suporte organizacional, gestão de pessoal

Classificação JEL: Y40 Dissertations; O15 Economic Development: Human Resources; D23 Organizational Behavior

iv

Index

Index of Figures

Index of Tables

Introduction

Contextualization and clarification of relevance

If one enters 'mental health' in the Google search bar these days, more than 3,500,000,000 related posts can be identified. A number so high that by its very existence, it blatantly shows the importance of mental well-being and expresses the enormous interest of our society today accordingly. Scientific research also attributes much importance to the topic of mental health and psychological well-being. The online knowledge library Biblioteca do Conhecimento Online[1], b-on, which provides research and higher education institutions with limitless and constant access to full texts from over 16,750 international scientific publications, lists 256,454 peer-reviewed documents that carry the term 'mental health' in the title. To put this amount in context, the number of texts on physical health underlying the same search conditions serves as a clearly visible comparison which is relatively small as it merely amounts to 45,327 records.[2]

It is well known that mental disorders can be highly dangerous for the course of one's life. If mental disorders start to begin in childhood, the likelihood of experiencing social, educational, and economic disadvantages will be higher. For instance, participating in higher education, being employed, or achieving a higher income later in life will be less likely to occur for children struggling with mental problems (Colman et al., 2009; Haro et al., 2014; Scott et al., 2001). Even if mental problems will only appear in adulthood, they also entail negative consequences for the functioning of daily life which result in having difficulties finding a full-time job (Doran & Kinchin, 2019), increased work loss days and reduced quality of life (Alonso et al., 2004). A combination of the absence of mental diseases and the presence of psychological well-being is being perceived as the conception of mental health which, consequently, sheds light on psychological well-being (Tang et al., 2019).

Psychological well-being occupies an important place in the substantial mental health spectrum but has received only a proportional amount of attention within today's research. Peer-reviewed texts on b-on whose titles enclose the term 'psychological well-being' measure up to 16,432 documents. In perspective, they represent solely 6% of the 256,454 mental health related papers. The highly increasing importance of psychological well-being is not left unnoticed since it has been connected to multiple positive health outcomes, such as a reduced risk for various diseases, for instance cardiovascular diseases or Alzheimer's disease and an

---

[1] https://www.b-on.pt
[2] Retrieved on 30.10.2023

overall improved physical health (Ryff, 2013; Weiss et al., 2016). Being of a multidimensional nature, psychological well-being is correspondingly tangent to several domains of life e.g., work, social or love life (Wissing & van Eeden, 2002). It follows that due to its growing relevance in mental health and its positively associated health effects, psychological well-being requires a deeper consideration inside the various areas of life which it permanently touches.

36 years have been predicted to be the average duration of working life that an EU-citizen of 15 years of age must expect (Eurostat, 2022). Spending such a large portion of your life at work does not leave someone unscathed. As a social determinant that defines settings and surroundings in which people are raised and live, work doubtlessly has a pivotal impact on people's psychological state and can enhance or worsen their level of well-being (Shim et al., 2014). Researchers, such as Nelson et al. (2014), Repetti (1987) or Stansfeld et al. (1999), explored work environment linkages to psychological well-being of employees and stated that several work environment conditions (e.g., work climate, social relations, job demands) can predict the level of psychological well-being. In addition to these findings, it is of high relevance to remark that subjective perceptions of employees towards working conditions are essential in generating psychological well-being. Depending on how work is perceived, it is difficult to certainly determine whether specific work environment characteristics contribute to psychological well-being or not. Therefore, further research on psychological well-being must acknowledge work characteristics being generated from a subjective point of view.

A largely engaging concept which is inclusive of employee perceptions and of taking a multitude of work settings and dimensions into account, is corporate social responsibility (CSR). CSR implies a construct of practices and policies that help to shape work internally as well as externally within several stakeholder dimensions, such as by influencing their behaviors (Barnett, 2007). In prior literature, it has been predominantly integrated in research concerning the strategic (Siegel & Vitaliano, 2007), financial or economic (Orlitzky et al., 2003) performance outcomes of a company. By focusing primarily on the macrolevel analysis (e.g., institutional and organizational) at first, the extant literature neglected the microfoundations of CSR which are understood as the fundamentals that derive from individual action and interactions (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). In recent years, the literature began to pay attention to "how employees perceive and subsequently react to acts of corporate social responsibility or irresponsibility" (Rupp et al., 2013, p. 896), in that more and more studies focused increasingly on employees as the analysis level of interest (Onkila & Sarna, 2022). Accordingly, perceived CSR has positively effectuated employees' organizational commitment (Paruzel et al., 2021), creativity (Ahmad et al., 2022) or career satisfaction (Mansour et al., 2023). Furthermore,

2

underlying processes and mediations through which CSR practices result in certain outcomes, must be given special attention, especially in the light of individual-level analysis. Due to the smaller amount of employee-focused CSR research and the lack of mediating processes and mechanisms in the CSR–outcome relationship at the individual level, researchers advocate to improve the understanding of and to direct the interest onto mediating effects connecting CSR performances with potentially positive employee outcomes (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012).

A variety of positive outcomes for the benefit of employees have been voiced in relation to how employees perceive the employee-organization relationship by the support which their organizations provide. A meta-analysis from Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) identified perceived organizational support to be positively related to organizational commitment and job performance, while lowering employees' job strains and withdrawal behavior. In this light, employees are more satisfied with their job, show less susceptibility to stress symptoms and display an overall better mood at work if they feel strongly supported by their organizations. Based on social exchange theory, which points to the reciprocity of relationships (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), perceived organizational support depends on social interrelationships to take effect and contribute to employee outcomes. However, quality supportive relationships have rarely been put into context with reference to health-related outcomes, despite functioning as vital core parts of well-being and optimal living (Ryff & Singer, 2000). Analyzing the role of perceived organizational support lies not only in the interest of researchers to extend the spectrum of empirical studies on health-related outcomes of perceived organizational support, but also to add to the literature on mediating mechanisms of CSR-outcome associations.

Notable for the importance of action in research, is the literary priority of subjective well-being laying at the very core of work-related well-being analyses. While psychological well-being is reached through optimal positive functioning and human flourishing (Disabato et al., 2016; Waterman, 1993), subjective well-being, comprising life satisfaction as well as positive and negative affects, refers to pleasure-maximizing happiness (Diener, 1984). Throughout the decades, subjective well-being has been the focal point when indicating mentally and behaviorally related well-being (Diener et al., 1999, 2017) and it has increasingly been linked with an organization's CSR practices, with a positively significant impact of CSR activities on subjective well-being (Ahmad et al., 2023; Chia & Kern, 2021; Liang & Yoon, 2023; Paralta et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2022). With employees' subjective emotional states of happiness and pleasure in the focus of previous CSR linked analyses, deeper layers of employee well-being were hardly given attention, as in how employees organize their psychological positive thinking and optimal functioning when being influenced by CSR practices. Thus, it is relevant to address

if the practices of socially engaged organizations directed towards employees are as predictive on employees' subjective well-being, as found in previous studies, as on their psychological well-being in order for organizations to take action and implement further promoting practices.

Definition and statement of the research question

The intention of this study lies within determining if employee-focused CSR practices promote psychological and affective well-being of employees leading to the following question:

- Do employee-focused CSR practices promote psychological and affective well-being at work?

Moreover, perceived organizational support will be tested for a mediating effect regarding the potential relationship between an organization's CSR activities directed towards its employees and their psychological and affective welfare. Therefore, another research question arises:

- Does perceived organizational support mediate the link of an organization's employee-focused CSR practices and the psychological and affective well-being of employees?

By incorporating affective well-being, as a subjective well-being component into the research study, attention will be drawn to the comparison of employees' affective and psychological well-being being influenced by an organization's CSR standpoint adding to the differentiating literature of subjective and psychological well-being which raises the following questions:

- Is perceived CSR equally related to psychological as to affective well-being?
- Does perceived organizational support equally mediate the relationship between perceived CSR and psychological well-being compared to affective well-being?

Outline of study structure

Beginning with the theoretical part of this research, the following study will explain the definitional literary background and foundations of the investigated constructs, CSR, affective and psychological well-being, and perceived organizational support, by consulting previous literature and studies. After clarifying the constructs' standpoints in the past and current research, the conceptual model will be visualized while formulating the underlying hypotheses. Following that, the methodology will be described by demonstrating the practical procedure of the survey of this study continuing with the presentation of the results. Lastly, a discussion will be held about the outcomes of this research paper which will be finalized by drawing a conclusion, giving recommendations for future studies and revealing the limitations which this study is subject to.

Chapter 1. Literature Review

1.1 Corporate social responsibility

A life domain which primarily plays one of the most significant roles in one's life is displayed by the work domain. In particular, the work environment and its conditions represent the determinant influence which have been linked to the work and psychological well-being sphere in multiple scientific literatures. For instance, Loretto et al. (2005) found out that increased autonomy at work significantly affects the psychological well-being of health service employees in a negative manner, whereas Schütte et al. (2014) identified 13 psychosocial work factors, such as quantitative demands, low social support, or job insecurity, to be significantly linked with poor psychological well-being. Besides that, the number of work environment conditions which might possibly be linked to psychological well-being marks a highly relevant aspect. A single work environment characteristic alone might not be representative of psychological well-being. Furthermore, it is a composition of various characteristics and conditions that may lead to psychological well-being (Briner, 2000, p. 301). Here, corporate social responsibility (CSR), as multiple "actions on the part of the firm that appear to advance, or acquiesce in the promotion of some social good, beyond the immediate interests of the firm and its shareholders and beyond that which is required by law" (Waldman et al., 2006, p. 1703), comes into play offering various insights into how work is organized by an organization to furtherly investigate the connection between work associated settings and factors, as within the scope of CSR, and psychological well-being.

1.1.1 Perceptions of CSR

Nowadays, an organization's implementation and participation in CSR activities can conveniently be measured with the aid of tools and means, for example analyses evaluating a company's ESG[3] factors, indices such as the Dow Jones Sustainability World Index[4] or

---

[3] ESG investing, known as sustainable investing, considers environmental, social and governance factors used by investors for companies when making investment decisions. An index to assess such factors is the MSCI KLD 400 Social Index which has been introduced by KLD Research & Analytics, Inc. and is the first socially responsible investing (SRI) index (https://www.msci.com/our-solutions/indexes/esg-indexes).

[4] The Dow Jones Sustainability World Index which is determined by S&P Global through the Corporate Sustainability Assessment (CSA) contains the top 10% of the worldwide ESG performing companies (https://www.spglobal.com/spdji/en/indices/esg/dow-jones-sustainability-world-index/#overview).

rankings like the "100 Best Corporate Citizens" by 3BL Media[5]. Although these measures serve as a reflection of the reality of an organization's CSR activity, perceptions of employees about their organization's involvement or non-involvement in CSR are considered to be of equal significance as reality-based measures (Glavas & Godwin, 2013). Being provided with organizational information as a result of being a member of the company, employees take on a crucial role by contributing to, being interested in and, thus, reacting to CSR efforts made by the company (Rupp et al., 2006). Those reactions can be traced back to their perceptions which employees have formed. Studies from Dijksterhuis and van Knippenberg (1998) and Bargh et al. (1996) confirmed the perception–behavior link implying that perceptions are key indicators for related behaviors and attitudes. Moreover, a company's actual actions of CSR may have weaker impacts on employees' behavior than the way how they perceive the company's CSR themselves (Rupp et al., 2013). In contrast to compliance-based or reactionary perspectives on CSR which revolves around the idea of CSR as economic or legal duties to be fulfilled, perceived CSR takes on a rather proactive view in that CSR is interested in how to create added-value to its stakeholder and increase their well-being (Glavas & Godwin, 2013). Given this information, the following study will evaluate and focus on CSR as perceived CSR.

1.1.2 Definitions and concepts of CSR

When it comes to CSR and its meaning, it is not lacking definitions but rather clarity to determine a general and uniform interpretation due to a diversity of literary definitions (Glavas & Kelley, 2014). In a previous literature review, 36 singular metrics and conceptions have been detected seeking to capture CSR and its dimensions (Peloza, 2009). The reason behind the existence of so many different concepts, is due to the fact that most of the times related literatures are overlapping which create "parallel and sometimes confusing universes" (Waddock, 2004, p. 5). Multiple terminologies, such as corporate social responsiveness, corporate citizenship or stakeholder theory, have been established throughout the last years and have been used in the progression of CSR complexifying the definition process and adding more confusion to the contextually related literature (Waddock, 2004). Caused by the numerous definitions of CSR, it follows that an equally large number of CSR concepts have been literarily approached (El Akremi et al., 2018; Morgeson et al., 2013).

---

[5] Each year 3BL Media, performs evaluations on the biggest U.S. companies with regard to ESG achievement and transparency (https://100best.3blmedia.com).

Since one of the first definition dates back to the 1950s, another reason for the variety of CSR definitions and labels can be ascribed to the fact that the underlying definitions have evolved over time, changing and adding more labels to the CSR spectrum (Aguinis, 2011). Bowen is regarded as one of the first to pave the way with his definition of CSR by describing organizational responsibility as "an obligation to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action that are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society" (1953, p. 6) marking the beginning of the long-lasting finding process of a general CSR definition.

A name which is well-known and has been established within the field of CSR is the one of Archie B. Carroll whose definition has been largely spread and used in the extant literature (Gond et al., 2017; Turker, 2009a, 2009b; Tuzzolino & Armandi, 1981). Being considered as an early and substantial pioneer, Carroll formulated CSR as "the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time" (1979, p. 500). According to him, CSR activities of a company can be evaluated by dividing it into four dimensions as mentioned above, namely economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic with the latter being adjusted from discretionary to philanthropic throughout the years. Economic responsibility refers to a company's obligation to provide and produce goods and services which are required by consumers while simultaneously making profit by selling them. A business's legal responsibility is to comply with laws and regulation imposed by the government or state. While carrying out its operational activities within the framework of law, the company is being transparent by disclosing that its operations are lawfully being handled with honesty and fairness. In contrast to legal responsibilities, ethical responsibility is a company's commitment to those activities and practices which society, consumers and stakeholders consider as fair, just or conforming to society's moral values and rights without it being written in the law. Foremost, ethical responsibilities incorporate norms and standards which are expected by society to be met. Lastly, philanthropic responsibility displays a company's engagement in artistic and educational practices by offering resources to consumers and stakeholders to improve their quality of life. The difference between ethical and philanthropic responsibilities lies in the ethical and moral sense. If philanthropical responsibilities, for example donating funds to charity programs, are not being applied by the company, the company is not seen as unethical or immoral if those responsibilities are not fulfilled. Moreover, philanthropy rather include voluntary or discretionary acts (Carroll, 1991; Gürlek et al., 2017)

In order to visualize his concept of CSR (see Figure 1.1), Carroll conceptualized a CSR pyramid to highlight the four-part definition. Being assembled on top of one another, it is shown that each dimension constitutes to the whole of CSR but also has differing degrees of contributing significance. Moreover, the pyramid puts emphasis on the building block nature in which it has been arranged implying that the economic performance and responsibility display the key component of CSR upon which the remaining dimensions rest (Carroll, 1991, 2016). By using the successive order of the pyramid, he makes clear that the economic responsibility of a company must be given and be on top priority since "without it the others become moot considerations" (Carroll, 1991, p. 41).
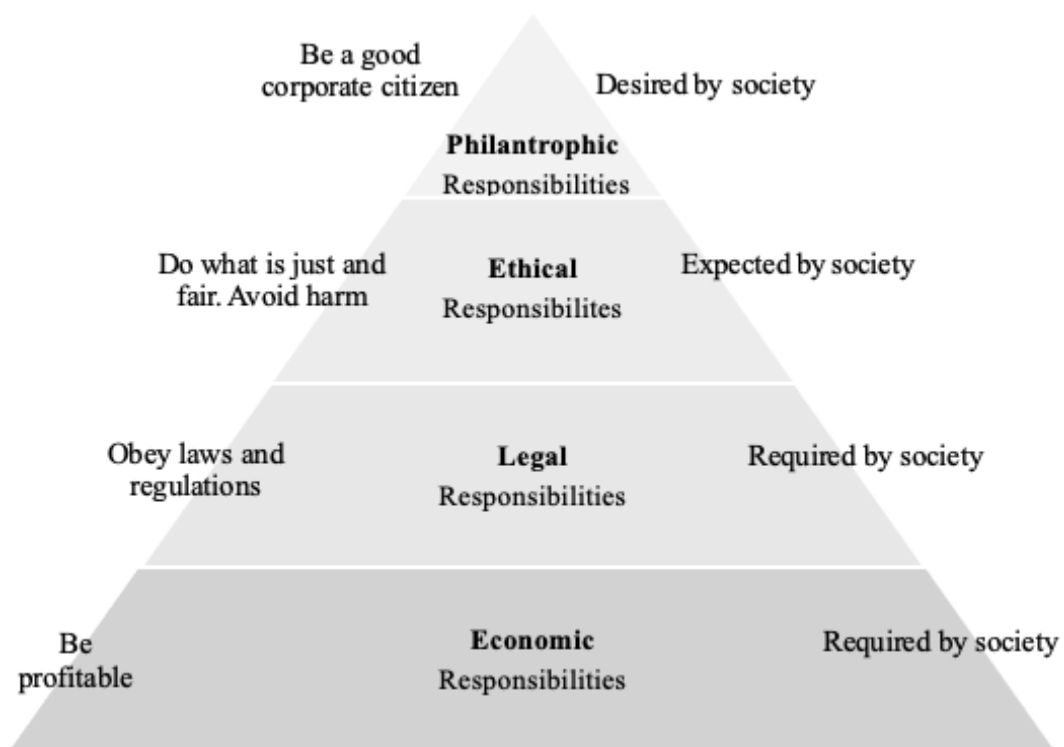
Figure 1.1 Pyramid of CSR by Carroll (Carroll, 2016, p. 5)

Although Carroll's approach set an elementary module in the CSR field, it has also received criticism and suggestions for improvement with his distinct view on the economic responsibility being one of the reasons. Given Carroll's understanding of CSR, the definition of the economic dimension has been questioned as to whether it is an essential part of CSR or just pinpoints the basic function and activity of a business. Depicting economic responsibility as being profitable by making and selling goods and services, it is difficult to pinpoint the economic responsibility's role since it rather describes the operations which a business must perform in order to exist (Turker, 2009b).

Related thereto, a further doubt has been raised concerning the four definitions of CSR as it has been argued that the only dimension which acts in favor for contemporary CSR definitions is the discretionary/philanthropic responsibility. That is because the remaining dimensional responsibilities, namely economic, legal and ethical, deal less with practices and activities that exceed legal compliance or profit maximization and that are of advantage for external stakeholders (Rupp et al., 2013).

With regard to stakeholders, another reason why Carroll's concept has been critically assessed is its responsibility-based reasoning as it is missing a deeper inclusion of stakeholders. Accordingly, a company can actively and positively cooperate within the economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic dimensions and therefore gain a socially responsible status but simultaneously, take no measures for its internal and external stakeholders, for example employees or suppliers (Glavas & Godwin, 2013).

Besides Carroll's responsibility-based concept, other views on how to approach and measure CSR have been discussed in the present literature. The justice-based perspective of CSR is being one of them. According to it, a company's CSR supplies its employees with information upon which they will call to judge and evaluate the organization's honesty and fairness (Aguilera et al., 2007). Hereby, the CSR perceptions of employees can be broken down into distributive, procedural and interactional dimensions with each contributing to form the employees' judgements on a different level. Procedural CSR refers to the social interest that is embodied through the organization's actions, distributive CSR concerns the results of those performed actions and lastly, interactional CSR covers the manner how individuals are internally and externally treated by the organization on the grounds of the performed actions (Rupp et al., 2006). Although the train of thought behind the justice-based view on how employees' perceptions are shaped through the simple treatment of others by the company seems to be logical, there is a downside to it since it cannot identify the distinctiveness of perceptions of CSR in comparison to those of organizational justice which often times results in a fusion of the two principles (Rupp, 2011; El Akremi et al., 2018). Having assumed that justice constructs serve as indicators for CSR, studies from Rupp et al. (2013) and Brammer et al. (2007) are hereof perfect examples since the first compares CSR with third-party justice while the latter uses items which are equivalent to procedural justice components of CSR to investigate perceptions of employees.

However, an approach which enjoyed literary popularity and also mends the issue concerning the lack of inclusion of stakeholders in Carroll's responsibility-based CSR view, is referred to as stakeholder-based view. It lays its focus on CSR as the perceptions of employees

which rely on their evaluation of an organization's behavior towards and dealing of its stakeholders, external as well as internal (Gond et al., 2017). The grounds for this approach have been widely prepared by the stakeholder's theory which has gained a prominent status in the past and present management literature (Laplume et al., 2008; Parmar et al., 2010). It centers on the suggestion that managers should assess and reflect on their next actions in regard to stakeholder relationships including all constituents of the stakeholder group (Freeman, 2004; Laplume et al., 2008). Based on this understanding, the majority of CSR definitions that have been established recently revolve around an organization's stakeholders (Aguinis, 2011; Glavas & Godwin, 2013). Freeman et al. states that "we might even redefine "CSR" as "corporate stakeholder responsibilities" to symbolize that thinking about stakeholders is just thinking about the business and vice versa" (2007, p. 99).

1.1.3 Established CSR scales

By developing a scale for capturing CSR that includes four classifications of differently directed CSR perceptions of employees toward customers, government, society and employees, Turker (2009b) has made a valuable and contemporary contribution to the stakeholder-based view on CSR. She specifically chose and tested items which met the following requirements to be qualified as 'CSR to stakeholder': to be a result of organizational decision, to positively affect the stakeholders and to exceed the monetary and profit maximization goals of the organization (Turker, 2009b). Despite of its constructive input, critique about Turker's scale has been voiced due to shortages of convergent, discriminant, or predictive validity via confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) and due to the lack of higher-order multidimensionality of the construct (El Akremi et al., 2018).

As a result, El Akremi et al. (2018) created a superordinate multidimensional corporate stakeholder responsibility scale (CStR). A superordinate construct signifies a general construct that is expressed and affirmed by its dimensions. These dimensions portray indicative measures which function as observed variables whereas these observed variables, in turn, are apparent indicators for another underlying construct. To simplify, the dimensions of a superordinated construct are a construct themselves by bridging the gap between the subordinated construct and their underlying observed variables (Edwards, 2001). Regarding the multidimensional aspect, a construct can achieve multidimensionality by dealing with multiple but interrelated dimensions which can be managed as a single theoretical framework (Edwards, 2001; Law et al., 1998). According to El Akremi et al. (2018), the CStR scale not only follows a superordinate

structure by touching on the intersections of the several dimensions of employees' perceptions of CSR which, on the one hand, are manifest indicators of the general core construct of CStR and, on the other hand, are captured by the multiple facets in form of observed variables across each dimension. But it also provides multidimensionality since it covers the complete palette of employees' perceptions on the treatment towards stakeholders through distinct yet related dimensions.

In conclusion, the extant literature of CSR has been massively influenced and expanded by the various definitions and approaches that have emerged until today on how to apprehend employees' perceptions on an organization's CSR efforts. Due to the large existing amount of CSR interpretations and CSR related concept, the difficulty lies in determining a universally valid construct which facilitates further investigation. Nevertheless, CSR scales for employees' perceptions have been developed attempting to overcome three primary limitations that have been debated in the existent research: the lack of stakeholder-based view on CSR, construct shortcomings in terms of contamination when evaluating related but theoretically different concepts and failure to observe perceived CSR as a superordinate multidimensional construct (El Akremi et al., 2018).

1.2 Differentiation of well-being in psychology literature

1.2.1 Hedonic and eudaimonic view of well-being

As pointed out in section 1.1.1, perceived CSR of employees affects their view on the organization and subsequently influence their behavior and attitude towards it. As a result, this observation draws conclusions to today's contemporarily important subject of psychological well-being of employees considering that the notion of psychological well-being of employees may likely be affected by work conditions and settings, such as an organization's CSR activity (see Introduction). It is now of matter to turn to the second key part in the underlying study equation and its stand in the existing literature, namely psychological well-being (PWB).

By looking at the study field of psychological well-being, the general assumption is made that its roots lie in the ancient Greek history. To be more precisely, two prominent Greek philosophers, Aristippus (3rd century BCE) and Aristotle (4th century BCE), have approached the general framework of well-being in two different ways which draws a distinction between hedonic well-being (hedonia) and eudaimonic well-being (eudaimonia) (Heintzelman, 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Waterman, 1993). According to Aristippus, hedonia recognizes pleasure

as the sole and highest good by symbolizing the pursuit of life in minimalization of pain and maximization of pleasure (Disabato et al., 2016; Tatarkiewicz, 1976). On the contrary, eudaimonia which derives from Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics (1985) bespeaks personal growth and realizations of one's own potentials as the greatest accomplishment and contentment in life. Being in line with one's true self, "the daimon" (Waterman, 1993, p. 678), reflects virtue and excellence which one aspires and consequently contributes to provide direction and meaning to one's life. Therefore, eudaimonia refers to human flourishing and beyond pleasure-driven experiences which are not limited to immediate gratification (Disabato et al., 2016).

1.2.2 Concepts of subjective and psychological well-being

Building on these two differentiations of well-being, the way in which they have been measured is correspondingly disparate from one another. Maximized pleasure, such as satisfying appetites by eating food or feeling good due to the beginning of a new experience, has been framed as hedonic happiness which is described as a subjectively felt state (Disabato et al., 2016; Waterman, 1993). It follows that the concept which has been used the most to determine hedonic well-being is subjective well-being (SWB). Consisting of three key components, subjective well-being integrates life satisfaction, high levels of positive affect and low levels of negative affect combined to symbolize happiness which dominated the early research regarding psychological well-being (Diener, 1984; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 1989). Here, the differentiating factor towards the eudaimonic conception lies within the notion of happiness. In contrast to hedonic well-being, it is well-being on which eudaimonia lays its eyes instead of happiness itself. That is to say that eudaimonic concepts take the view that a person's cherished wishes are not necessarily generating well-being when they are fulfilled. Although their fulfillment creates pleasure and happiness, not all outcomes have positive effects on people and contribute to their well-being which implies that subjective happiness, from the eudaimonic point of view, cannot appear as well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 1996). This declaration has been clarified when examining most models of eudaimonia. Even though eudaimonic concepts vary across the existent literature, they generally exhibited two congruent features, on the one hand being the inclusion of personal growth and meaningfulness elements and on the other hand being the clear-cut exclusion of a hedonic or affective component (Disabato et al., 2016; Heintzelman, 2018). Given the fact that the eudaimonic perspective settles less on the surface of well-being by indicating subjective happiness but rather reaches deeper into positive psychological functioning, conceptions of the eudaimonic philosophy have

settled within the psychological study of well-being assessing eudaimonia in form of psychological well-being (Disabato et al., 2016; Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

1.2.3 Ryff's psychological well-being model

Ryff (1989) takes up here by creating a multidimensional model whose theoretical fundamental rests upon a variety of aspects studied in literature concerning optimal psychology functioning. These include prominent theories from developmental, humanistic and clinical psychology, namely Jahoda's (1958) theory of positive indications of mental health, Erikson's (1959) stage model of psychosocial development throughout life, Maslow's (1968) theoretical pyramid of self-actualization, Neugarten's (1973) conception of changes in personality in later life, Rogers's (1961) idea of the optimal functioning of a person or Bühler's (1968) understanding of personal fulfilment of basic human tendencies, Jung's (1933, 1963) personal development process as individuation, Frankl's (1959) theory of people's will to finding meaning in life and Allport's (1961) personality shaping process through maturity over the course of life. Prompted by the more dominant role of subjective well-being within well-being research and the subsequent lack of theoretical and definitional underpinnings of psychological well-being, Ryff intended her model to serve as a more inclusive conception for positive human functioning that offers six dimensions (see Table 1.1) to capture psychological well-being which are explained in more detail below (Heintzelman, 2018; Ryff, 1989; Ryff, 2013). Each dimension showcases certain traits for its respectively high scoring or low scoring individuals.

Autonomy describes the nature of self-determination by acting upon it in an independent manner coming from an individuals' within. High autonomous people long for self-actualization and exhibit qualities of independence. External endorsement and approval are seen as uninteresting and stale since high autonomous individuals focus on evaluating oneself by setting up personal standards and using them as self-measures for adjusting their behavior. Therefore, embodying one's own beliefs and standards, replaces following conventional and societal principles. As a result, people with a high degree of autonomy tend to detach themselves from the collective beliefs and mentality of the mainstream.

Environmental mastery encloses the adaptation ability of an individual to his/her current life situation regardless of its complexity or severity. Having a strong sense of control over his/her surroundings makes the individual powerful and pushes him/her to progress in today's world. Not only does a high scoring environmental master features extraordinary adaptive skills but he/her is also able to change his/her external world mentally and physically by creating optimally conditioned surroundings that suit his/her values and needs entirely. They actively

take part in new opportunities and effectively make use of them in order to flourish, improve and exploit their full potential.

Personal growth ties up closely to the environmental mastery dimension in expressing one's intense feeling and wish to continuously grow, expand and reach his/her whole potential. Openly facing new challenges and presenting interest in new experiences is fundamental to score high levels of personal growth which primarily puts emphasis on the continuous nature of one's self-development. Here, the aim is not the realization of a settled trouble-free status with no problems arising. It is rather an ongoing process of self-improvement and self-reflection to become oneself.

Positive relations with others regard being loved and loving as a key component of optimal psychological functioning which leads to the great importance of interpersonal relationships in an individuals' psychological well-being. Hereby, positive relations with others lie within a broad spectrum of love that build on factors such as intimacy, affection, empathy, trust or friendship. Being able to express and share those feelings not only helps to identify with others but also helps to understand the spirit of compromise and the give and take nature of personal relations. An individual who categorizes as a high scorer in this dimension, is capable of those deep, trusting and satisfying relations with others.

Purpose in life is considered as the opposite of wandering aimlessly around. High scoring people of this section successfully achieved finding meaning to and purpose in life by acquiring a specific sense of direction based on their beliefs and values. They are ambitious and intentionally pursue their goals which they have been set along the way. When accomplished, they either find new goal to fulfil or focus on other existing objectives to maintain a constant state of life that gives it purpose and meaning to continue.

Self-acceptance is characterized as the feeling of being at peace with oneself despite of one's flaws and imperfections. Here, the pure acknowledgement and acceptance of one's character is of important matter. Highly self-acceptant individuals do not denigrate themselves or wish to be different. In contrast, they consider themselves a whole by including and recognizing all their bad and good qualities. In that way, they approach life from a realistic but positively thinking point of view by being honest to themselves and accepting oneself the way that they are (Ryff, 1989).

Table 1.1 Ryff's definitions of dimensions of psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989, p. 1072)

	Autonomy
High scorer	Self-determined and independent; stands up to social pressures that indicate to think and act particularly; coordinates behavior from within; has personal standards by which he/she measures him-/herself
Low scorer	Is worried about and feels pressured by the expectations and evaluations of others; makes important decisions based on judgments of others; complies with social pressures to think and act in specific ways
	Environmental mastery
High scorer	Has competence in dealing with daily life; has a strong sense of control over external world; uses new opportunities effectively; is able to create surroundings to match personal needs and values
Low scorer	Finds it difficult to cope with everyday life; feels as if he/she cannot change or improve his/her current situation; misses sense of control over external world
	Personal growth
High scorer	Has a sense of continued development; grows on him-/herself and sees him-/herself improving; is open to new experiences; is aware of his/her potential; is self-reflected and open-minded about self-improvement
Low scorer	Feels stuck and stagnated; feels unable to expand over time; is bored and shows little interest in life; lacks a feeling of developing new ideas or behaviors
	Positive relations with others
High scorer	Is able to trust in relationships with others and feels satisfied within those; cares about the well-being of others; is affectionate and empathetic and capable of showing intimacy; understands the spirit of compromise
Low scorer	Has just a few close relationships with others; finds it difficult to trust and be open to others; has frustrations with interpersonal relationships; to sustain important relations with others, he/her is not willing to make compromises
	Purpose in life
High scorer	Ambitious with an understanding of directedness; has aims and goals in life; stands for his/her beliefs that make life purposeful
Low scorer	Misses an understanding of direction and meaning in life; lacks goals and aims; looks at life purposelessly; struggles to find beliefs that consider life meaningfully and purposefully
	Self-acceptance
High scorer	Positive attitude towards him-/herself and about life; is at peace with him-/herself by acknowledging and accepting own good and bad qualities and habits; happy about his life so far
Low scorer	Feels unhappy about him-/herself; disappointed about his/her past and ongoing life situation; dissatisfied with certain personal qualities; longs for being different

By combining the theory-guided concepts mentioned at the beginning of this section, Ryff filtered out points of convergence of positive psychological functioning from which she derived the six given dimensions that outline her more concise and holistic conceptualization of psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989, 2013). After having laid the conceptual foundations of psychological well-being, Ryff moved on to a comprehensive operationalization process of the six dimensions leading to the development of an assessment instrument with 20 self-descriptive items per dimension scale (Ryff, 1989).

Ryff's theory-driven model widely accentuated the study field of well-being and has helped to come to conclusions in multiple studies concerning health related outcomes. By making use of Ryff's psychological well-being assessment tool, a research study performed by Morozink et al. (2010) found that eudaimonic factors such as personal growth predicted lower levels of pro-inflammatory markers. Another study by Friedman and Ryff (2012) follows these findings and highlight linkages between high levels of positive relations with others as well as personal growth and lower levels of inflammation that in turn forecast better conditions when it comes to chronic illnesses. Adding to the overall better health outcomes, eudaimonic well-being factors from Ryff's model are positively associated with a reduced cardiovascular risk profile, longer sleep duration and lower daily salivary cortisol levels (Ryff et al., 2004). Apart from studying health benefits, major usage of Ryff's model took place to identify the psychological well-being state across gender and age and, consequently, socio-demographic connections of the eudaimonic approach to well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff & Singer, 2008; Springer et al., 2011). Exemplary work from Keyes et al. (2002) observed age, educational status and personality traits in relation to subjective and psychological well-being and distinguished that adults who showed higher levels of psychological well-being than subjective well-being tend to be younger, with more education and openness to experience. This draws attention to the debate of whether hedonic and eudaimonic well-being are in fact two distinct concepts resulting in questioning the application of Ryff's measurement instrument. Although studies have found that eudaimonic well-being relates more to meaning while hedonic well-being increasingly concerns positive affect (Huta & Ryan, 2010) or that individuals who have a higher engagement in eudaimonic beahviors show a stronger feeling that their life is meaningful than people with engagement in hedonic behaviors do (Steger et al., 2008), research also exists that points out the overlap of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. Evidence from Linely et al. (2009) supports the indifferent structure of subjective and psychological well-being with regard to gender, ethnicity or age. Furthermore, Disabato et al. articulate that "subjective and psychological well-being reflect one overarching well-being construct" (2016, pp. 477) since their findings

demonstrate little indication of discriminant validity but high correlation between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. Finally, Ryff's six dimensional model has been put to the test by multiple researchers and remains a dominant measurement tool for psychological well-being investigating eudaimonia.

1.2.4 Warr's affective well-being assessment

As stated above, when it comes to the hedonic part of the dual well-being equation, subjective well-being has been the concept measured most frequently. With Diener's (1984) conceptualization of subjective well-being, the majority of the existent scientific research community relied on his first contribution to the subjective well-being study field, namely his article from 1984, as a lead model by being cited over 4,100 times in the APA PsycNet[6] database. The said article highlighted a tripartite formulation of subjective well-being consisting of two main components, cognitive well-being (CWB) and affective well-being (AWB). Firstly, the cognitive component is understood as one's personal cognitive evaluation whether they are generally satisfied with their life or not (1. life satisfaction). Secondly, the affective component describes one's emotional reactions that contain both positively (2. pleasant emotions being present) and negatively (3. unpleasant emotions being not present) experienced affects (Busseri & Sadava, 2011; Kaufman et al., 2022) and, due to its affect character, can be outlined as one's subjective assessment of recent events and activities rather than global life situations (Luhmann et al., 2012).

Building on this rationale, Warr immersed himself in studying the field of affective well-being in the workplace setting and came forward with a three axes model that specifically allows for determining well-being of job-related affective experiences (Warr, 1990; see Figure 1.2 below). Warr based his model off of previous research elementally covering well-being aspects but also considering observations that refer to moods and emotional states which ultimately led to two fundamental dimensions of the figure, 'arousal' (vertical) and 'pleasure' (horizontal) (Warr, 1990). Here, affective well-being is expressed by its distance from the center of the model which implies the intensity of feelings, meaning the farther away the more intense the feeling is, and its position in proportion to those two dimensions which expresses the emotional content. That is to say, specific levels of arousal can come along with high or low levels of pleasure, and, conversely, particular levels of pleasure can be associated with high or

---

[6] Retrieved on 24.10.2023 from https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1984-23116-001

low levels of arousal (Warr, 1999). As depicted in Figure 1.2, the three main axes established within the two dimensions explained above become visible. In order to indicate affective well-being, Warr chose the following three bipolar axes: 1. displeased-pleased, 2. anxious-contented, 3. depressed-enthusiastic. The latter two axes are illustrated by passing diagonally the opposing quadrants through the midpoint, while the displeased-pleased axis is horizontally located right on its name giving 'pleasure' dimension. Including the pleasure dimension as a key axis in his model, Warr intentionally puts emphasis on the elementary importance of pleasure on its alone influence on affective well-being without any arousal variations. According to Warr, the dimension of arousal does not evince well-being by itself which is why the poles of the arousal dimension have not been captured. Therefore, only alongside those three axes, the main types of affect are situated. In addition to emphasize the empirical prioritization of pleasure over arousal relating to well-being, the figure was visualized in a horizontally stretched shape instead of a perfectly round circle (Warr, 1990).

As Warr deliberately and specifically put affective well-being in the context of work to investigate relative effects, the pleasure axis has been moved out of his study focus which has been entirely directed towards the anxiety-contentment (2) and depression-enthusiasm (3) axes. The argument behind that proceeding is due to the high amount of pleasure measuring scales and instruments available for non-contextual as well as occupational implementation. Those instruments and scales have been mainly recorded by reported life and job satisfaction which already experienced great observation in the existent well-being research. For that reason, axes two and three are put in the center of attention with special regard to job-specific implication to assess affective well-being linkages with work conditions (Warr, 1990).
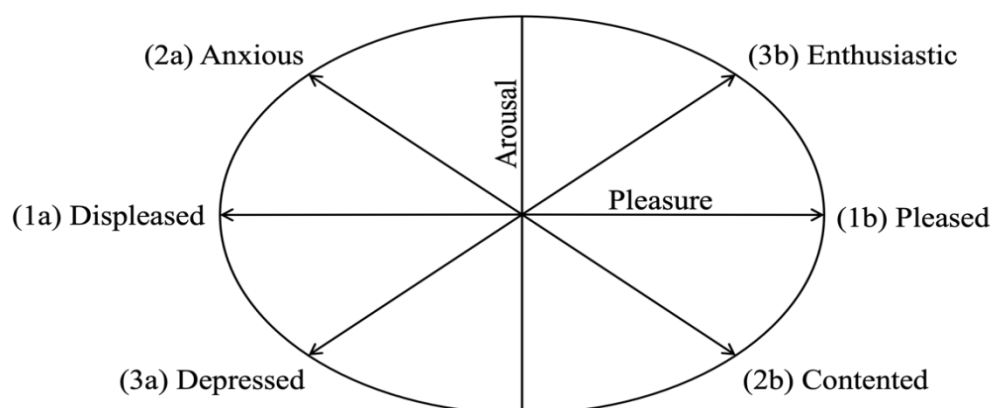
Figure 1.2 Warr's three axes for the measurement of affective well-being (Warr, 1990, p. 195)

Being empirically assessed and widely used multiple times (Daniels et al., 1997; Duyan et al., 2013; Gonçalves & Neves, 2011; Laguna et al., 2019; Mielniczuk & Łaguna, 2018; Salanova et al., 2011; Van Horn et al., 2004), Warr's job-related affective well-being framework functions as a proven tool for capturing the subjective affects of well-being in connection to work. In the interest of this study, it acts as the subjective counterpart to psychological well-being by means of Ryff's model within this research to cover both hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. Although subjective idea builds on the idea of affective and cognitive well-being, as explained above, cognitive well-being will not be furtherly discussed in the context of the underlying paper given the dominance of its indicating measure, life satisfaction, in the existent literature as aforesaid and given those aspects that speak for focusing solely on affective well-being by using Warr's model.

1.3 Perceived organizational support

After having touched upon the two main variables of this thesis and having discussed their theorethical background, the focus will now be turned to the third area of research, namely the one of perceived organizational support (POS), and its standing within the existent literature. Eisenberger and his researcher colleagues (1986) have been the first ones to explore the notion of perceived organizational support which they refer to as employees' beliefs and perceptions about the extent to which their organization takes their contributions and endeavors at work into account and thus shows interest in their well-being. Feeling appreciated and committed to by the organization can be differently expressed. Job enrichment, pay, rank (Eisenberger et al., 1986) or the offer of organizational policies and practices that compensate for a healthy work-life balance (Roemer & Harris, 2018; Worley et al., 2009) exemplify the various rewards that illustrate an organization's positive view on its employees. Within the realm of organizational support theory, there are three potential mechanisms that describe the psychological processes which substantiate positive outcomes of perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The first one stems from the theory of social exchange which implies "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (Blau, 1964, p. 91). In that sense, perceived organizational support assumes a relationship of reciprocity between the organization and its employees whereby both parts act upon give-and-take actions leading to particular organizational goals (Maan et al., 2020). That is, if employees experience support on part of the organization, they develop a feeling of being valued and therfore show a higher tendency to return the favor by performing well (Kurtessis

et al., 2017). Perceived organizational support tend to generate a felt obligation for employees to act in the interest of the organization, to care about its well-being and to lend support to attain its objectives (Yu & Frenkel, 2013). Consequently, organizational outcomes can be achieved by serving employees with superior treatment (Maan et al., 2020; Wann-Yih & Htaik, 2011) which is emphasized by many studies that reveal positive associations of perceived organizational support with favorable organizational outcomes, such as organizational commitment (Wann-Yih & Htaik, 2011), employees' intention to stay (Kurtessis et al., 2017) or job satisfaction (Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Duarte & Silva, 2023).

By performing well and assissting their organization in the achievment of its goals, employees assume a specific attitude of expectation which displays the second mechanism, effort–outcome expectancy. Hereby, perceived organizational support should enhance employees's belief and expectancy of receiving appropriate rewards given by their organization in exchange of dedication and increased performance. In that way, not only will organizational objectives be accomplished, as listed above, but employees will also experience beneficial outcomes, such as positive emotion and higher work satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The third mechanism to come forward from perceived organizational support is the fulfilment of employees' socio-emotional needs. Since perceived organizational support provides employees with a sense of respect, approval and appreciation, the socio-emotional needs of employees are being met which leads to employees' integration of organizational membership into their self-identity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In doing so, a deeply positive connection will be formed that emotionally attaches the employee to his/her organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees who created an emotional bond with their organization and, hence, show a high level of organizational identification are more likely to offer help and provide progress to the goal achievement process of the organization (Yu & Frenkel, 2013).

Generally speaking, offering organizational support to employees encloses highly relevant psychological processes which not only represent superficial aid delivery to employees but hold a more profound meaning that aims at engaging employees in organizational commitment and growing their self-identification with the organization. Perceived organizational support is regarded as a genuine added value for both employees and organizations and implementing support system structures should be taken therefore into consideration (Roemer & Harris, 2018).

1.4 Conceptual Model and Research Hypotheses

Following the reviewed literature within the theoretical part of this study paper, it is now of interest to draw conclusions of the gained literary knowledge for the conceptualization of the practical part of the underlying research.

The primary question around which this research study revolves is whether perceived employee-focused CSR practices can be potentially linked to psychological well-being of employees and if so, do perceptions of CSR positively influence their psychological state? In order to be able to answer those questions in the affirmative, first indications are provided by previous research work. As found out, CSR practices and initiatives are usefully instrumentalized to manage employees' behaviors and attitudes towards the organization (Bhattacharya et al., 2008). A meta-analysis conducted by Wang et al. (2020) delivers evidence by examining 65 studies regarding consequences of employees' perceptions of CSR that ascertained positive correlations with employees' positive behaviors and attitudes whereas negative behaviors and attitudes of employees showed negative correlations. Considering the positive attitudes and behaviors, this, for example, applies to organizational trust, work engagement, perceived organizational support, job performance and satisfaction, creativity or organizational citizenship behavior. Meanwhile, examples for employees' negative attitudes and behaviors were covered by organizational deviance, intention to leave or organizational cynicism. Similar evidence has been highlighted in further research (Abdallah et al., 2017; Bayode & Duarte, 2022; Brammer et al., 2007; Duarte et al., 2019; Hansen et al., 2011; Hayat & Afshari, 2022; Yousaf et al., 2016). Given these findings, the involvement in CSR activities and practices which take internal as well as external stakeholders into account, contributes to a positive reputation and image of the organization (Farooq et al., 2014), an enrichment in the employee-organization relationship leading to a better work life within the organization (AlSuwaidi et al., 2021) and ultimately helps to produce a positive working environment (Su & Swanson, 2019). The work environment itself comprises several influencing factors, such as work settings, conditions or climate, which literature concluded to be antecedents of employee well-being, both physical and psychological well-being (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Since CSR practices aid to shape the work environment which again is crucially implicated in influencing the psychological well-being of employees, it seems reasonable that CSR undertakings and psychological employee well-being may be directly connected. In that case, the organization positively affects employees' perceptions of their workplace by creating a positive organizational image through well-performed CSR activities. Those positive workplace perceptions will then result in boosting employees' view on their work itself and, subsequently,

in improving their well-being (Hayat & Afshari, 2022). Besides shaping a positive and supportive work environment that plays a crucial role in enhancing general employee well-being, another connection that bridges the gap between perceived CSR and, especially, psychological employee well-being can be drawn when comparing CSR related outcomes and the eudaimonic nature of psychological well-being. As seen in section 1.2.1, eudaimonic well-being is the fulfilment of being one's true self which gives life direction and meaning (Waterman, 1993) which is why living purposefully and meaningfully is of vital importance for ensuring psychological well-being. Meaningfulness and sense of purpose which are integral parts in conceptualized constructs regrading psychological well-being (see section 1.2.3) have also been positively related to employees' perceptions of an organization's CSR (Brieger et al., 2020; Nazir et al., 2021). Within the framework of CSR, being socially responsible, making a collective impact and, thus, showing concern for others, affects employees in a way that increases their sense of meaningfulness. Therefore, CSR practices are made use of as a tool for providing meaningfulness for its employees implying a potential positive relation between perceived CSR and psychological well-being (Glavas & Kelley, 2014). When questioning possible eudaimonic connections to employees' perceptions of CSR, subjective well-being within the frame of hedonia plays a vital role since it gives further reason for the assumption of correlations of psychological well-being and perceived CSR. That is due to previous well-being studies whose majority focused on linking perceived CSR and subjective well-being, in form of job satisfaction, whose outcomes evidenced positively related correlations Hu et al., 2019; Macassa et al., 2021). On the one hand, researchers pointed out empirical differences between subjective and psychological well-being, in that they relate differently to age and socio-demographics. Adults with higher levels of subjective and lower levels of psychological well-being tend to be older with less education, while adults with lower levels of subjective and higher levels of psychological well-being are more likely to be younger with higher education (Keyes et al., 2002). On the other hand, literature has also determined subjective and psychological well-being to be distinct but related constructs which present conceptual overlapping by indicting the same well-being outcomes, for example vitality (Huta & Ryan, 2010; Linley et al., 2009). Given that the debate on whether those two constructs are of distinct or related nature measuring different or same outcomes, the suggestion can be made that due to the already existing and positive linkages of CSR and subjective well-being, perceived CSR will be also positively related to psychological well-being of employees.

Taking all these aspects into consideration, this study is based on the assumption that employees' perceptions of CSR positively influence their psychological well-being. Therefore, the first hypothesis states the following:

H1: Perceived employee-focused corporate social responsibility practices are positively related to employees' psychological well-being.

As previously stated, subjective well-being has been the favorable indicator for measuring employees' well-being in the work context. To compare the relation of perceived employee-oriented CSR on psychological well-being with the relation of perceived employee-oriented CSR on the subjective part of well-being, affective well-being will be included into the research equation to provide more insight into the ongoing comparison of subjective and psychological well-being and to offer a more holistic approach to the impact of perceived CSR on employees' welfare. The second hypothesis is formulated thusly:

H2: Perceived employee-focused corporate social responsibility practices are positively related to employees' affective well-being.

As aforesaid in section 1.3, perceived organizational support is characterized as a positive attitude outlining the degree of employees' beliefs "to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501) which is why perceived organizational support is primarily formed by how employees perceive their treatment from the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Likewise, by treating its internal and external stakeholders well and showing concern for their well-being, CSR activities give specific indications signaling employees similarly favorable care (Glavas & Kelley, 2014) which implicates that perceived organizational support is enhanced when employees observe a higher degree of CSR activities (Wang et al., 2020). Additionally, the treatment that employees experience through perceived organizational support is influenced by several factors which point out the organization's interest in its employees' well-being and which represent a favorable evaluation by the organization of its employees' contributions. These include procedures, decisions and policies that pursue the same objective of providing and guaranteeing support and well-being of its employees as an organization's CSR actions which, for example, revolve around family-friendly guidelines, career and development opportunities or job security (Farooq et al., 2014; Lynch et al., 1999). With regard to the CSR extant literature, multiple researchers have put CSR in contexts with perceived organizational support. Not only do they argue for CSR to be an alternative to perceived organizational support since they both consist

of several types of social exchanges (Memon et al., 2021) but they also examined possible correlations between these two variables which led to positively related outcomes. In that sense, perceived CSR positively influences perceived organizational support (El Akremi et al., 2018; Glavas & Kelley, 2014; Wang et al., 2020).

Since perceived organizational support mainly focuses on an organization's concern over its employees' well-being (Glavas & Kelley, 2014), it stands to reason that perceived organizational support contributes to employees' psychological state of well-being. Potential links have already been drawn in previous research. In his proposed HRM research model, Guest identified five core antecedents of social, physical and psychological employee well-being (Guest, 2017). With organizational support representing one of the five core antecedents, Guest underlines the importance of family-friendly work arrangements that facilitate flexible timing, a supportive and participative management style, the provision of career opportunities through developmental performance management and a positive organizational climate that enables the involvement of employee participation. If organizational support of this kind is given, he implies for employees to experience high levels of well-being (Guest, 2017). This is supported by several studies, as from Roemer and Harris (2018) and Caesens et al. (2016) who determined that perceived organizational support shows positive correlations to well-being and furthermore is a significant predictor of well-being when adding mediating variables. While perceived organizational support makes employees feel secured and appreciated, it also fulfills their socio-emotional needs, such as their need for self-esteem and self-efficacy (Caesens et al., 2016; Roemer & Harris, 2018). Nevertheless, the preceding research literature has primarily focused on investigating the relation of perceived organizational support and well-being in form of subjective well-being using affective measures (Eisenberger et al., 2019; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Zahoor et al., 2022). The little attention which psychological well-being has received in that context specifically creates space for centralizing the research focus on associating perceived organizational support with psychological well-being. Particularly, in the light of Ryff's conceptualization, psychological well-being reveals multiple similarities with perceived organizational support aspects which amplify the assumption of potential linkages. Offering organizational support by providing development opportunities, fostering employees' self-esteem or ensuring a positive organizational climate for trusting relationships to grow are aspects which are reflected in Ryff's model and align to his suggested dimensions, such as personal growth, self-acceptance or positive relations with others.

Due to the connections between perceived CSR and perceived organizational support as well as perceived organizational support and psychological well-being, the underlying study

presumes that perceived organizational support mediates a positive relationship between perceived CSR and psychological well-being which leads to the following hypothesis:

H3: Perceived organizational support mediates a positive relationship between perceived employee-focused CSR practices and psychological well-being.

In accordance with H2, it is yet again of interest to draw comparisons to the hedonic, affective side of well-being when examining the influence of employees' perceptions of their organizations' CSR activities. Perceived organizational support potentially mediates the relationship between employees' CSR perceptions and their psychological well-being given the indicative aspects presented for H3. But does it have the same likely mediating effect on the relation of perceived CSR and affective well-being, underscoring the either different or related nature of these two well-being approaches? In order to deliver more insightful and investigative information, this study examines a comparable inferential hypothesis:

H4: Perceived organizational support mediates a positive relationship between perceived employee-focused CSR practices and affective well-being.

In Figure 1.3, the conceptual framework for this study from the above drawn conclusions is visualized.
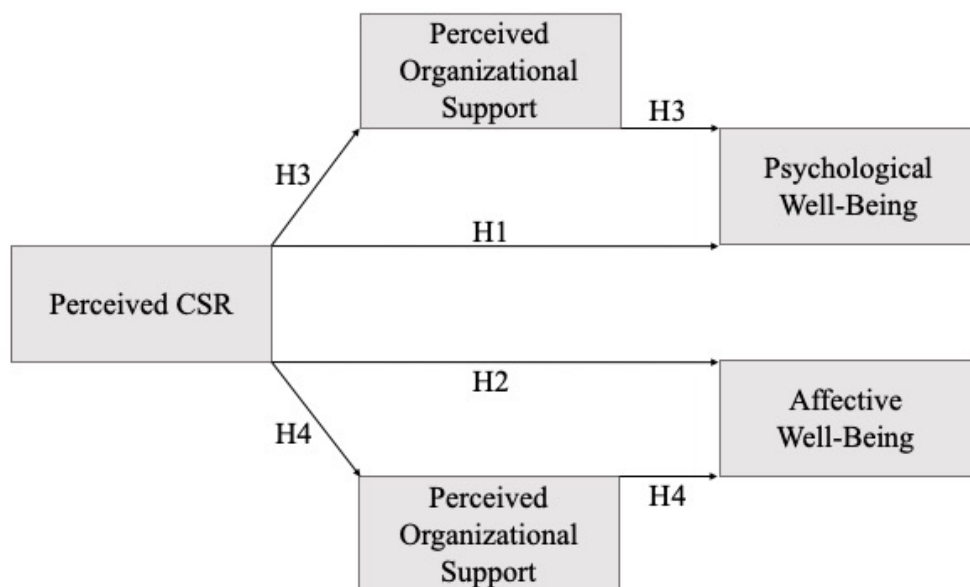
Figure 1.3 Hypothesized research model

Chapter 2. Methodology

2.1 Population, sampling and procedure

The population of this study is composed of people who are employed, but not self-employed, in Germany and whose employment has lasted for at least three months. This minimum duration of employment has been chosen for participants to be able to comprehensively perceive their work environment from which they are required to draw appropriate conclusions for the underlying study survey. Carrying out an online survey for data gathering the study utilized a cross-sectional and non-experimental design.

To identify a non-probability study sample, the snowball and convenience method was applied which function as link-tracing sample instruments for reaching and recruiting a larger respondent network, especially through media channels (Hultsch et al., 2002; Spreen, 1992). In that sense, an online survey link was provided on the researcher's social media platforms for possible respondents to engage in who were then, in turn, asked to share the link with their contacts after completing the survey. In doing so, the intention lied in the recruitment of participants from different organizations and occupations in order to avoid bias stemming from social desirability which may be the case when measuring CSR (Kuokkanen, 2017) or POS (Boateng, 2014).

Prior to being forwarded to the questionnaire, the participants were made aware of the voluntary participation in the survey, the option to quit the survey at any given time, the preservation of their anonymity and the confidential handling of their answers, as defined by the Declaration of Helsinki's principles.

2.2 Participants' characteristics

Table 2.1 depicts the demographic characteristics of the study's participants. Ultimately, the sample size comprised 150 participants after excluding 10 cases due to the incompletion of the questionnaires.

In the underlying study survey, women participated more frequently than men, with 82 women (54.7%) and 68 men (45.3%) representing the total of the survey sample. Regarding the age, the majority of the participants comes from the youngest category which is 20-29 years of age with 94 people (62.7%) in total, followed by participants between 30-39 years with 35 people (23.3%), 12 participants between 50-64 years and, lastly, participants between 40-49 years. The youngest respondent was 20 years old, whereas the oldest was 64 years of age. More

than two third of the participants completed a Bachelor's (33.3%) or a Master's (36%) degree. Three people (2%) hold a doctoral degree and 30 participants (20%) decided to undergo a vocational training instead of going to study at a university. The fact that nearly two third of the respondents were between 20-29 years old is respectively reflected in the duration of tenure. 62.7% of respondents indicated a tenure between three months and 3 years. Compared to the two categories with the highest duration of tenure, 7% of the participants have stayed in the same company for over ten years. With regard to leadership function, more than three quarters of the participants (78.7%) were not in a management position, whereas 21.3% were. Additionally, the most frequently reported employment was the permanent employment with 104 participants (69.3%) in total. By looking at the industries of the companies in which the participants worked in, it becomes apparent that most of the participants came from tax, legal and management consulting (16.7%), information technology (16%), retail and commercial (11.3%) and research and development (11.3%) industries. Almost half of the respondents' companies fell into the category of the company size "large" with over 250 employees (47.3%). Furthermore, most of the participants' companies indicated a private profile (73.3%) and were oriented towards making profit (86.7%). 6% worked entirely remotely, 37.3% were required to be present in the office, and more than half of participants (56.7%) were able to opt for a combination of remote and office work.

Table 2.1 Demographic profile of survey respondents (n = 150) displaying frequency, percentage and cumulated percentage

Variable	Categories	Frequencies	%	Cumulated %
Gender	Male	68	45.3	45.3
	Female	82	54.7	100.0
Age	20-29	94	62.7	62.7
	30-39	35	23.3	86.0
	40-49	9	6.0	92.0
	50-64	12	8.0	100.0
Education level	Secondary education	1	0.7	0.7
	University entrance qualification	12	8.0	8.7
	Vocational training	30	20.0	28.7
	Bachelor's degree	50	33.3	62.0
	Master's degree	54	36.0	98.0
	Doctorate/PhD	3	2.0	100.0
Tenure	≤ 1	48	32.0	32.0
	$1 \leq 3$	46	30.7	62.7
	$3 \leq 5$	24	16.0	78.7
	$5 \leq 8$	15	10.0	88.7

	8 ≤ 10	6	4.0	92.7
	10 ≤ 15	5	3.0	96.0
	>15	6	4.0	100.0
Management position	Yes	32	21.3	21.3
	No	118	78.7	100.0
Employment contract	Permanent	104	69.3	69.3
	Fixed-term	14	9.3	78.7
	Temporary	0	0.0	78.7
	Mini-Job	4	2.7	81.3
	Freelancer	1	0.7	82.0
	Part-time	4	2.7	84.7
	Apprenticeship	5	3.3	88.0
	Internship	5	3.3	91.3
	Working student	13	8.7	100.0
Industry	Raw Material Production	2	1,3	1.3
	Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	0	0.0	1.3
	Manufacturing	0	0.0	1.3
	Energy & Water Supply	6	4.0	5.3
	Construction	7	4.7	10.0
	Retail & Commercial Sector	17	11.3	21.3
	Financial Services	16	10.7	32.0
	Hospitality & Tourism	10	6.7	38.7
	Real Estate	5	3.3	42.0
	Transportation	6	4.0	46.0
	Information Technology	24	16.0	62.0
	Education	15	10.0	72.0
	Tax, Legal & Management Consulting	25	16.7	88.7
	Research & Development	17	11.3	10.00
Company size	Micro (<9)	15	10.0	10.0
	Small (10-49)	34	22.7	32.7
	Medium (50-249)	30	20.0	52.7
	Large (>250)	71	47.3	100.0
Company profile	Public	40	26.7	26.7
	Private	110	73.3	100.0
Company type	For-profit	130	86.7	86.7
	Non-profit	20	13.3	100.0
Working situation	In the office	56	37.3	37.3
	Remotely	9	6.0	43.3
	Hybrid	85	56.7	100.0

Note: In Germany, the Mini-Job is a part-time marginal employment with an income limit of 520€ per month without having to pay income tax or social security contributions. Hybrid is understood as a combination of present work in the office and remote work.

2.3 Measuring instruments

As mentioned in section 2.1, an online, self-administered survey questionnaire was instrumentalized as the assessment tool for collecting and measuring the data (see Annex A). Researchers have been widely satisfied with the use of online surveys as they serve as an

efficient and practical instrument for collecting data. Online surveys are advantageous in terms of cost and time because they not only reduce the time frame for data collection and the corresponding effort that would be required when using more traditional methods such as the paper-and-pencil method. It also allows researchers to reach a large, geographically dispersed population that is not tied to the same location, which promotes the heterogenous nature of the sample (Lefever et al., 2007).

To support reliability of the survey questionnaire, established and proven measures were adopted by integrating scales from previous studies. Included are four measures on the related constructs relevant to the study, one measure representing a marker variable to reduce bias from common method and, lastly, socio-demographic variables.

To prove internal consistency of the utilized literary measures, Cronbach's alpha is recognized as an empirically well-established assessment standard which indicates the reliability of scales and measures. When Cronbach's alpha exceeds the threshold of $\alpha = 0.70$, measures are regarded as being reliable (> 0.6 equals moderate internal reliability; > 0.7 equals relatively high internal reliability (Taber, 2018)). The reliabilities of the underlying study measures are presented in Table 3.1. All of the applied measures show high levels of internal reliability and are consistent with the previous literature.

2.3.1 Perceived CSR

To capture perceived CSR, scales from Turker (2009a) and El Akremi et al. (2018), which have been discussed in section 1.1.3, have been combined to identify how the surveyed employees perceive actions of CSR towards themselves. Since both scales initially included various important dimensions oriented towards stakeholders, for example environment, government or customers, and to ensure suitable fit with the study context as to employees being the study target, only the dimension directed towards the employees has been selected to be included into the questionnaire. As perceptual measures, items could be rated on a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree). The employee dimension of Turker's scale contains six items with an example item of "Our company implements flexible policies to provide a good work and life balance for its employees", whereby El Akremi et al.'s scale used seven items to measure employee-oriented CSR actions with a sample item of "Our company encourages employees' diversity in the workplace". Regarding the translation of the scales, the items deriving from Turker's scale have been translated into German according to Schulze et al. (2018) and the items stemming from El Akremi et al.'s scale have been translated into German and then back-translated into English by the researcher of this study since a validated German

version has not been established yet in prior studies. Both employee-oriented CSR scales from Turker and El Akremi et al. have shown to be reliable and consistent measures by exhibiting high Cronbach's alphas of 0.91 (Farooq et al., 2014) and 0.82 (Pütz et al., 2023) respectively. In this study, the employee-focused dimensions of the general CSR scales of Turker and El Akremi et al. were combined into an overall indicator for perceived CSR presenting high internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92.

2.3.2 Psychological well-being

Ryff and Keyes' (1995) shortened version of Ryff's initial psychological well-being scale (1989) was applied to measure the psychological well-being of employees. Due to response fatigue resulting from long scales and leading to inaccurate answers or discontinuation of the survey (Choi & Pak, 2005), the shorter 18-item version has been chosen to be implemented instead of the 120-item original scale. Each of the six dimensions of Ryff's psychological well-being construct, which, as presented in section 1.2.3, are self-acceptance, personal growth, positive relations with others, environmental mastery, autonomy and purpose in life, has been covered by three items, for example "I am good at managing the responsibilities of daily life" for environmental mastery, on a six-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (= 1) to strongly agree (= 6) in order to depict the whole spectrum of Ryff's psychological well-being approach. The German version of the psychological well-being scale was taken from the translation by Bartkowiak's (2008). Although the 18-item scale was often implemented in past studies (Keyes et al., 2002; Springer et al., 2011; Wood & Joseph, 2010), it has experienced difficulties regarding internal consistency of the six sub-scales. Whereas some of the six dimensions' scales provided high Cronbach's alphas implying internal reliability, others reported low numbers leaving the sub-scales' reliability in question (Disabato et al., 2016). When first introducing the 18-item version, Ryff, herself, addressed this issue which arises due to the intense shortening of the original 120-item scale leading to a small item number per sub-scale by explaining that the short version was not intended to maximize internal consistency. Instead, the items were thoroughly selected for the conceptual coverage of the components within each sub-scale (Ryff, 2013; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). By measuring the average of all 18 items as a total psychological well-being score, past research overcame the issue determining high reliability ($\alpha = 0.78$) (Riediger & Freund, 2004). Longer versions of Ryff's scales with 33 items and 42 items proved internal consistency by demonstrating respective values of 0.60 to 0.78 (Gao & McLellan, 2018) and 0.69 to 0.85 (Morozink et al., 2010). Furthermore, the original 120-item scale was found to be highly reliable and consistent with Cronbach's alpha

between 0.86 to 0.93 (Springer & Hauser, 2006). When calculating Cronbach's alpha of the 18-item scale as a general psychological well-being index of employees, the underlying study shows strong reliability by displaying a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88.

2.3.3 Affective well-being

As the counterpart to the examination of the relationship between perceived CSR and eudaimonic psychological well-being, Warr's (1990) popular two-dimensional framework of affective well-being was included in the survey to allow comparison with the potential relationship between hedonic affective well-being and perceived CSR. Both dimensions, anxiety-contentment and depression-enthusiasm, were expressed through 12 items in form of characteristic adjectives describing affective well-being states in relation to participants' jobs which required to be arranged on a six-point Likert scale according to the frequency of the feeling (1 = never; 6 = always). Sample items are "tense" for anxiety, "calm" for contentment, "miserable" for depression or "optimistic" for enthusiasm. The translation process followed the same strategy as in section 2.3.1, with the 12 items being translated at first into German and then back to English. The same reasons for this approach apply here due to the lack of an established German version of Warr's scale. The scale constructor himself explained the application of his framework according to the theoretical need and interest of the researcher, whether to measure only positive affect (satisfaction & enthusiasm), negative affect (anxiety & depression), each affective emotion by itself, or a general factor of affective well-being (Warr, 2016). When measuring each of the four affective feelings, anxious, content, depressed and enthusiastic, earlier research indicated a high Cronbach's alpha, ranging from 0.87 to 0.92, while also revealing high internal reliability as a general indicator for affective well-being, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91 (Gonçalves & Neves, 2011). Being consistent therewith, Warr's model, utilized as a universal indication for affective well-being, expresses a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 in this research study.

2.3.4 Perceived organizational support

When it comes to measuring perceived organizational support, the unidimensional Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) by Eisenberger et al. (1986) served as the assessment instrument for capturing the mediator variable of this study. Although the original scale consists of 36 items, a shorter version of Eisenberger et al.'s scale with eight items was chosen for the questionnaire which was recommended for use by Eisenberger and Rhoades (2002) themselves

as the shorter version is not considered problematic because of the original scale's high internal reliability. The items, exemplified by "The organization values my contribution to its well-being", were ranked on a seven-point Likert continuum, starting from strongly disagree (= 1) to strongly agree (= 7). The reason for choosing a seven-point scale instead of a six-point scale used for the previous measurements of this study was to be consistent with Eisenberger et al.'s scale. Half of the German translation was taken from Siebenaler and Fischer (2020) and the other half was done by the researcher based on the back-translation method since Siebenaler and Fisher's translation was not conform with all of the original English scale items. Internal reliability of the eight-item scale has been proven in prior studies, with Cronbach's alpha being 0.91 (Shen et al., 2014) or 0.89 (Roemer & Harris, 2018) as well as in this study paper, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91.

2.3.5 Internet Usage as Marker Variable

Measurement errors can endanger research findings by negatively influencing the validity of study results about relations of the underlying study variables. First and foremost, common method variance (CMV) caused by the use of the same measurement method, is one of the main factors in the emergence of such systematic measurement errors leading to common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Considering that these data were collected using self-reported information at a one point in time with the same questionnaire, makes the collected conclusions susceptible to CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003) Therefore, much attention was paid to the application of remedies to control for CMB. Instead of resorting to procedural remedies, such as separating the measurement by, for example, gathering the data at different points in time (Podsakoff et al., 2003), this study integrated a statistical method to test for CMB. A widely known statistical option is the partial correlation technique, in which a marker variable that is not theoretically related to at least one of the other study variables is included in the research model and tested for relationships with the study variables by partialling out the correlation between the marker and the other variables (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition to coming from an incoherent theoretical background, an ideal marker shares similarities with the main study variables in format and content so that it could have equal susceptibility to the same causes of CMV (Simmering et al., 2015).

Based on the recommendations from Simmering et al. (2015) who identified ideal markers that meet the aforementioned requirements, Internet usage was introduced as a marker variable in this study. A reliable and valid instrument for assessing individuals' Internet usage is the Compulsive Internet Use Scale (CIUS) from Meerkerk et al. (2009) which comprises 14 items

that ask about the frequency of Internet-related statements, with a sample item including "How often do you find it difficult to stop using the Internet when you are online?". The response format used is a five-point Likert scale, ranging from never (= 1), seldom (= 2), sometimes (= 3), often (= 4) to very often (= 5) and the translation of the scale into German is provided by Peukert et al. (2012). Previous research demonstrated high internal consistency reliability of the CIUS scale ($\alpha = 0.90$) (Guertler et al., 2014). Similarly, the present study displays a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88 of the CIUS scale.

2.3.6 Common method variance

Due to the bias-prone nature of self-reported, cross-sectional surveys implying that respondents' answers of their current opinions are gathered the same time as their answers regarding their past behavior related to those opinions, it is important to test the collected data for common method variance (CMV) to observe if correlations are inflated (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Consequently, CMV could wrongly reflect the relations between the measured variables leading to incorrect study results. The study initiated two approaches to check for the existence of CMV. One of the approaches was Harman's single-factor test which uses exploratory factor analysis to determine the unrotated factor solution (Podsakoff et al., 2003). If a single factor explains more than half of the variance in the data, the collected data is likely to be affected by method bias. If it explains under 50% of the variance, the data is not subject to CMV. In the present study, Harman's test provided a satisfactory outcome by resulting in the highest variance by one single factor explaining 31.58% of the total variance in the data which is less than the 50% benchmark (see Annex B). Therefore, the majority of variance is not explained by one single factor and CMV is not accounted as problematic for the collected data.

The second approach to detect CMV was the inclusion of a marker variable into the study model as a statistical remedy. By being equally susceptible to the same causes of CMV, emerging from common rater effects, common measurement context and item context, while being theoretically unrelated to the other variables, the correlations of a marker variable to the study variables provide information about the existence of CMV in the data. Therefore, the marker variable and the study measures were examined regarding possible significant relationships. As depicted in Table 3.1, internet usage only significantly correlates with psychological well-being (*rho* = -0.17, $p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, this single correlation does not pose a problem for the following research given the fact that the level of significance, $p < 0.05$, is only of weak expression. In addition, the significant correlations previously found remained significant after partialling out the marker variable when conducting correlation analyses

among the main study variables, which further underscores the non-existence of CMV in the data and supports discriminant validity of the measures (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) (see Annex C).

2.3.7 Socio-demographic and professional characteristics

To partial out other potential effects on the criteria variables, psychological and affective well-being, as well as perceived organizational support as the mediator, it was controlled for participants' characteristics that might influence the outcomes which include:

- Education level (secondary education (1), university entrance qualification (2), vocational training (3), bachelor's degree (4), master's degree (5), doctorate/PhD (6))
- Management position (0 = yes, 1 = no)

Chapter 3. Results

3.1 Statistical Analysis

Considering the statistical analysis, IBM SPSS Statistics version 29 and PROCESS macro version 4.2 (Hayes, 2022) were used to conduct the results of this study.

With SPSS, frequencies, means, standard deviations and reliability analyses via Cronbach's alpha were examined to evaluate the operationalized measures of the underlying theoretical frameworks. Followed by calculating Spearman's correlation coefficient, relationships among the study variables were explored and identified.

Subsequently to verify the research hypotheses, the detected relationships between the study variables were further investigated by regression analysis and tested for mediation using PROCESS macro.

3.2 Descriptives and correlation analysis

Besides indicating Cronbach's alpha, Table 3.1 presents the means, standard deviations and Spearman's correlation coefficients of the study measures to be able to continue with the analysis of the formulated hypotheses. The survey participants generally reported fairly high levels of CSR performances within their organizations that are focused on employees (Perceived CSR, $M = 4.33$, $SD = 0.79$) and indicated that they were strongly supported by their organizations (POS, $M = 5.15$, $SD = 1.03$). High levels were also found by observing the results of the well-being scales. Participants evaluated their psychological well-being as relatively high (PWB, $M = 4.65$, $SD = 0.58$), whereas they rated their job-related affective well-being lower but still relatively high (AWB, $M = 4.21$, $SD = 0.73$).

The correlation matrix not only provides information about the relationships among the studied constructs, but also presents significant correlations with socio-demographic and professional characteristics of the respondents. Although each socio-demographic and professional feature, as shown in Table 2.1, was tested for correlations with the measured constructs, Table 3.1 only contains significant correlational outcomes of participants' education and management position with at least one study variable. The remaining socio-demographic and professional characteristics of respondents showed either insignificant correlations with any of the measured constructs or were of little significance regarding the interpretation of the study outcome. With regard to the main measures, perceived CSR positively correlates with perceived organizational support ($rho = 0.74$, $p < 0.001$), psychological well-being ($rho = 0.59$, $p < 0.001$) and affective well-being ($rho = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 3.1 Means, Standard-deviations, and Correlations among Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	6a	6b	6c
1. Perceived CSR	4.33	0.79	(0.92)								
2. POS	5.15	1.03	0.74***	(0.91)							
3. PWB	4.65	0.58	0.59***	0.56***	(0.88)						
4. AWB	4.21	0.73	0.60***	0.68***	0.64***	(0.90)					
5. Internet usage	2.28	0.56	-0.13	0.01	-0.17*	-0.08	(0.88)				
6. Education	4.02	1.01	0.47***	0.44***	0.38***	0.36***	0.03	-			
a) Vocational Training	0.20	0.40	-0.39***	-0.36***	-0.42***	-0.38***	0.06	-0.57***	-		
b) Master's Degree	0.36	0.48	0.39**	0.37**	0.30**	0.30**	0.02	0.82***	0.38***	-	
c) Doctorate /PhD	0.02	0.14	0.12	0.15	0.15	0.18*	0.06	0.26**	-0.07	-0.11	-
7. Management Position	0.79	0.41	-0.25**	-0.37***	-0.26**	-0.28***	0.02	-0.35***	0.26**	-0.25**	-0.27***

Note: Significant correlations when * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; Management position: 0 = yes, 1 = no; Diagonal elements in parentheses are Cronbach's α of the constructs. *SD* = standard deviation; perceived CSR = perceived corporate social responsibilities; POS = perceived organizational support; PWB = psychological well-being; AWB = affective well-being

38

With regard to the main measures, perceived CSR positively correlates with perceived organizational support ($rho = 0.74$, $p < 0.001$), psychological well-being ($rho = 0.59$, $p < 0.001$) and affective well-being ($rho = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$). Perceived organizational support demonstrates significantly positive correlations with both well-being types, psychological well-being ($rho = 0.56$, $p < 0.001$) and affective well-being ($rho = 0.68$, $p < 0.001$), and in addition, psychological well-being is positively related to affective well-being ($rho = 0.64$, $p < 0.001$).

When it comes to the analyzed correlations between the participants' socio-demographic features with the main study measures, observations are significant relations with education, namely the category of respondents qualified by vocational training revealing exclusively negative associations and the category of participants holding a master's degree demonstrating solely positive correlations. Moreover, respondents with a doctorate or PhD degree showed a significantly positive relation with the main research construct of affective well-being ($rho = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$). Further significant relationships of importance between the main study variables and professional characteristics of respondents are seen in the negative associations with not having a management position.

To conclude, as already expected from the extant literature, the underlying study measures provide positive and significant correlations for further investigation on the influence and magnitude of CSR actions on psychological and affective well-being.

3.3 Hypotheses testing

Based on ordinary least squares regression (OLS) using bootstrapping method, PROCESS macro was made use of in order to be able to confirm or to deny the positive influence of CSR on psychological and affective well-being, as well as the role of perceived organizational support as a mediator between those constructs. Within the frame of the regression analysis, control variables have been included to take outside influences into account potentially affecting the relationship of CSR on psychological well-being as well as affective well-being. The socio-demographic and professional features in form of educational level and management position of respondents which showed significant correlations to the main variables were therefore controlled for.

Table 3.2 depicts the overall structural composition of the regression model and discloses the influence of participants' educational background and whether an employee holds a management position on the study constructs which has partially been observed in prior studies (Keyes et al., 2002) but fundamentally leaves room for further research. Before entering the POS as the mediator, perceived CSR explained 37% of the variance in psychological well-

being, whereas after including it into the model the explained variance in psychological well-being by perceived CSR raised to 40%. This observation is similar to the explained variance by perceived CSR in affective well-being, but with a higher increase from 38% to 48%.

Table 3.2 Regression model structure (standardized regression coefficients)

Variables	1. PWB	2. AWB	3. POS	3a. PWB	3b. AWB
Predictor Variable					
Perceived CSR	0.52***	0.56***	0.69***	0.36***	0.22*
Mediator					
POS				0.23*	0.50***
Control Variables					
Education	0.10	0.02	0.05	0.09	-0.01
Management Position	-0.12	-0.14	-0.17**	-0.08	-0.05
Constant	2.88	2.08	1.39	2.70	1.59
R²	0.37	0.38	0.59	0.40	0.48
F-Value	28.92***	29.96***	68.99***	23.69***	33.84***

Note: Significant when * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; Management position: $0 =$ yes, $1 =$ no; PWB = Relation of perceived CSR on PWB before entering mediator; 2. AWB = Relation of perceived CSR on AWB before entering mediator; 3. POS = Relation of perceived CSR on POS; 3a. PWB = Relation of perceived CSR on PWB while entering the mediator; 3b. AWB = Relation of perceived CSR on AWB while entering the mediator

To test the constructs on mediation, the regression coefficients of the different paths required for full or partial mediation have been examined for significance. Full mediation is reached when the predictor variable exerts a significant effect on the criterion variable only through the mediator without affecting the criterion variable directly. On the other hand, partial mediation is, thus, the significant direct effect of the predictor on the criterion variable in addition to the significant indirect influence through the predictor variable's effect on the mediator.

In that sense, before the inclusion of perceived organizational support as the mediator, perceived CSR was generally tested on the relationship towards psychological well-being which indicated a positive significant total effect ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.001$), which supports Hypothesis 1. After entering perceived organizational support, the results still display a direct

positive effect of perceived CSR on psychological well-being implying that employees have higher levels of psychological well-being when their organizations express interest and care in them through employee-oriented CSR practices ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, a significant positive relationship of perceived CSR towards perceived organizational support has been determined ($\beta = 0.69$, $p < 0.001$) followed by a positive relation of perceived organizational support influencing psychological well-being ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.05$). Given this finding, it can be concluded that perceived CSR not only directly affects the psychological well-being of employees but also has an indirect effect which improves employees' psychological well-being through perceived organizational support ($\beta = 0.16$, 95% - CI [0.02, 0.28]) (see Table 3.3). A partial mediation is established which provides support for the third study hypothesis, Hypothesis 3.

Despite focusing on psychological well-being as the main interest of research, the addition of employees' affective well-being in the context of work serves as a contribution to the extensive literature discussion comparing the two types of well-being. Similar to psychological well-being, before integrating the mediator perceived organizational support into the equation, affective well-being is positively influenced by perceived CSR ($\beta = 0.56$, p < 0.001) delivering evidence for Hypothesis 2. After entering the mediator, the association of perceived CSR on affective well-being also proves to be significant but at a weaker significance level ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.05$). Furthermore, perceived organizational support reveals a positive significant influence on affective well-being ($\beta = 0.50$, $p < 0.001$). In the same sense, the findings deliver evidence for an indirect effect of perceived CSR on affective well-being through perceived organizational support ($\beta = 0.34$, 95% - CI [0.19, 0.49]). This implies that the relationship between perceived CSR and affective well-being is partially mediated by perceived organizational support, as is the case with the relation of perceived CSR and employees' psychological well-being which confirms Hypothesis 4. Although all effects provide significant results, one distinction which can be observed is the strength of the mediating role of perceived organizational support and the direct path of perceived CSR leading to affective and psychological employee well-being. While the direct effect of perceived CSR on psychological well-being is stronger than the direct effect of perceived CSR on affective well-being, perceived organizational support as the mediator displays a stronger relationship to affective well-being than to psychological well-being, putting clear emphasis on the mediating role of perceived organizational support within the perceived CSR–affective well-being relationship (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Mediation analysis results

Relationship	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		t-value	Conclusion
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
CSR > POS > PWB	0.52***	0.36***	0.16	0.0205	0.2792	2.45	Partial Mediation
CSR > POS > AWB	0.56***	0.22*	0.34	0.1937	0.4909	4.44	Partial Mediation

Note: Significant correlations when * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; CSR = perceived corporate social responsibilities; POS = perceived organizational support; PWB = psychological well-being; AWB = affective well-being.

Chapter 4. Discussion

The influence of work-related subjects, settings and conditions on people's psychological and affective well-being has been analyzed in several previous studies (Loretto et al., 2005; Nelson et al., 2014; Paralta et al., 2023; Schütte et al., 2014) which reached the same conclusion that employees' well-being is highly affected by work-specific factors. Showing interest in the welfare of stakeholders that goes beyond the prescribed standards and an organization's own concerns, CSR practices help shaping the work environment and creating a favorable work climate (Barnett, 2007). As a result, how employees perceive performed CSR initiatives of their organizations and whether they feel being taken care of, influences their behavior and mood and are likely to have an impact on their well-being.

The first intention of this study was to determine whether employee-focused CSR practices do in fact have a positive impact on well-being and ultimately lead to the promotion of a better psychological and affective state of employees. Within the scope of this study, this first hypothesis could be verified, which aligned with previous made stand points in literature and, therefore, enhanced to the critical discussion of connecting work and employee's psychological well-being. First and foremost, the confirmation of the positive influence of CSR perceptions on employees' psychological state, further strengthens and highlights the important role of the stakeholder-based view of CSR whose understanding this study has relied on and which initially has been neglected in research. By regarding an organization's stakeholders as the focal point of interest within the CSR scope, this view provides a deeper inclusion of internal plus external stakeholders and organizes CSR practices particularly for their welfare. As a result, based on organization's treatment and behavior toward all its stakeholders, employees tend to develop a positive perception of their organization (Gond et al., 2017). In contrast to the earlier view of CSR, which placed the greatest importance on economic and legal responsibility and paid little attention to the ethical and philanthropic dimensions, the stakeholder-based CSR view shifts the focus from achieving primarily economically concomitant results to attaining stakeholder-benefitting outcomes. Even though this originally prevailing responsibility-based view has already been criticized as outdated and has often been met with suggestions for improvement (Rupp et al., 2013), this study delivers further evidence to take on a stakeholder-centered CSR approach in relation to analyzing the CSR–outcomes relationship as it was in this case.

Positive outcomes of perceived CSR have been identified, in that it affects employees' behavior, as organizational commitment, identification, work engagement, or trust (Bayode &

Duarte, 2022; Brammer et al., 2007; Hansen et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2010) ascertaining that positively perceived CSR practices are instrumental to evoke positive attitudes and behaviors. Building on that observation, the finding of this study ties into the fact that positively perceived CSR serves as a trigger for emotional outcomes, in this context improving employees' affective and psychological well-being. The underlying process, which reflects the fundamentals of the stakeholder-based CSR approach, can be reasoned as follows: Through well-executed CSR initiatives that take all stakeholders into account, the organization creates a positive image that is perceived by employees, to which they respond by thinking highly of their organization which, as a result, manifests itself in positive behavior (Hayat & Afshari, 2022).

This string of actions is of great matter when it comes to the dimensions of psychological well-being. Previous studies determined positive associations of perceived CSR on factors, such as meaningfulness (Glavas & Kelley, 2014) or enriched relationships between the employee and his or her organization (AlSuwaidi et al., 2021), picking up elemental points from the six dimensions of psychological well-being (attributed in that case to purpose in life and positive relations with others) that focus on the eudaimonic nature of positive psychological functioning which is not limited to immediate satisfaction but rather aims at human flourishing in the long run (Disabato et al., 2016). Although this study focused on psychological well-being as a general score, it is highly worth noting that perceived CSR most likely reveals positive correlations with the six sub-dimensions. Since perceived CSR already positively relates to an employee's overall psychological well-being, it is reasonable to suppose that perceived CSR is equally positively related to the six psychological well-being factors implying that any of the six dimensions has a potentially fair share in indicating psychological well-being through perceived CSR. In this context, companies could make use of CSR practices related to these dimensions that for example ensure that employees are provided with new opportunities that enhance their sense of control and adaptability, which contributes in this case to an employee's environmental mastery, or provide developmental training for their self-improvement and self-reflection, which serves as an instance of increasing an employee's personal growth. Consequently, in order to improve the psychological well-being of employees, companies can leverage each of the subdivided dimensions by adopting certain CSR practices that draw on and reinforce each of the dimensions. In this way, the more profound levels of psychological well-being are addressed while strengthening psychological well-being as a whole entity.

By adding perceived organizational support into the research model and identifying its potential mediating role, this study further examined the relationship between perceived CSR and psychological well-being. Evidence was found that perceived organizational support

partially mediates the relation between perceived CSR and employees' psychological well-being. Not only has this study identified a direct link between perceived CSR and the psychological state of employees but it also determined perceived organizational support as a mediator. As explained in section 1.3, perceived organizational support relies on three potential mechanisms describing psychological processes that help in the context of this study to underpin the mediator role of perceived organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Firstly, the socio-emotional needs of employees are being met when organizational support is provided. Through showing respect, approval and appreciation, a positive bond is built between an organization and its employees. This connection emotionally binds the employee to the organization and increases the employee's organizational identification. The increasing identification with the organization transfers to the employee's self-identification and self-acceptance reaching the deeper dimensions of psychological well-being and ultimately fosters employee's psychological welfare. Secondly and thirdly, social exchange theory and effort–outcome expectancy substantiate the role of perceived organizational support as the bridge between perceived CSR and the psychological well-being of employees. On the one hand, based on the reciprocity principle of social exchange theory, the organization feels obligated to reciprocate when the employee delivers a good performance on the job by offering appropriate CSR practices for organizational support. As a result, due to the implementation of satisfactory CSR practices, employees' psychological well-being will be enhanced, as evidenced in this study. On the other hand, according to the effort–outcome expectancy, the organization expects to receive a certain outcome or behavior in return for offering appropriate CSR practices, for example a healthy psychological state in order for employees to perform well at work.

By looking at previous research and the underlying mechanisms of perceived organizational support, it becomes clear that employee-focused CSR practices and organizational support are similar, yet differing constructs. What unites both is that the primary focus is centered on acting in favor of employee's well-being whereby CSR practices considers both, external and internal, stakeholders, and organizational support pays attention to internal stakeholders, namely employees (Glavas & Kelley, 2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Furthermore, CSR can be expressed through perceived organizational support in that the support an organization provides to its employees may be articulated in form of practices and policies that, for example, promote an intact work-life balance or career development opportunities (Farooq et al., 2014; Roemer & Harris, 2018). In that sense and considering the previous information about the connection of the constructs of CSR and organizational support,

it can be assumed that perceived organizational support functions as an extension of CSR practices connecting them to employees' psychological well-being.

A decisive factor which helps to draw the line between CSR and organizational support more precisely, is the high priority given to social relationships. For social exchange theory and performance–outcome expectations to be effective, it depends on both parties, employees and organization, to develop mutual trust and build genuine relationships for organizational support to lead to certain beneficial outcomes, such as psychological well-being. High quality social relationships have not only been associated with health-related outcomes, as the promotion of immune system functions or the reduction of allostatic load, but were claimed as a defining source of psychological well-being (Ryff & Singer, 2000). As an antecedent of psychological well-being (Guest, 2017), organizational support is found within the sub-dimension of positive relationships with others underscoring an organization's role as a support provider towards its employees to positively influence their eudaimonic human flourishing. Thus, the outcome of this study puts strong emphasis on the importance of positive social relations, social exchange and support created and provided by the organization by identifying organizational support as a mediator of perceived employee-focused CSR and employees' psychological well-being.

Besides the intent to investigate the hypotheses, H1 and H3, of this study, additional interest lied within the comparison of affective and psychological well-being of employees relative to their perceptions of their organizations' CSR activities by analyzing H2 and H4. The debate about affective (hedonia) and psychological (eudaimonia) well-being being the same or distinct constructs has been yet longstanding. Within the frame of this study, results reveal that affective and psychological well-being lead to the same outcome which contributes to outlining the interconnected nature of those two constructs. Not only do they positively correlate with each other, but they also indicate similar results regarding the associations towards participants' socio-demographic and professional features. When respondents held higher educational degrees, they exhibited higher levels of both, affective and psychological well-being, in that respondents with vocational training negatively correlated and participants holding a master's degree positively correlated with affective and psychological well-being. However, respondents with a doctorate/PhD degree show significant correlations only with affective well-being by positively affecting each other. The position in which respondents found themselves appears to play another important role in influencing their well-being, both affectively and psychologically. A management position had a positive effect on respondents' affective and psychological well-being, whereby being in a managerial post was somewhat more strongly correlated with affective than with psychological well-being. By and large, according to the

findings of this study, there is indeed existent overlap between these two constructs being related to and affected by the same work conditions and peoples' socio-demographic features.

In addition, as with psychological well-being, a positive partial mediation of perceived organizational support was uncovered. Here, by being highly significant, perceived organizational support reveals an even greater impact on the affective state of employees with regard to employee-focused CSR practices than on their psychological well-being. This could be due to the general nature of the different types of well-being. As theoretically explained in the previous chapters of this study, psychological well-being refers to eudaimonia, a concept of well-being that addresses human flourishing and experiences that go beyond pleasure and are not restricted to immediate satisfaction but lead to overall positive psychological functioning (Disabato et al., 2016). In comparison, affective well-being, as based on the hedonic approach of well-being, focuses on the direct maximization of pleasure and happiness. Consequently, psychological well-being has been placed in the long-term context, measuring profound dimensions of well-being (Kim et al., 2020; Moravcikova et al., 2015; Türker, 2015), whereas affective well-being has been classified as being of short-term nature, assessing immediate emotional moods and events (Luhmann et al., 2012; Tsurumi et al., 2021). Organizational support implies explicit actions directly applied by the organization. In view of this, an organization's support towards its employees, as an immediate practical influence on well-being, affects employees' affective moods rather than psychological long-term well-being. Therefore, CSR practices become more effective on affective well-being as the organization takes immediate action, in this case in form of providing support and encouragement. Although employees' perceptions of their organizations' provided support hold a more active place in the CSR–affective well-being relationship than in the CSR–psychological well-being relation, both types of well-being can be positively influenced through an appropriate level of organizational support through CSR activities. As of this, the role of an organization's executed CSR practices is of great importance for boosting employees' well-being, affectively and psychologically.

4.1 Theoretical and practical implications

The recognition which CSR has experienced within recent decades is not to be underestimated when it comes to shaping an organization and its business operations as research has repeatedly shown that CSR practices influence an organization's financial and economical outcomes (Lee, 2008; Orlitzky et al., 2003; Margolis & Walsh, 2003). Once considered as almost exclusively economic and legal responsibilities at the organizational level aimed at external stakeholders, such as customers, shareholders or society, CSR increasingly shifted its focus on social and

philanthropic competences that are not only pointed at the externally receiving side of an organization. By aligning business activities around internal stakeholders and their underlying interests, employees have been progressively placed in the center of attention, although employee focused CSR research still has not received enough awareness compared to CSR research at the macrolevel. Strengthened organizational identification (Kim et al., 2010; Paruzel et al., 2021), organizational commitment (Brammer et al., 2007; Paruzel et al., 2021), employee creativity (Ahmad et al., 2022), career satisfaction (Mansour et al., 2023) or increased intention to stay by amplified organizational trust (Hansen et al., 2011), have yet been identified as beneficial outcomes at the individual level due to CSR practices directed towards to employees. Hence, well-executed CSR practices were acknowledged as an advantageous work-creating instrument by positively affecting employees' behavior and attitudes. This study delivered further evidence for the positive impact of CSR activities on employees at the individual level by exploring its influence on employees' affective and psychological well-being.

Nowadays, the debate on being mentally well has risen to an enormous extent and attaches considerable importance to mental health in every domain of life. Within this study, psychological well-being, which acts as a key contributor for mental health (Lamers et al., 2015), has been identified as a positive outcome when organizations performed employee-focused CSR practices which were well perceived by its employees. In light of this finding, CSR practices not only positively influence employees' psychological well-being at work but also indirectly reach other areas of life, such as family or social life, due to the spillover effect (Ryff, 2013). Since touching multiple domains of life, CSR practices ultimately affect the overall psychological well-being of employees and further promote mental health in general. Considering that, organizations should focus on properly implementing and executing appropriate and employee-specific CSR practices as higher levels of employees' psychological well-being improve their performance on the job as pointed out in previous studies (Daniels & Harris, 2000; Kundi et al., 2021; Mandal & Goswami, 2022). Furthermore, the significance of social support which an organization offers to its employees has become clear. Due to the lack of investigated underlying processes in CSR-outcome associations in recent research, this study gave greater insight by establishing the mediating effect of organizational support. Qualitative relationships and social support provide an improved understanding of the connection between employees' perceptions of the CSR activities which their organizations perform related to their well-being. Here, the findings evidenced that employees' affective well-being, in terms of feeling anxious, content, depressed or enthusiastic, will particularly be improved by CSR practices when the organization offers immediate and adequate support.

Although psychological well-being will also be enhanced by the degree of organizational support which CSR practices contribute, the mediating role of perceived organizational support appears to be of higher significance for the impact of perceived CSR on the affective well-being of employees. In both cases, however, the support an organization conveys to its employees plays a vital role in the short-term oriented affective and long-term referred psychological well-being. Besides applying appropriate CSR activities in general, it is therefore suggested for organizations to advocate for the implementation of practices and support systems that address short-term pleasure-giving happiness as well as long-term human flourishing and positive psychological thinking. How work settings and conditions are organized should receive additional consideration for the selection of particular practices and supportive measures since certain factors, such as if employees hold a management position, can either positively or negatively influence affective and psychological well-being. With regard to the improvement of psychological well-being, an organization can target the various sub-dimensions to achieve specific wanted outcomes related to their underlying concepts, for example by offering training opportunities that help employees to work autonomously, to boost their self-acceptance and self-esteem or to strengthen interrelationships with team building activities.

On the much-debated topic of the distinction between affective and psychological well-being, this study makes a contribution by showing that both types of well-being lead to very similar outcomes, although they conceptually point to theoretically different meanings. Consequently, for future research when measuring mental forms of well-being, it may be of interest to consider both jointly and to incorporate both measures to further substantiate the assumption of slightly different but interconnected constructs.

4.2 Limitations and suggestions for future research

Regarding the limitations of this research paper, the construct of affective and psychological well-being could not be further elaborated as it would exceed the predetermined scope of this study. Following research would be relevant to go into detail in respect of the different affective poles and axes plus the various psychological sub-dimensions to further explore the extent and magnitude of employees' perceptions of CSR practices on the specific affective and psychological well-being attributes. By examining those sub-relationships more thoroughly, better assumptions could be drawn about the targeted and specified introduction of organizational support and CSR measures to ensure the best outcome for employee well-being.

Given the socio-demographic and professional factors that influence employees' affective and psychological well-being, such as the educational level or holding a management position,

it would be interesting to further investigate the underlying mechanisms that explain why, for employees, having a certain educational background or being a manager is significantly related to higher levels of their affective and psychological well-being.

With regard to the study procedure and data collection, it would be advantageous to broaden the study extent by increasing the number of participants and specifying those participants characteristics more precisely. Although this study contains a sufficient number of respondents to draw valid and reliable conclusions from the study outcome, more participants imply a greater level of inferential reliability and validity.

Additionally, despite of this study being based on a more holistic research approach in that it included respondents of different ages and genders and from various companies and industries who have been working for at least more than three months, a larger set of specialized exclusion criteria could be established for the admission of participants (e.g. employees from only one organization with a tenure of at least two years who are not in managing position), as a smaller number of exclusion criteria limits more detailed interpretations and recommendations.

Furthermore, the observation of the impact of CSR practices on employees' affective and psychological well-being before and after implementation would be of interest by conducting the survey at two given points in time in order to monitor possible changes in employees' well-being based on the introduction of CSR activities. Taking all these aspects into account, elaborated and particularized information could be provided in relation to the perceived CSR–affective and psychological well-being relationship.

Regarding the measures, it would be advisable for future studies to use versions of Ryff's psychological well-being scale which go beyond the 18-item scale. Although the shortened scale offers overall construct reliability based on its 120-item parent scale, often the same reliability problems occur, as in previous studies, which must now be avoided by using longer scales to guarantee construct reliability at all costs.

4.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study shows that sufficient and well-applied employee-focused CSR practices, especially delivered through the provision of organizational support, are a helpful and powerful tool for organizations to guide and influence the well-being of employees and, hopefully, leverage those to increase organizational performance. Importantly, CSR practices have been found not only to positively influence the affective, hedonic well-being but also to have a positive impact on the deeper rooted psychological, eudaimonic well-being of employees.

References

Abdallah, A. B., Obeidat, B. Y., Aqqad, N. O., Al Janini, M. N. K., & Dahiyat, S. E. (2017). An Integrated Model of Job Involvement, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment: A Structural Analysis in Jordan's Banking Sector. *Communications and Network*, *9*, 28–53. https://doi.org/10.4236/cn.2017.91002

Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A., & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S back in corporate social responsibility: A multilevel theory of social change in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(3), 836–863. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2007.25275678

Aguinis, H. (2011). Organizational responsibility: Doing good and doing well. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 3. Maintaining, expanding, and contracting the organization* (pp. 855–879). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/12171-024

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What We Know and Don't Know About Corporate Social Responsibility: A Review and Research Agenda. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), 932–968. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311436079

Ahmad, N., Ullah, Z., AlDhaen, E., Han, H., & Scholz, M. (2022). A CSR perspective to foster employee creativity in the banking sector: The role of work engagement and psychological safety. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *67*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2022.102968

Ahmad, N., Ullah, Z., Ryu, H. B., Ariza-Montes, A., & Han, H. (2023). From Corporate Social Responsibility to Employee Well-Being: Navigating the Pathway to Sustainable Healthcare. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, *16*, 1079–1095. https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S398586

Allport, G. W. (1961). *Pattern and Growth in Personality*. New York: Holt, Reinhart & Winston.

Alonso, J., Angermeyer, M.C., Bernert, S., Bruffaerts, R., Brugha, T., Bryson, H., Girolamo, G., Graaf, R.D., Demyttenaere, K., Gasquet, I., Haro, J.M., Katz, S.J., Kessler, R.C., Kovess, V., Lépine, J.P., Ormel, J., Polidori, G., Russo, L.J., Vilagut, G., Almansa, J., Arbabzadeh-Bouchez, S., Autonell, J., Bernal, M., Buist-Bouwman, M.A., Codony, M., Domingo-Salvany, A., Ferrer, M., Joo, S.S., Martinez-Alonso, M., Matschinger, H., Mazzi, F., Morgan, Z., Morosini, P., Palacín, C., Romera, B., Taub, N., Vollebergh, W.A.M., & ESEMeD (2004). Disability and quality of life impact of mental disorders in Europe: results from the European Study of the Epidemiology of Mental Disorders

(ESEMeD) project. *Acta psychiatrica Scandinavica. Supplementum, 109*(420), 38-46. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0047.2004.00329.x

AlSuwaidi, M., Eid, R., & Agag, G. (2021). Understanding the link between CSR and employee green behaviour. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *46*, 50–61. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.11.008

Aristotle. (1985). *Nicomachean Ethics.* (T. Irwin, Trans.) Indianapolis, IN: Hackett. Original work published 4th century BCE.

Bargh, J. A., Chen, M., & Burrows, L. (1996). Automaticity of Social Behavior: Direct Effects of Trait Construct and Stereotype Activation on Action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*(2), 230–244. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.2.230

Barnett, M. L. (2007). Stakeholder Influence Capacity and the Variability of Financial Returns to Corporate Social Responsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(3), 794–816. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2007.25275520

Bartkowiak, A. (2008). *Eine umfassende Betrachtung der Einflussfaktoren psychologischen Wohlbefindens und deren Zusammenhänge - unter Einbeziehung religiöser und spiritueller Variablen* (Diploma Thesis, University of Vienna). https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/11584568.pdf

Bayode, O. T., & Duarte, A. P. (2022). Examining the Mediating Role of Work Engagement in the Relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility and Turnover Intention: Evidence from Nigeria. *Administrative Sciences*, *12*(4), 150. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci12040150

Bhattacharya, C. B., Korschun, D., & Sen, S. (2008). Using Corporate Social Responsibility to Win the War for Talent. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *49*(2), 37–44.

Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life.* New York: Wiley.

Boateng, F. D. (2014). Perceived Organizational Support and Police Officer Effectiveness: Testing the Organizational Support Theory in Ghana. *International Criminal Justice Review*, *24*(2), 134–150. https://doi.org/10.1177/1057567714536907

Bowen, H. R. (1953). *Social Responsibilites of the Businessman.* New York: Harper & Row.

Brammer, S., Millington, A., & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(10), 1701–1719. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190701570866

Brieger, S. A., Anderer, S., Fröhlich, A., Bäro, A., & Meynhardt, T. (2020). Too Much of a Good Thing? On the Relationship Between CSR and Employee Work Addiction. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *166*(2), 311–329. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04141-8

Briner, R. B. (2000). Relationships between work environments, psychological environments and psychological well-being. *Occupational Medicine*, *50*(5), 299–303. https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/50.5.299

Busseri, M. A., & Sadava, S. W. (2011). A Review of the Tripartite Structure of Subjective Well-Being: Implications for Conceptualization, Operationalization, Analysis, and Synthesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *15*(3), 290–314. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868310391271

Bühler, C., & Massarik, F. (Eds.). (1968). *The Course of Human Life: A Study of Goals in the Humanistic Perspective.* New York: Springer.

Caesens, G., Stinglhamber, F., & Ohana, M. (2016). Perceived organizational support and well-being: a weekly study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *31*(7), 1214–1230. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-01-2016-0002

Carroll, A. B. (1979). A Three-Dimensional Conceptual Model of Corporate Performance. *The Academy of Management Review*, *4*(4), 497–505. https://doi.org/10.2307/257850

Carroll, A. B. (1991). The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders. *Business Horizons*, *34*(4), 39–48. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0007-6813(91)90005-G

Carroll, A. B. (2016). Carroll's pyramid of CSR: taking another look. *International Journal of Corporate Social Responsibility*, *1*(3), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40991-016-0004-6

Chia, A., & Kern, M. L. (2021). Subjective Wellbeing and the Social Responsibilities of Business: an Exploratory Investigation of Australian Perspectives. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, *16*(5), 1881–1908. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-020-09846-x

Choi, B. C., & Pak, A. W. (2005). A Catalog of Biases in Questionnaires. *Preventing Chronic Disease*, *2*(1), 1–13.

Colman, I., Murray, J., Abbott, R. A., Maughan, B., Kuh, D., Croudace, T. J., & Jones, P. B. (2009). Outcomes of conduct problems in adolescence: 40 year follow-up of national cohort. *BMJ*, *338*(7688), a2981. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.a2981

Daniels, K., Brough, P., Guppy, A., Peters-Bean, K. M., & Weatherstone, L. (1997). A note on a modification to Warr's measures of affective well-being at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *70*, 129–138. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1997.tb00638.x

Daniels, K., & Harris, C. (2000). Work, psychological well-being and performance. *Occupational Medicine*, *50*(5), 304–309. https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/50.5.304

Danna, K., & Griffin, R. W. (1999). Health and Well-Being in the Workplace: A Review and Synthesis of the Literature. *Journal of Management*, *25*(3), 357–384. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639902500305

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective Well-Being. *Psychological Bulletin*, *95*(3), 542–575. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.95.3.542

Diener, E., Heintzelman, S. J., Kushlev, K., Tay, L., Wirtz, D., Lutes, L. D., & Oishi, S. (2017). Findings All Psychologists Should Know From the New Science on Subjective Well-Being. *Canadian Psychology*, *58*(2), 87–104. https://doi.org/10.1037/cap0000063

Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective Well-Being: Three Decades of Progress. In *Psychological Bulletin* (Vol. 125, Issue 2, pp. 276–302). American Psychological Association Inc. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.2.276

Dijksterhuis, A., & Van Knippenberg, A. (1998). The Relation Between Perception and Behavior, or How to Win a Game of Trivial Pursuit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*(4), 865–877. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.4.865

Disabato, D. J., Goodman, F. R., Kashdan, T. B., & Short, J. L. (2016). Different Types of Well-Being? A Cross-Cultural Examination of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being. *Psychological Assessment*, *28*(5), 471–482. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/pas0000209

Doran, C. M., & Kinchin, I. (2019). A review of the economic impact of mental illness. *Australian Health Review*, *43*(1), 43–48. https://doi.org/10.1071/AH16115

Duarte, A. P., Neves, J. G., Gomes, D. R., & Moisés, G. A. (2019). Corporate social responsibility, job satisfaction, and customer orientation in Angola. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, *15*(1–2), 93–109. https://doi.org/10.1504/WREMSD.2019.098469

Duarte, A. P., & Silva, V. H. (2023). Satisfaction with Internal Communication and Hospitality Employees' Turnover Intention: Exploring the Mediating Role of Organizational Support and Job Satisfaction. *Administrative Sciences*, *13*(10), 216. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci13100216

Duyan, E. C., Aytaç, S., Akyildiz, N., & Van Laar, D. (2013). Measuring Work Related Quality of Life and Affective Well-being in Turkey. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *4*(1), 105–116. https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2013.v4n1p105

Edwards, J. R. (2001). Multidimensional Constructs in Organizational Behavior Research: An Integrative Analytical Framework. *Organizational Research Methods*, *4*(2), 144–192. https://doi.org/10.1177/109442810142004

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchinson, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 500–507. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500

Eisenberger, R., Shanock, L. R., & Wen, X. (2019). Perceived Organizational Support: Why Caring About Employees Counts. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior 2020*, *7*(1), 101–124. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012119-044917

El Akremi, A., Gond, J. P., Swaen, V., De Roeck, K., & Igalens, J. (2018). How Do Employees Perceive Corporate Responsibility? Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Corporate Stakeholder Responsibility Scale. *Journal of Management*, *44*(2), 619–657. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315569311

Erdogan, B., & Enders, J. (2007). Support From the Top: Supervisors' Perceived Organizational Support as a Moderator of Leader–Member Exchange to Satisfaction and Performance Relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(2), 321–330. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.321

Erikson, E. H. (1959). *Identity and the Life Cycle: Selected Papers*. New York: International Universities Press.

Eurostat. (2022, July 06). *Duration of working life: how long in 2021?* Eurostat. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/products-eurostat-news/-/ddn-20220706-1

Farooq, O., Payaud, M., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2014). The Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on Organizational Commitment: Exploring Multiple Mediation Mechanisms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *125*(4), 563–580. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1928-3

Frankl, V. E. (1959). The spiritual dimension in existential analysis and logotherapy. *Journal of Individual Psychology, 15*, 157–165.

Freeman, R. E. (2004). The Stakeholder Approach Revisited. *Zeitschrift Für Wirtschafts- Und Unternehmensethik*, *5*(3), 228–241. https://doi.org/10.5771/1439-880x-2004-3-228

Freeman, R. E., Harrison, J. S., & Wicks, A. C. (2007). *Managing for Stakeholders: Survival, Reputation, and Success.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Friedman, E. M., & Ryff, C. D. (2012). Living Well With Medical Comorbidities: A Biopsychosocial Perspective. *Journals of Gerontology - Series B Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, *67*(5), 535–544. https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbr152

Gao, J., & McLellan, R. (2018). Using Ryff's scales of psychological well-being in adolescents in mainland China. *BMC Psychology*, *6*(17), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-018-0231-6

Glavas, A., & Godwin, L. N. (2013). Is the Perception of "Goodness" Good Enough? Exploring the Relationship Between Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility and Employee Organizational Identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *114*(1), 15–27. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1323-5

Glavas, A., & Kelley, K. (2014). The Effects of Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility on Employee Attitudes. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *24*(2), 165–202. https://doi.org/10.5840/beq20143206

Gonçalves, S. P., & Neves, J. (2011). Factorial Validation of Warr's (1990) Well-Being Measure: A Sample Study on Police Officers. *Psychology*, *2*(7), 706–712. https://doi.org/10.4236/psych.2011.27108

Gond, J. P., El Akremi, A., Swaen, V., & Babu, N. (2017). The psychological microfoundations of corporate social responsibility: A person-centric systematic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*(2), 225–246. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2170

Guertler, D., Rumpf, H. J., Bischof, A., Kastirke, N., Petersen, K. U., John, U., & Meyer, C. (2014). Assessment of Problematic Internet Use by the Compulsive Internet Use Scale and the Internet Addiction Test: A Sample of Problematic and Pathological Gamblers. *European Addiction Research*, *20*(2), 75–81. https://doi.org/10.1159/000355076

Guest, D. E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: towards a new analytic framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *27*(1), 22–38. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12139

Gürlek, M., Düzgün, E., & Uygur, S. M. (2017). How does corporate social responsibility create customer loyalty? The role of corporate image. *Social Responsibility Journal*, *13*(3), 409–427. https://doi.org/10.1108/SRJ-10-2016-0177

Hansen, S. D., Dunford, B. B., Boss, A. D., Boss, R. W., & Angermeier, I. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility and the Benefits of Employee Trust: A Cross-Disciplinary Perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *102*(1), 29–45. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-011-0903-0

Haro, J.M., Ayuso-Mateos, J.L., Bitter, I., Demotes-Mainard, J., Leboyer, M., Lewis, S.W., Linszen, D., Maj, M., Mcdaid, D., Meyer-Lindenberg, A., Robbins, T.W., Schumann, G., Thornicroft, G., Van Der Feltz-Cornelis, C., Van Os, J., Wahlbeck, K., Wittchen, H.-U., Wykes, T., Arango, C., Bickenbach, J., Brunn, M., Cammarata, P., Chevreul, K., Evans-

Lacko, S., Finocchiaro, C., Fiorillo, A., Forsman, A.K., Hazo, J.-B., Knappe, S., Kuepper, R., Luciano, M., Miret, M., Obradors-Tarragó, C., Pagano, G., Papp, S. and Walker-Tilley, T. (2014). ROAMER: Roadmap for mental health research in Europe. *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research*, *23*(Suppl. 1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1002/mpr.1406

Hayat, A., & Afshari, L. (2022). CSR and employee well-being in hospitality industry: A mediation model of job satisfaction and affective commitment. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *51*, 387–396. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2022.04.008

Hayes, A. F. (2022). *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis: A regression-based approach (3rd edition).* New York: The Guilford Press.

Heintzelman, S. J. (2018). Eudaimonia in the Contemporary Science of Subjective Well-Being: Psychological Well-Being, Self- Determination, and Meaning in Life. *Handbook of Well-Being*. Salt Lake City, UT: DEF Publishers. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351231879-14

Hu, B., Liu, J., & Qu, H. (2019). The employee-focused outcomes of CSR participation: The mediating role of psychological needs satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *41*(4), 129–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2019.10.012

Hultsch, D. F., MacDonald, S. W. S., Hunter, M. A., Maitland, S. B., & Dixon, R. A. (2002). Sampling and generalisability in developmental research: Comparison of random and convenience samples of older adults. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *26*(4), 345–359. https://doi.org/10.1080/01650250143000247

Huta, V., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Pursuing Pleasure or Virtue: The Differential and Overlapping Well-Being Benefits of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Motives. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *11*(6), 735–762. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-009-9171-4

Jahoda, M. (1958). *Current concepts of positive mental health*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Jung, C. G. (1933). *Modern Man in Search of the Soul.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

Jung, C. G. (1963). *Memories, Dreams, Reflections (*A. Jaffé, Ed., C. Winston, & R. Winston, Trans.). New York: Random House Inc.

Kaufman, V. A., Horton, C., Walsh, L. C., & Rodriguez, A. (2022). The Unity of Well-Being: An Inquiry into the Structure of Subjective Well-Being Using the Bifactor Model. *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*, *7*, 461–486. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41042-022-00077-z

Keyes, C. L. M., Shmotkin, D., & Ryff, C. D. (2002). Optimizing Well-Being: The Empirical Encounter of Two Traditions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *82*(6), 1007–1022. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.82.6.1007

Kim, H. R., Lee, M., Lee, H. T., & Kim, N. M. (2010). Corporate Social Responsibility and Employee-Company Identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(4), 557–569. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-010-0440-2

Kim, M., Yin, X., & Lee, G. (2020). The effect of CSR on corporate image, customer citizenship behaviors, and customers' long-term relationship orientation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *88*(3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102520

Kundi, Y. M., Aboramadan, M., Elhamalawi, E. M. I., & Shahid, S. (2021). Employee psychological well-being and job performance: exploring mediating and moderating mechanisms. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *29*(3), 736–754. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-05-2020-2204

Kuokkanen, H. (2017). Fictitious consumer responsibility? Quantifying social desirability bias in corporate social responsibility surveys. *Palgrave Communications*, *3*(1), 16106. https://doi.org/10.1057/palcomms.2016.106

Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2017). Perceived Organizational Support: A Meta-Analytic Evaluation of Organizational Support Theory. *Journal of Management*, *43*(6), 1854–1884. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315575554

Laguna, M., Mielniczuk, E., & Razmus, W. (2019). Test of the Bifactor Model of Job-Related Affective Well-being. *Europe's Journal of Psychology*, *15*(2), 342–357. https://doi.org/10.5964/ejop.v15i2.1632

Lamers, S. M. A., Westerhof, G. J., Glas, C. A. W., & Bohlmeijer, E. T. (2015). The bidirectional relation between positive mental health and psychopathology in a longitudinal representative panel study. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *10*(6), 553–560. https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2015.1015156

Laplume, A. O., Sonpar, K., & Litz, R. A. (2008). Stakeholder Theory: Reviewing a Theory That Moves Us. *Journal of Management*, *34*(6), 1152–1189. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308324322

Law, K. S., Wong, C.-S., & Mobley, W. H. (1998). Toward a Taxonomy of Multidimensional Constructs. *Academy of Management Review,* *23*(4), 741–755. https://doi.org/10.2307/259060

Lee, M. D. P. (2008). A review of the theories of corporate social responsibility: Its evolutionary path and the road ahead. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *10*(1), 53–73. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00226.x

Lefever, S., Dal, M., & Matthíasdóttir, Á. (2007). Online data collection in academic research: advantages and limitations. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *38*(4), 574–582. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8535.2006.00638.x

Liang, T. Y., & Yoon, S. J. (2023). The Effect of Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility (PCSR) on Subjective Well-Being. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, *15*(9), 7497. https://doi.org/10.3390/su15097497

Lindell, M. K., & Whitney, D. J. (2001). Accounting for Common Method Variance in Cross-Sectional Research Designs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(1), 114–121. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.114

Linley, P. A., Maltby, J., Wood, A. M., Osborne, G., & Hurling, R. (2009). Measuring happiness: The higher order factor structure of subjective and psychological well-being measures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *47*(8), 878–884. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2009.07.010

Loretto, W., Popham, F., Platt, S., Pavis, S., Hardy, G., MacLeod, L., & Gibbs, J. (2005). Assessing psychological well-being: A holistic investigation of NHS employees. *International Review of Psychiatry*, *17*(5), 329–336. https://doi.org/10.1080/09540260500238371

Luhmann, M., Hawkley, L. C., Eid, M., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2012). Time frames and the distinction between affective and cognitive well-being. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *46*(4), 431–441. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2012.04.004

Lynch, P. D., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (1999). Perceived Organizational Support: Inferior Versus Superior Performance by Wary Employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(4), 467–483. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.84.4.467

Maan, A. T., Abid, G., Butt, T. H., Ashfaq, F., & Ahmed, S. (2020). Perceived organizational support and job satisfaction: a moderated mediation model of proactive personality and psychological empowerment. *Future Business Journal*, *6*(1), 21. https://doi.org/10.1186/s43093-020-00027-8

Macassa, G., McGrath, C., Tomaselli, G., & Buttigieg, S. C. (2021). Corporate social responsibility and internal stakeholders' health and well-being in Europe: A systematic descriptive review. *Health Promotion International*, *36*(3), 866–883. https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/daaa071

Mandal, S., & Goswami, R. (2022). The Effect of Psychological Wellbeing on Employee Job Performance and the Role of Gender. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, *10*(4), 1113-1121. https://doi.org/10.25215/1004.110

Mansour, M., Alaghbari, M. A., Beshr, B., & Al-Ghazali, B. M. (2023). Perceived CSR on Career Satisfaction: A Moderated Mediation Model of Cultural Orientation (Collectivism and Masculinity) and Organisational Pride. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, *15*(6). https://doi.org/10.3390/su15065288

Margolis, J., & Walsh, J. (2003). Misery Loves Companies: Rethinking Social Initiatives by Business. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *48*(2), 268-305. https://doi.org/10.2307/3556659

Maslow, A. H. (1968). *Toward a psychology of being* (Vol. 2d ed.). New York: Van Nostrand.

Meerkerk, G. J., Van Den Eijnden, R. J. J. M., Vermulst, A. A., & Garretsen, H. F. L. (2009). The Compulsive Internet Use Scale (CIUS): Some Psychometric Properties. *Cyberpsychology and Behavior*, *12*(1), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1089/cpb.2008.0181

Memon, K. R., Zada, M., Ghani, B., Ullah, R., Azim, M. T., Mubarik, M. S., Vega-Muñoz, A., & Castillo, D. (2021). Linking Corporate Social Responsibility to Workplace Deviant Behaviors: Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 803481. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.803481

Mielniczuk, E., & Łaguna, M. (2018). The factorial structure of job-related affective well-being: Polish adaptation of the warr's measure. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, *31*(4), 429–443. https://doi.org/10.13075/ijomeh.1896.01178

Moravcikova, K., Stefanikova, Ľ., & Rypakova, M. (2015). CSR reporting as an important tool of CSR communication. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *26*, 332–338. https://doi.org/10.1016/s2212-5671(15)00861-8

Morgeson, F. P., Aguinis, H., Waldman, D. A., & Siegel, D. S. (2013). Extending corporate social responsibility research to the human resource management and organizational behavior domains: A look to the future. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 805–824. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12055

Morozink, J. A., Riedman, E. M., Coe, C. L., & Ryff, C. D. (2010). Socioeconomic and Psychosocial Predictors of Interleukin-6 in the MIDUS National Sample. *Health Psychology*, *29*(6), 626–635. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021360

Nazir, O., Islam, J. U., & Rahman, Z. (2021). Effect of CSR participation on employee sense of purpose and experienced meaningfulness: A self-determination theory perspective.

Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, *46*, 123–133. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.12.002

Nelson, K., Boudrias, J. S., Brunet, L., Morin, D., De Civita, M., Savoie, A., & Alderson, M. (2014). Authentic leadership and psychological well-being at work of nurses: The mediating role of work climate at the individual level of analysis. *Burnout Research*, *1*(2), 90–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.burn.2014.08.001

Neugarten, B. L. (1973). Personality change in late life: A developmental perspective. In C. Eisdorfer & M. P. Lawton (Eds.), *The psychology of adult development and aging* (pp. 311–335). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10044-012

Onkila, T., & Sarna, B. (2022). A systematic literature review on employee relations with CSR: State of art and future research agenda. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, *29*(2), 435–447. https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.221

Orlitzky, M., Schmidt, F. L., & Rynes, S. L. (2003). Corporate Social and Financial Performance: A Meta-analysis. *Organization Studies*, *24*(3), 403–441. https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840603024003910

Panaccio, A., & Vandenberghe, C. (2009). Perceived organizational support, organizational commitment and psychological well-being: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *75*(2), 224–236. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2009.06.002

Paralta, R., Simões, E., & Duarte, A. P. (2023). Subjective Well-Being in Organizations: Effects of Internal Ethical Context and Ethical Leadership. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *20*(5), 4451. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20054451

Parmar, B. L., Freeman, R. E., Harrison, J. S., Wicks, A. C., Purnell, L., & de Colle, S. (2010). Stakeholder Theory: The State of the Art. *Academy of Management Annals*, *4*(1), 403–445. https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2010.495581

Paruzel, A., Klug, H. J. P., & Maier, G. W. (2021). The Relationship Between Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility and Employee-Related Outcomes: A Meta-Analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 607108. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.607108

Peloza, J. (2009). The Challenge of Measuring Financial Impacts From Investments in Corporate Social Performance. *Journal of Management*, *35*(6), 1518–1541. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309335188

Peukert, P., Steffen, S., ElKasmi, J., Barth, G. M., Meerkerk, G. J., & Batra, A. (2012). Faktorielle Struktur der deutschen Version der Compulsive Internet Use Scale (CIUS)

nach konfirmatorischer Faktorenanalyse. *Zeitschrift Für Klinische Psychologie Und Psychotherapie*, *41*(2), 101–108. https://doi.org/10.1026/1616-3443/a000137

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Pütz, L., Schell, S., & Werner, A. (2023). Openness to knowledge: does corporate social responsibility mediate the relationship between familiness and absorptive capacity? *Small Business Economics*, *60*(4), 1449–1482. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-022-00671-0

Repetti, R. L. (1987). Individual and Common Components of the Social Environment at Work and Psychological Weil-Being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *52*(4), 710–720. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.4.710

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698–714. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698

Riediger, M., & Freund, A. M. (2004). Interference and Facilitation Among Personal Goals: Differential Associations With Subjective Well-Being and Persistent Goal Pursuit. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30*(12), 1511–1523. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167204271184

Roemer, A., & Harris, C. (2018). Perceived organisational support and well-being: The role of psychological capital as a mediator. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *44*(0), a1539. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v44i0.1539

Rogers, C. R. (1961). *On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Rupp, D. (2011). An employee-centered model of organizational justice and social responsibility. *Organizational Psychology Review*, *1*(1), 72–94. https://doi.org/10.1177/2041386610376255

Rupp, D. E., Ganapathi, J., Aguilera, R. v., & Williams, C. A. (2006). Employee reactions to corporate social responsibility: an organizational justice framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*(4), 537–543. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.380

Rupp, D. E., Shao, R., Thornton, M. A., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2013). Applicants' and employees' reactions to corporate social responsibility: The moderating effects of first-party justice perceptions and moral identity. *Personnel Psychology*, *66*(4), 895–933. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12030

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On Happiness and Human Potentials: A Review of Research on Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*, 141–166. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.141

Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness Is Everything, or Is It Explorations on the Meaning of Psychological Well-Being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *57*(6), 1069–1081. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.57.6.1069

Ryff, C. D. (2013). Psychological Well-Being Revisited: Advances in the Science and Practice of Eudaimonia. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, *83*(1), 10–28. https://doi.org/10.1159/000353263

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The Structure of Psychological Well-Being Revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(4), 719–727. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.69.4.719

Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. (1996). Psychological Well-Being: Meaning, Measurement, and Implications for Psychotherapy Research. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, *65*(1), 14–23. https://doi.org/10.1159/000289026

Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. (2000). Interpersonal Flourishing: A Positive Health Agenda for the New Millennium. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4(1), 30–44. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0401_4

Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. H. (2008). Know thyself and become what you are: A eudaimonic approach to psychological well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *9*(1), 13–39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9019-0

Ryff, C. D., Singer, B. H., & Love, G. D. (2004). Positive health: connecting well-being with biology. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, *359*(1449), 1383–1394. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2004.1521

Salanova, M., Llorens, S., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2011). "Yes, I Can, I Feel Good, and I Just Do It!" On Gain Cycles and Spirals of Efficacy Beliefs, Affect, and Engagement. *Applied Psychology*, *60*(2), 255–285. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2010.00435.x

Schulze, D., Heinitz, K., & Lorenz, T. (2018). Comparative organizational research starts with sound measurement: Validity and invariance of Turker's corporate social responsibility scale in five cross-cultural samples. *PLoS ONE*, *13*(11), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0207331

Schütte, S., Chastang, J. F., Malard, L., Parent-Thirion, A., Vermeylen, G., & Niedhammer, I. (2014). Psychosocial working conditions and psychological well-being among employees

in 34 European countries. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, *87*(8), 897–907. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00420-014-0930-0

Scott, S., Knapp, M., Henderson, J., & Maughan, B. (2001). Financial cost of social exclusion: Follow up study of antisocial children into adulthood. *British Medical Journal*, *323*(7306), 191–194. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.323.7306.191

Shen, Y., Jackson, T., Ding, C., Yuan, D., Zhao, L., Dou, Y., & Zhang, Q. (2014). Linking perceived organizational support with employee work outcomes in a Chinese context: Organizational identification as a mediator. *European Management Journal*, *32*(3), 406–412. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2013.08.004

Shim, R., Koplan, C., Langheim, F. J. P., Manseau, M. W., Powers, R. A., & Compton, M. T. (2014). The Social Determinants of Mental Health: An overview and Call to Action. In *Psychiatric Annals*, *44*(1), 2–26. https://doi.org/10.3928/00485713-20140108-04

Siebenaler, T., & Fischer, J. A. (2020). Perceived Organisational Support - short version (POS-s). *Zusammenstellung sozialwissenschaftlicher Items und Skalen (ZIS).* https://doi.org/10.6102/zis277

Siegel, D. S., & Vitaliano, D. F. (2007). An empirical analysis of the strategic use of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Economics & Management Strategy*, *16*(3), 773–792. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.900521

Simmering, M. J., Fuller, C. M., Richardson, H. A., Ocal, Y., & Atinc, G. M. (2015). Marker Variable Choice, Reporting, and Interpretation in the Detection of Common Method Variance: A Review and Demonstration. *Organizational Research Methods*, *18*(3), 473–511. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114560023

Spreen, M. (1992). Rare Populations, Hidden Populations, and Link-Tracing Designs: What and Why? *Bulletin de Méthodologie Sociologique*, *36*, 34–58. https://doi.org/10.1177/075910639203600103

Springer, K. W., & Hauser, R. M. (2006). An assessment of the construct validity of Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being: Method, mode, and measurement effects. *Social Science Research*, *35*(4), 1080–1102. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2005.07.004

Springer, K. W., Pudrovska, T., & Hauser, R. M. (2011). Does psychological well-being change with age? Longitudinal tests of age variations and further exploration of the multidimensionality of Ryff's model of psychological well-being. *Social Science Research*, *40*(1), 392–398. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2010.05.008

Stansfeld, S. A., Fuhrer, R., Shipley, M. J., & Marmot, M. G. (1999). Work characteristics predict psychiatric disorder: prospective results from the Whitehall II study. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *56*(5), 302–307. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/oem.56.5.302

Steger, M. F., Kashdan, T. B., & Oishi, S. (2008). Being good by doing good: Daily eudaimonic activity and well-being. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *42*(1), 22–42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2007.03.004

Su, L., & Swanson, S. R. (2019). Perceived corporate social responsibility's impact on the well-being and supportive green behaviors of hotel employees: The mediating role of the employee-corporate relationship. *Tourism Management*, *72*(4), 437–450. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.01.009

Taber, K. S. (2018). The Use of Cronbach's Alpha When Developing and Reporting Research Instruments in Science Education. *Research in Science Education*, *48*(6), 1273–1296. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2

Tang, Y. Y., Tang, R., & Gross, J. J. (2019). Promoting Psychological Well-Being Through an Evidence-Based Mindfulness Training Program. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *13*(237). https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2019.00237

Tatarkiewicz, W. (1976). *Analysis of Happines.* The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff.

Tsurumi, T., Yamaguchi, R., Kagohashi, K., & Managi, S. (2021). Are Cognitive, Affective, and Eudaimonic Dimensions of Subjective Well-Being Differently Related to Consumption? Evidence from Japan. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *22*(6), 2499–2522. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-020-00327-4

Turker, D. (2009a). How Corporate Social Responsibility Influences Organizational Commitment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *89*(2), 189–204. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9993-8

Turker, D. (2009b). Measuring Corporate Social Responsibility: A Scale Development Study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*(4), 411–427. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9780-6

Türker, D. (2015). Contrasting Instrumental Views on Corporate Social Responsibility: Short-term Versus Long-term Profit Orientation Approach. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *207*, 568–576. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.10.128

Tuzzolino, F., & Armandi, B. R. (1981). A Need-Hierarchy Framework for Assessing Corporate Social Responsibility. *The Academy of Management Review*, *6*(1), 21–28. https://doi.org/10.2307/257137

Van Horn, J. E., Taris, T. W., Schaufeli, W. B., & Schreurs, P. J. G. (2004). The structure of occupational well-being: A study among Dutch teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *77*. https://doi.org/10.1348/0963179041752718

Waddock, S. (2004). Parallel Universes: Companies, Academics, and the Progress of Corporate Citizenship. *Business And Society Review*, *109*(1), 5–42. https://doi.org/10.9774/gleaf.4700.2011.su.00008

Waldman, D. A., Siegel, D. S., & Javidan, M. (2006). Components of CEO Transformational Leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Management Studies*, *43*(8), 1703–1725. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.00642.x

Wang, Y., Xu, S., & Wang, Y. (2020). The consequences of employees' perceived corporate social responsibility: A meta-analysis. *Business Ethics*, *29*(3), 471–496. https://doi.org/10.1111/beer.12273

Wann-Yih, W., & Htaik, S. (2011). The impacts of perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on job performance in hotel industry. In *The 11th International DSI and the 16th APDSI Joint Meeting*, 12-16 July, Taiwan, Taipei.

Warr, P. (2016). IWP Multi-Affect Indicator. (Unpublished instrument). Sheffield, UK: Institute of Work Psychology, University of Sheffield.

Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *63*(1), 193–210. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00521.x

Warr, P. (1999). Well-being and the Workplace. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The Foundations of Hedonic Psychology* (pp. 392–412). New York: Rusell Sage Foundations.

Waterman, A. S. (1993). Two Conceptions of Happiness: Contrasts of Personal Expressiveness (Eudaimonia) and Hedonic Enjoyment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*(4), 678–691. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.4.678

Weiss, L. A., Westerhof, G. J., & Bohlmeijer, E. T. (2016). Can We Increase Psychological Well-Being? The Effects of Interventions on Psychological Well-Being: A Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *PLoS ONE*, *11*(6). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0158092

Wissing, M. P., & Van Eeden, C. (2002). Empirical clarification of the nature of psychological well-being. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *32*(1), 32–44. https://doi.org/10.1177/008124630203200105

Wood, A. M., & Joseph, S. (2010). The absence of positive psychological (eudemonic) well-being as a risk factor for depression: A ten year cohort study. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, *122*(3), 213–217. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2009.06.032

Worley, J. A., Fuqua, D. R., & Hellman, C. M. (2009). The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support: Which Measure Should We Use? *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *35*(1), 112–116. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v35i1.754

Wu, C., Cheng, S., Zhang, Y., Yan, J., He, C., Sa, Z., Wu, J., Lin, Y., Heng, C., Su, X., & Lang, H. (2022). Social responsibility and subjective well-being of volunteers for COVID-19: The mediating role of job involvement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*, 985728. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.985728

Yousaf, H. Q., Ali, I., Sajjad, A., & Ilyas, M. (2016). Impact of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility on Employee Engagement a Study of Moderated Mediation Model. *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)*, *30*(5), 226–243. http://gssrr.org/index.php?journal=JournalOfBasicAndApplied

Yu, C., & Frenkel, S. J. (2013). Explaining task performance and creativity from perceived organizational support theory: Which mechanisms are more important? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *34*(8), 1165–1181. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1844

Zahoor, N., Donbesuur, F., Christofi, M., & Miri, D. (2022). Technological innovation and employee psychological well-being: The moderating role of employee learning orientation and perceived organizational support. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *179*(2). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2022.121610

Annex A

Construct	English Original Item	German Translation	Reference & Scale
Perceived employee-focused Corporate Social Responsibility	Our company encourages its employees to participate to the voluntarily activities.	Mein Unternehmen ermutigt seine Mitarbeiter sich ehrenamtlich zu engagieren.	Turker (2009a) El Akremi et al. (2018)
	Our company policies encourage the employees to develop their skills and careers.	Mein Unternehmen fördert die Fähigkeiten und Karrieren seiner Mitarbeiter.	
	The management of our company primarily concerns with employees' needs and wants.	Die Führungsebene meines Unternehmens kümmert sich um die Bedürfnisse seiner Mitarbeiter.	
	Our company implements flexible policies to provide a good work and life balance for its employees.	Mein Unternehmen setzt flexible Arbeitszeitmodelle um, damit eine gute Balance zwischen Arbeit und Freizeit für die Mitarbeiter entsteht.	
	The managerial decisions related with the employees are usually fair.	Die Entscheidungen der Führungspersonen in Bezug auf Mitarbeiter sind meistens fair.	
	Our company supports employees who want to acquire additional education.	Mein Unternehmen unterstützt Arbeitnehmer, die sich weiterbilden möchten.	
	Our company implements policies that improve the well-being of its employees at work.	Mein Unternehmen setzt eine Politik um, die das Wohlbefinden der Mitarbeiter am Arbeitsplatz verbessert.	
	Our company promotes the safety and health of its employees.	Mein Unternehmen fördert die Sicherheit und Gesundheit seiner Mitarbeiter.	

	Our company avoids all forms of discrimination (age, sex, handicap, ethnic or religious origin) in its recruitment and promotion policies.	Mein Unternehmen vermeidet jede Form von Diskriminierung (Alter, Geschlecht, Behinderung, ethnische oder religiöse Herkunft) bei der Einstellung und Beförderung.	Six-point Likert scale: 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = slightly disagree 4 = slightly agree 5 = agree 6 = strongly agree
	Our company supports equal opportunities at work (e.g., gender equality policies).	Mein Unternehmen unterstützt die Chancengleichheit am Arbeitsplatz (z.B. Gleichstellungspolitik).	
	Our company encourages employees' diversity in the workplace.	Mein Unternehmen fördert die Diversität der Mitarbeiter am Arbeitsplatz.	
	Our company helps its employees in case of hardship (e.g., medical care, social assistance).	Mein Unternehmen unterstützt seine Mitarbeiter in Härtefällen (z.B. medizinische Versorgung, Sozialhilfe).	
	Our company supports its employees' work and life balance (e.g., flextime, part-time work, flexible working arrangements).	Mein Unternehmen unterstützt die Work-Life-Balance seiner Mitarbeiter (z.B. Gleitzeit, Teilzeitarbeit, flexible Arbeitsregelungen).	
Psychological Well-being	**Self-Acceptance**		Ryff (1989) Ryff & Keyes (1995)
	I like most parts of my personality.	Ich mag die meisten meiner persönlichen Eigenschaften.	
	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out so far.	Wenn ich mir meine Lebensgeschichte so anschaue, dann bin ich zufrieden wie sich die Dinge entwickelt haben.	
	In many ways I feel disappointed about my achievements in life. (R)	Ich bin in vielerlei Hinsicht von dem enttäuscht, was ich in meinem Leben erreicht habe.	
	Environmental Mastery		
	The demands of everyday life often get me down. (R)	Die Anforderungen des täglichen Lebens erdrücken mich oft.	
	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	Ich habe normalerweise das Gefühl, dass ich mit meiner Situation gut zurechtkomme.	

	I am good at managing the responsibilities of daily life	Ich bin ziemlich gut darin, mit den täglichen Anforderungen zurechtzukommen.	
	Positive Relations With Others		
	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me. (R)	Es war für mich immer schwierig und frustrierend, enge Beziehungen aufrecht zu erhalten.	
	People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.	Meine Bekannten würden mich als entgegenkommende Person bezeichnen und meinen, dass ich meine Zeit gerne mit anderen verbringe.	
	I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others. (R)	Ich habe nicht viele warmherzige, vertrauensvolle Beziehungen mit anderen Menschen erlebt.	Six-point Likert scale:
	Personal Growth		1 = strongly disagree
	For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	Das Leben bedeutet für mich einen kontinuierlichen Prozess des Lernens, Veränderns und des Wachsens.	2 = disagree
	I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how I think about myself and the world.	Ich denke es ist wichtig, neue Erfahrungen zu sammeln, die das in Frage stellen, was man über sich selbst und das Leben denkt.	3 = slightly disagree 4 = slightly agree 5 = agree 6 = strongly agree
	I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago. (R)	Ich habe es schon lange aufgegeben, große Verbesserungen oder Veränderungen in meinem Leben zu machen.	
	Autonomy		
	I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions. (R)	Ich lasse mich leicht von Menschen, die ihre Meinung selbstbewusst sagen, beeinflussen.	
	I have confidence in my own opinions, even if they are different from the way most other people think.	Ich habe Vertrauen in meine eigene Meinung, sogar wenn sie im Widerspruch zur allgemeinen Meinung steht.	
	I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what	Meine persönlichen Beurteilungen richten sich nach dem, was ich für wichtig halte,	

	others think is important.	und nicht nach dem, was andere denken.	
	Purpose In Life		
	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.	Manche Menschen leben ziellos dahin, aber ich bin nicht einer von diesen.	
	I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future. (R)	Ich lebe meine Tage so wie sie kommen und denke nicht wirklich an die Zukunft.	
	I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life. (R)	Manchmal habe ich das Gefühl, dass ich alles getan habe, was es im Leben zu tun gibt.	
Affective Well-being	**Anxiety**		Warr (1990) Six-point Likert scale: Thinking of the past few weeks, how much of the time has your job made you feel each of the following? 1 = never 2 = occasionally 3 = some of the time 4 = much of the time 5 = most of the time 6 = always
	Tense (R)	Angespannt	
	Uneasy (R)	Unruhig	
	Worried (R)	Besorgt	
	Contentment		
	Calm	Ruhig	
	Contented	Zufrieden	
	Relaxed	Entspannt	
	Depression		
	Depressed (R)	Deprimiert	
	Gloomy (R)	Traurig	
	Miserable (R)	Unglücklich	
	Enthusiasm		
	Cheerful	Fröhlich	
	Enthusiastic	Enthusiastisch	
	Optimistic	Optimistisch	
Perceived Organizational Support	The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	Mein Unternehmen schätzt meinen Beitrag zu seinem Wohlergehen.	Eisenberger et al. (1986)
	The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	Mein Unternehmen schätzt keine zusätzlichen Bemühungen von mir.	

	The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	Mein Unternehmen ignoriert jede Beschwerde meinerseits.	Seven-point Likert scale: 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = slightly disagree 4 = slightly agree nor disagree 5 = slightly agree 6 = agree 7 = strongly agree
	The organization really cares about my well-being.	Mein Unternehmen kümmert sich wirklich um mein Wohlergehen.	
	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)	Selbst wenn ich den bestmöglichen Job machen würde, würde dies meinem Unternehmen nicht auffallen.	
	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	Mein Unternehmen ist meine generelle Arbeitszufriedenheit wichtig.	
	The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)	Mein Unternehmen zeigt sehr wenig Interesse an mir.	
	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	Mein Unternehmen ist stolz auf meine Arbeitsleistung.	
Internet Usage	How often do you find it difficult to stop using the Internet when you are online?	Wie oft fällt es Ihnen schwer, die Internetsitzung zu beenden, wenn Sie online sind?	Meerkerk et al. (2009)
	How often do you continue to use the Internet despite your intention to stop?	Wie oft setzen Sie Ihre Internetsitzung fort, obwohl Sie eigentlich gerade offline gehen wollten?	
	How often do others (e.g., partner, children, parents) say you should use the Internet less?	Wie oft sagen Ihnen Andere (z. B. Partner, Freunde, Familie), Sie sollten das Internet weniger häufig nutzen?	
	How often do you prefer to use the Internet instead of spending time with others (e.g., partner, children, parents)?	Wie oft nutzen Sie lieber das Internet anstatt mit Anderen (z.B. Partner, Freunde, Familie) Zeit zu verbringen?	
	How often are you short of sleep because of the Internet?	Wie oft sind Sie wegen Ihrer Internetnutzung unausgeschlafen?	
	How often do you think about the Internet, even when not online?	Wie oft denken Sie an das Internet, obwohl Sie nicht online sind?	

	How often do you look forward to your next Internet session?	Wie oft sehnen Sie sich nach der nächsten Internetsitzung?	
	How often do you think you should use the Internet less often?	Wie oft denken Sie darüber nach, das Internet weniger häufig zu nutzen?	
	How often have you unsuccessfully tried to spend less time on the Internet?	Wie oft haben Sie erfolglos versucht, weniger Zeit im Internet zu verbringen?	
	How often do you rush through your (home) work in order to go on the Internet?	Wie oft beeilen Sie sich sehr mit Ihren alltäglichen Aufgaben oder Verpflichtungen, um früher online gehen zu können?	Five-point Likert scale: 1 = never 2 = seldom 3 = sometimes 4 = often 5 = very often
	How often do you neglect your daily obligations (work, school, or family life) because you prefer to go on the Internet?	Wie oft vernachlässigen Sie ihre täglichen Verpflichtungen (Studium, Arbeit, Freunde), weil Sie lieber online gehen?	
	How often do you go on the Internet when you are feeling down?	Wie oft gehen Sie online, wenn Sie sich bedrückt fühlen?	
	How often do you use the Internet to escape from your sorrows or get relief from negative feelings?	Wie oft nutzen Sie das Internet, um Ihren Sorgen zu entfliehen oder sich von negativen Gefühlen zu befreien?	
	How often do you feel restless, frustrated, or irritated when you cannot use the Internet?	Wie oft fühlen Sie sich ruhelos, frustriert oder gereizt, weil Sie das Internet nicht nutzen können?	
	How often do you find it difficult to stop using the Internet when you are online?	Wie oft fühlen Sie sich ruhelos, frustriert oder gereizt, weil Sie das Internet nicht nutzen können?	
Socio-Demographic Characteristics	**Gender**	Male	
		Female	
		Non-binary	
		Do not want to answer.	
	Age	Given in numbers	
	Education Level	Secondary education	
		University entrance qualification	
		Vocational training	
		Bachelor's degree	
		Master's degree	

		Doctorate/PhD	
	Tenure	Given in numbers	
	Management Position	Yes	
		No	
	Employment Contract	Permanent	
		Fixed-term	
		Temporary	
		Mini-Job	
		Freelancer	
		Part-time	
		Apprenticeship	
		Internship	
		Working student	
	Industry	Raw Material Production	
		Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	
		Manufacturing	
		Energy & Water Supply	
		Construction	
		Retail & Commercial Sector	
		Financial Services	
		Hospitality & Tourism	
		Real Estate	
		Transportation	
		Information Technology	
		Education	
		Tax, Legal & Management Consulting	
		Research & Development	
	Company Size	Micro (<9)	
		Small (10-49)	
		Medium (50-249)	
		Large (>250)	
	Company Profile	Public	
		Private	
	Company Type	For-profit	
		Non-profit	
	Working Situation	In the office	
		Remotely	
		Hybrid	

Note: (R) = reverse-coded

Annex B

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	17,738	34,780	34,780	17,124	33,576	33,576
2	3,538	6,938	41,717			
3	2,728	5,348	47,066			
4	2,369	4,645	51,711			
5	1,926	3,777	55,488			
6	1,558	3,055	58,543			
7	1,487	2,915	61,458			
8	1,286	2,522	63,980			
9	1,257	2,466	66,446			
10	1,088	2,134	68,580			
11	1,054	2,066	70,646			
12	1,030	2,020	72,665			
13	,891	1,747	74,412			
14	,859	1,685	76,097			
15	,824	1,616	77,713			
16	,774	1,518	79,231			
17	,743	1,456	80,687			
18	,660	1,295	81,982			
19	,636	1,247	83,228			
20	,586	1,149	84,377			
21	,545	1,068	85,446			
22	,490	,960	86,406			
23	,485	,951	87,357			
24	,463	,908	88,265			
25	,435	,853	89,118			
26	,411	,805	89,923			
27	,388	,761	90,684			
28	,372	,729	91,413			
29	,348	,683	92,096			
30	,314	,616	92,712			
31	,298	,585	93,297			
32	,290	,569	93,867			
33	,280	,549	94,416			
34	,265	,519	94,935			
35	,261	,511	95,446			
36	,243	,476	95,922			
37	,225	,442	96,364			
38	,216	,423	96,788			
39	,206	,405	97,192			
40	,182	,356	97,548			
41	,162	,318	97,867			
42	,157	,307	98,174			
43	,145	,284	98,458			
44	,136	,267	98,725			
45	,120	,235	98,961			
46	,117	,228	99,189			
47	,103	,202	99,391			
48	,100	,195	99,586			
49	,087	,171	99,758			
50	,071	,139	99,896			
51	,053	,104	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Annex C

Correlations

Control Variables				CSR	PWB	AWB	POS	CIUS
-none-[a]	CSR	Correlation		1,000	,589	,602	,744	-,139
		Significance (2-tailed)		.	<,001	<,001	<,001	,089
		df		0	148	148	148	148
	PWB	Correlation		,589	1,000	,624	,562	-,166
		Significance (2-tailed)		<,001	.	<,001	<,001	,042
		df		148	0	148	148	148
	AWB	Correlation		,602	,624	1,000	,678	-,099
		Significance (2-tailed)		<,001	<,001	.	<,001	,227
		df		148	148	0	148	148
	POS	Correlation		,744	,562	,678	1,000	-,026
		Significance (2-tailed)		<,001	<,001	<,001	.	,748
		df		148	148	148	0	148
	CIUS	Correlation		-,139	-,166	-,099	-,026	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)		,089	,042	,227	,748	.
		df		148	148	148	148	0
CIUS	CSR	Correlation		1,000	,579	,597	,748	
		Significance (2-tailed)		.	<,001	<,001	<,001	
		df		0	147	147	147	
	PWB	Correlation		,579	1,000	,619	,566	
		Significance (2-tailed)		<,001	.	<,001	<,001	
		df		147	0	147	147	
	AWB	Correlation		,597	,619	1,000	,679	
		Significance (2-tailed)		<,001	<,001	.	<,001	
		df		147	147	0	147	
	POS	Correlation		,748	,566	,679	1,000	
		Significance (2-tailed)		<,001	<,001	<,001	.	
		df		147	147	147	0	

a. Cells contain zero-order (Pearson) correlations.