DOES WORKING FOR A SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE ORGANIZATION MAKE

EMPLOYEES MORE OR LESS PROSOCIAL? THE ROLE OF WORK MEANING IN

RECONCILING THE MORAL LICENSING VERSUS CONSISTENCY DEBATE

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ABSTRACT

Does working for a socially responsible organization allow employees to vicariously establish moral credentials that lead to less prosocial behavior (moral licensing) or instead does an organization's social responsibility motivate its employees to help others and engage in more prosocial behavior (moral consistency)? The primary purpose of this research is to reconcile these two conflicting perspectives—moral licensing and moral consistency—by exploring the effect of an organization's socially responsible behavior on its employees' prosocial behavior. We argue that work meaning (i.e., calling orientation, task significance) moderates the effect of working in socially responsible organizations on employees' prosocial behavior. Across three studies (two field studies and one situated experiment), we find a positive effect between working in socially responsible organizations and prosocial behavior when employees view their work as meaningful (supporting moral consistency). When employees lack a sense of meaning, there is a negative effect of working in socially responsible organizations and prosocial behavior (supporting moral licensing). In Study 3, we find support for prosocial motivation as a mediator of this interactive effect. We discuss implications for the moral licensing versus moral consistency debate, micro approaches to corporate social responsibility (CSR), and the literature on work meaning.

Increasing numbers of organizations are adopting prosocial missions (Podolny, Khurana, & Hill-Popper, 2005). Many for-profit organizations actively participate in corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012) and adopt a triple-bottom line approach (Elkington, 1998)—assessing their success with economic, social and ecological performance indicators. There are also increasing numbers of Flexible Purpose Corporations and Benefit Corporations, classes of corporations required by law to generate benefit for society as well as for shareholders (Marquis, Klaber, & Thomason, 2011; Reiser, 2012). These examples highlight that many organizations serve prosocial agendas, aiming to help multiple stakeholders including their local communities. Despite the increasing numbers of socially responsible organizations, scholars have left relatively unexplored the issue of how corporate social responsibility may affect the prosocial behaviors of organizational members: does an organization's prosocial orientation lead members to feel "off the hook" for engaging in prosocial behaviors, or does it induce a greater motivation for continued prosocial efforts?

Reflecting the increasing numbers of socially responsible organizations, scholars have developed an interest in organizations' prosocial concerns. There has been a growing volume of management literature on CSR (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007; Barnett, 2007; Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Campbell, 2007; Marquis & Qian, 2013), corporate philanthropy (Godfrey, 2005; Tilcsik & Marquis, 2013), hybrid organizations (Battilana & Dorado, 2010; Battilana, Lee, Walker, & Dorsey, 2012; Jay, 2013), and social entrepreneurship (Dacin, Dacin, & Matear, 2010; Light, 2006). The majority of this line of research has examined macro-level issues such as implications for corporate reputation, consumer evaluation, financial performance, and firm capabilities. There has been a small but emerging body of empirical research investigating the influence of employment in prosocial organizations on employees' attitudes and

behaviors (see Aguinis & Glavas, 2012 for a review). Working in a socially responsible organization enhances an employee's identity (Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman, 2007; Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010; Grant, 2012), engagement (Glavas & Piderit, 2009), retention (Jones, 2010), organizational commitment (Grant, Dutton, & Rosso, 2008), and extra effort (de Luque, Washburn, Waldman, & House, 2008).

Although prior work suggests that being an employee at a socially responsible organization is positively related to job attitudes, there is little work that specifically examines how employees' discretionary prosocial behaviors are affected. Interestingly, two social psychological theories offer contradictory lenses on whether working for a socially responsible organization will promote or inhibit employees from doing "good." *Moral licensing* (Monin & Miller, 2001), a theory positing that prior moral acts can license later ethically questionable behavior, suggests that working for a socially responsible organization may decrease employees' prosocial behavior. Although not tested within an organizational context, social psychological research in the lab has found robust support for moral licensing (Mazar & Zhong, 2010; Merritt, Effron, & Monin, 2010; Monin & Miller, 2001; Sachdeva, Iliev, & Medin, 2009). Moral licensing can also happen vicariously—individuals can earn "moral credentials" from the good deeds of others, such as in-group members (Kouchaki, 2011). In contrast, *moral consistency*, an approach positing that individuals feel discomfort when their behaviors within and across domains are inconsistent, suggests that working for a socially responsible organization may increase employees' prosocial behavior. Classic work by Festinger (1957) on cognitive dissonance highlights this discomfort individuals' feel when their actions are inconsistent. Similarly, Bem's (1972) self-perception theory suggests that people infer their self-views (i.e., I am a prosocial person) by examining their behavior (i.e., I work in a socially responsible

organization) which ultimately impacts their subsequent behavior. Thus, these two perspectives offer competing perspectives on how working for a socially responsible organization can impact employees' prosocial behavior both outside (e.g., volunteering, donating money) and inside (e.g., OCB) the organization.

The primary purpose of this research is to situate the moral licensing versus moral consistency debate in an organizational work context and to explore how doing so may help to resolve the different perspectives offered by these two prominent theoretical lenses. Specifically, we examine the critical role of work meaning. According to Pratt and Ashforth (2003), work meaning is the subjective sense or significance that people make out of their work. We hypothesize that work meaning can help resolve the moral licensing versus consistency debate. Specifically, doing meaningful work at a prosocial organization can lead to moral consistency (i.e., increased prosocial behavior) whereas if employees experience the work as less meaningful they will be more likely to engage in moral licensing (i.e., less likely to be prosocial).

In testing our theoretical model we seek to make several contributions with this research. First, we seek to reconcile the moral licensing versus moral consistency debate. Specifically, we examine work meaning as a critical boundary condition that can impact whether an individual engages in licensing or consistency. In doing so, we situate the moral licensing versus moral consistency debate in an organizational setting. Second, we explore how organizations can influence and shape their members, affecting their behaviors both within and outside the organization. This process can be thought of as a form of organizational socialization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977), or imprinting (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013) of organizational conditions on individuals. Our research investigates how employees' prosocial motivation and behaviors can be deeply shaped by organizational initiatives, such as corporate social responsibility. Third,

we seek to extend findings in the work meaning literature (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997) by exploring important consequences of meaningful work, that is, how meaningful work might lead employees to adopt a less transactional approach to work and to become more prosocial in and outside of work. Fourth, we add to a burgeoning literature studying CSR at the micro level (e.g., Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006). Whereas prior work using field surveys highlights that CSR is positively related to job attitudes, we extend this work by examining how CSR affects individuals' discretionary prosocial behaviors both inside and outside of the organization.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Organizations increasingly incorporate prosocial objectives into their business agenda. For example, for-profit companies like Ben & Jerry's Ice Cream have made social and environmental responsibility part of their corporate strategy and report their social and environmental performance alongside their annual financial report. Although these organizations contribute positively to society through their CSR initiatives, they may also influence the behavior of individuals who work in these organizations. Are people who work in prosocial organizations inclined to behave more or less prosocially? Below, we describe two theoretical lenses—moral licensing and moral consistency—that can help address this question.

Moral Licensing Perspective

Empirical research in moral psychology shows that a prior moral act can license later ethically questionable behavior (Merritt et al., 2010; Miller & Effron, 2010; Monin & Miller, 2001). This phenomenon is known as moral licensing, and the associated theory proposes that when people recall their own previous desirable moral behaviors, they feel more at ease in taking actions that could be ethically questionable. Two explanatory mechanisms for moral licensing

have been theorized (Miller & Effron, 2010). The first is the moral credits model—moral behavior gives one moral credits that can balance out subsequent immoral behaviors, or moral debits. In a similar line of argument, Nisan's (1991) moral balance model proposed that when individuals decide whether to engage in moral action, they do so in the context of previous actions, keeping track of a moral balance that can incur credits from good deeds and debits from bad deeds. As such, people behave as "moral accountants" and when they feel that they have accumulated more than sufficient moral credits, they might allow themselves to engage in morally questionable behaviors or feel less pressured to engage in prosocial behavior. The second mechanism proposed is a moral credentials model, in which past moral behavior can change the way subsequent immoral behavior is construed (Monin & Miller, 2001). According to this model, when one has done moral acts in the past, the individual may feel that his or her moral character has been established, such that any subsequent questionable behavior would not appear to others as a transgression but instead would be construed by others as legitimate behavior consistent with the person's moral character.

Moral licensing has been shown to explain people's behavior in a variety of contexts (see Merritt et al., 2010 for a review). For example, Monin and Miller's (2001) experimental work on moral credentials provided participants with the opportunity to make a non-discriminatory decision, and then showed that this subsequently liberated participants to make a decision that involved racial or gender discrimination. Similar effects have been found in studies involving prejudiced political attitudes, as well as other forms of racial and gender discrimination (Bradley-Geist, King, Skorinko, Hebl, & McKenna, 2010; Effron, Cameron, & Monin, 2009; Uhlmann & Cohen, 2007). The moral licensing effect has also been studied in the context of prosocial intentions and behaviors. People who feel they have accrued moral credentials report less

intention to engage in prosocial activities (e.g., volunteering, donating to charity; Jordan, Mullen, & Murnighan, 2011; Sachdeva et al., 2009).

Although most of the research described above examines moral licensing within a specific domain (e.g., discrimination, prosocial activity), cross-domain moral licensing has been found to occur. For example, Kahn and Dhar (2006) investigated how prosocial activity (e.g., donating or volunteering) influenced the likelihood that an individual would pick a luxury product over a normal product in a consumer decision making paradigm. Thus, behaviors in one domain (i.e., prosocial activity) influenced behaviors in another domain (i.e., luxury consumption). Furthermore, although most research in moral licensing has looked at past and future moral behavior within single individuals, some researchers argue that people can also earn moral credentials from the moral actions of other people or entities they know. Thus, an individual can earn vicarious moral credentials from the good deeds of his or her relationship partner (O'Conner, Effron, Muller, & Monin, 2010), ingroup members (Kouchaki, 2011), or, potentially, organization (consistent with findings from Castilla & Benard, 2010). The research on cross-domain and vicarious moral licensing suggests that the moral licensing phenomenon can emerge 1) not only from the individual's own behavior but also from the behavior of associated others and 2) not only within a single domain (e.g., non-discrimination licensing and subsequent discrimination) but also across domains (e.g., non-discrimination licensing and subsequent cheating on an exam). Based on these findings, it is reasonable to think that an organization's socially responsible behavior may lead organizational members to feel licensed to shirk their personal moral and social responsibilities. When people work in an organization, they may vicariously take credit for the moral deeds of their organization. Having organizational moral credentials may cause individuals to feel like they have "done their part," and thus put in

less time and effort into donating to charity or volunteering after work or engaging in citizenship at work.

Moral Consistency Perspective

Opposing the moral licensing perspective is a body of literature about the tendency toward consistency in human behavior. The drive towards consistency is highlighted in classical psychological research on cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957). Cognitive dissonance is the distressing mental state that people find themselves in when their attitudes and/or behaviors do not align. Thus, people are motivated to alter their attitudes or behaviors to create a coherent and consistent belief system. In the specific domain of prosocial behavior, consistency is found in the classic foot-in-the-door phenomenon (Freedman & Fraser, 1966), where getting someone to agree to engage in a small prosocial act is used to elicit agreement to a more demanding prosocial act. Consistency has also been found in research on social labeling; charity donors who were labeled as "charitable" donated more than unlabeled donors and those labeled as "uncharitable" (Kraut, 1973).

Self-perception theory (Bem, 1972) suggests that people are likely to perform subsequent prosocial acts when they have performed prosocial acts in the past or when others call them "prosocial" because these cue them to perceive themselves as prosocial people. Self-perception theory states that people develop their self-views by watching their own behavior and interpreting external cues. When people work in prosocial organizations, they may evaluate themselves as moral individuals because of the nature of their everyday work behaviors (e.g., working to serve a societal need, helping others). They may also receive positive cues from others, such as their family, friends or acquaintances, about the contribution they are making to society. For example, when a person tells a stranger about his or her work in a restaurant that is

committed to sourcing all the ingredients for its dishes from local farmers' markets, the stranger may respond with a supportive comment about the good work that that person is doing. The person then perceives himself or herself as a good person.

Researchers have developed constructs such as prosocial identity (Grant, 2007; Grant et al., 2008; Grant, Molinsky, Margolis, Kamin, & Schiano, 2009) and moral identity (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Blasi, 1980) that speak to this idea of people perceiving themselves as good people. Prosocial identity is "the dimension of the self-concept focused on helping and benefiting others" (Grant et al., 2009) while moral identity is "the social self-schema that is organized around moral traits" (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Both prosocial identity and moral identity have been positively linked to prosocial motivation (Grant, 2007) and helping or other-serving behaviors. For instance, people who have been primed with prosocial identity increased their commitment to future volunteerism and actual volunteering behavior up to three months later (Nelson & Norton, 2005). Other research has found that moral identity leads to greater time and monetary contributions to a local food bank (Aquino & Reed, 2002), monetary contributions to outgroup charities (Reed & Aquino, 2003), and willingness to contribute time over money to charities (Reed, Aquino, & Levy, 2007). All this research supports the idea that people are motivated to act in alignment with their prosocial or moral self-views, as theorized by cognitive dissonance and self-perception theory.

Overall, the moral consistency view suggests, in direct contrast to the moral licensing view, that working in a socially responsible organization is likely to serve as a motivator for employees' further discretionary prosocial behavior. Below, we explain how work meaning can help to reconcile these competing perspectives.

The Moderating Role of Work Meaning

Researchers have started to find ways to reconcile the two stream of research on moral licensing and consistency. Various moderators explaining when either moral licensing or consistency occurs have been explored, such as conceptual abstraction (Conway & Peetz, 2012), moral elevation (Schnall & Roper, 2012), and the cost of prosocial behaviors (Gneezy, Imas, Brown, Nelson, & Norton, 2012). These cognitive or affective variables have been investigated primarily in the psychology laboratory. Given that our research question is concerned with experiences that happen in an organization, we propose a more contextualized moderator. Specifically, in the context of working in an organization, the meaning that an employee derives from his or her work may determine whether he or she engages in moral licensing or consistency.

The meaning of work literature offers a perspective on work behavior that involves deeper considerations of purpose and significance (Heine, Proulx, & Vohs, 2006; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). In this area of research, meaning is the sense that one makes out of what one's work signifies in the context of one's life. Research on work meaning has tended to focus on how employees derive positive meaning in their work, despite dire circumstances (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

People can have three dominant orientations toward work (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 2007; Schwartz, 1986, 1994; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). They either treat their work as a job, a career, or a calling. Those who treat their work as a job are mainly motivated for financial reasons; those who treat their work as a career are concerned with promotion and advancement; finally, those who treat their work as a calling tend to see the work as a meaningful end in itself, and have the belief that the work contributes to the broader society.

There are people who work not merely for economic or socio-emotional reasons, but primarily for their passion toward a certain cause or ideology (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Also, scholars describe task significance as the degree to which one's job has a positive impact on other people and contributes to society (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Task significance is an avenue for employees to feel that their job provides opportunities for them to have social impact (Grant, 2007).

Scholars have theorized that work meaning is associated with prosocial motivation, and that prosocial motivation is associated with helping behaviors (Grant, 2007). Prosocial motivation is the desire to benefit other people (Grant, 2008) or the desire to expend effort to benefit other people (Batson, 1987). Unlike intrinsic motivation, which takes a hedonic perspective by emphasizing pleasure and enjoyment, prosocial orientation takes a eudaimonic perspective by emphasizing living a life of virtue consistent with one's values (Kahn, 1990; McGregor & Little, 1998; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Waterman, 1993).

When employees work in socially responsible organizations and have a sense of meaning from their work, they perceive that they have the resources and abilities to have prosocial impact. When they recognize that there is a link between their own behaviors and the outcomes in other people's lives, they are motivated to set prosocial goals and are driven to put in effort to make a difference in others' lives. Therefore, we expect that when employees derive meaning from their work, their organization's socially responsible behavior will enhance their own prosocial motivation, thereby enhancing their prosocial behavior (consistent with the moral consistency lens).

However, we expect a different effect among employees who do not derive meaning from their work. Specifically, because they lack the experience of meaning that elicits prosocial

motivation, we expect that individuals who experience lower levels of work meaning are likely to be more self-focused. Consequently, they may be more concerned with how working in a socially responsible organization adds to their moral credentials rather than with how it empowers them to have a prosocial impact. Thus, they may not be motivated to make a difference in others' lives, and their organization's social responsibility may even diminish their own prosocial behavior (consistent with the moral licensing lens).

Thus, it is employees' prosocial motivation, or lack thereof, depending on whether they derive more or less meaning from their work, that drives their prosocial behaviors. We therefore propose that among employees who derive greater meaning from their work, working in a socially responsible organization enhances their prosocial motivation, leading them to subsequently display more prosocial behaviors. Conversely, employees who derive less meaning from their work do not experience a similar increase in prosocial motivation by virtue of working in a socially responsible organization, leading them to focus on the moral credentials that membership in the organization produces and subsequently to display less prosocial behaviors. Our interaction hypothesis is described in Hypothesis 1, and our moderated-mediation hypothesis is modeled in Figure 1 and summarized in Hypothesis 2.

> *Hypothesis 1:* Employees' work meaning (i.e., calling orientation, task significance) moderates the effect of working in socially responsible organizations on their prosocial behaviors. The effect is positive for employees who derive greater meaning from their work (moral consistency) and negative for employees who derive less meaning for their work (moral licensing).

Insert Figure 1 About Here

Hypothesis 2: The interaction between working in a socially responsible organization and work meaning on prosocial behaviors is mediated by prosocial motivation.

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We address the moral licensing versus moral consistency debate by conducting three studies. Study 1 is a field study in which we ask working adults about the extent to which their organization is socially responsible, assess their sense of work meaning (e.g., calling orientation), and then ask them to indicate how much they volunteer and donate money in their free (non-work) time. Because prosocial employees may self-select into socially responsible organizations, in Study 2 we sought to replicate the findings from Study 1 using a situated experiment in which we manipulate the level of an organization's socially responsible behavior, manipulate the meaning (e.g., task significance) of the employee's job, and then assess employee's willingness to help and donate money. Finally, in Study 3, we move back to the field to test our full moderated-mediated model linking the interaction between the organization's socially responsible behavior and the employee's work meaning (e.g., task significance) to prosocial behavior (e.g., OCB rated by the employees' supervisor) through the mediating mechanism of prosocial motivation. Thus, we seek to constructively replicate our findings with field surveys and experiments, and use different operationalizations and manipulations of socially responsible organizations, work meaning, and prosocial behavior.

STUDY 1

Study 1 explored Hypothesis 1, testing whether work meaning moderates the effect of working in socially responsible organizations and employees' prosocial behaviors. Specifically, Study 1 operationalizes work meaning as calling and looks at donation and volunteering behavior as indicators of employees' prosocial behavior.

Participants

The sample consisted of 152 participants who were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is an online marketplace for work, where 'requesters' can post short tasks for 'workers' to complete for a small fee. Social science researchers have increasingly been using MTurk workers as a source of data, and data collected through MTurk is argued to be of comparable quality to data collected through more traditional methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Downs, Holbrook, Sheng, & Cranor, 2010; Horton, Rand, & Zeckhauser, 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010).

Participants were 60.5% male and had a mean age of 33.3 years ($SD = 10.24$). White/Caucasians made up 74.8% of participants, followed by 11.3% African American, 9.3% Asian, 4.0% Hispanic, 0.7% from other ethnicities. All participants were working adults and had at least a high school education. They worked in a variety of industries such as education, healthcare, finance, professional services, and many others. The majority (59.2%) of participants have worked for their current organization for one to five years, and 93.4% of participants have worked more than a year for their current organization.

Measures

Social responsibility. Participants rated two items on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). The items are "*To what extent does your organization*

pursue prosocial goals?" and "*To what extent is your organization socially responsible?*" (α = .96).

Work meaning. We used Wrzesniewski et al.'s (1997) work orientation measure to assess employees' calling orientation. Calling is represented by seven items (α = .83). Focal employees responded to items such as "*My work makes the world a better place,*" and "*I would choose my current work life again if I had the chance.*" Employees indicated their answers on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

Prosocial behavior. We assessed prosocial behavior in two ways. In the first, we asked respondents to report the total time (in hours) that they had spent volunteering in the past 12 months. To guide their thinking, we asked them to think about unpaid volunteer work for groups in their community or other organizations. Their volunteering may have contributed to causes such as health, education, religious groups, human services, environment, animals, arts, politics, or other areas.

We used a behavioral measure for our second assessment of prosocial behavior. At the end of the survey, we told participants that on top of receiving their base pay of $2 for participating in the survey, they would be entered into a lottery to potentially win a bonus of $50. One person, out of all who participated in the survey, would be randomly chosen to win the $50 bonus. Next, participants were shown the following message, "*We have agreed to provide our participants with the opportunity to donate some of their potential winnings to charity. For this purpose, we've chosen the Newtown Memorial Fund.*" The Newtown Memorial Fund is an organization dedicated to supporting the families and community of Newtown, Connecticut, after the shooting at Sandy Hook Elementary School. Participants read a brief description of the mission of Newtown Memorial Fund and they were given links to its website, Facebook page

and Twitter page so they could look for more online information if they so desired. Finally, we asked participants "*If you were to win the $50 from us, how much of the bonus would you like to donate to the Newtown Memorial Fund?*" They indicated the value of their donation via a sliding scale, ranging from $0 to $50.

Control variables. We included gender (0 = *female*, 1 = *male*) as a control variable since research has shown gender differences in helping behaviors (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). We controlled for age because researchers have found that older people tend to be more prosocial (Omoto, Snyder, & Martino, 2000). We controlled for total household income and number of hours worked per week as they may influence donation amount and volunteering time respectively. Finally, we controlled for organizational tenure since length of time spent in an organization has been linked to organizational identification (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Mael & Ashforth, 1992), which is associated with the degree to which employees' motivation and behaviors are affected by their organizations.

STUDY 1 RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for Study 1 are displayed in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Hypothesis Tests

Table 2 presents a summary of the linear regression results. Following Aiken and West (1991), we began by mean-centering the independent variable (social responsibility), the moderator variable (calling orientation) and all control variables. Next, we multiplied the two mean-centered variables to create an interaction term. The results of the regression analyses with

time volunteered as the dependent variable indicate a statistically significant interaction, $b =$ 7.38, $SE = 2.90$, $t = 2.54$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$ (see Figure 2). Simple slopes analysis demonstrated that when calling was high (1 SD above the mean), the relationship between social responsibility and time volunteered was positive and marginally significant, $t = 1.88$, $p = .06$. When calling was low (1 SD below the mean), the relationship was negative but not statistically significant, $t = -1.49$, $p = .14$.

Insert Figure 2 about here

The results of the regression analyses with money donated as the dependent variable indicate a statistically significant interaction, $b = 1.39$, $SE = .56$, $t = 2.49$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$ (see Figure 3). Simple slopes analysis demonstrated that when calling was high (1 SD above the mean), the relationship between social responsibility and money donated was positive but not significant, $t = 1.57$, $p = .12$. When calling was low (1 SD below the mean), the relationship was negative and marginally significant, $t = -1.73$, $p = .09$. The pattern of the plotted interaction in Figure 3 closely resembles the plotted interaction for time volunteered in Figure 2, providing support for our predictions in Hypothesis 1.

Insert Figure 3 about here

STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

Study 1 provides support for Hypothesis 1 such that an employee's work meaning moderates the effect of working in a socially responsible organization and an employee's

prosocial behavior. The effect of working for a socially responsible organization on discretionary prosocial behavior was negative among employees with low levels of work meaning (consistent with the moral licensing view) but positive among employees who had high work meaning (consistent with the moral consistency view). However, Study 1 is marked by a limitation: it is possible that individuals inclined toward prosocial behavior were more likely to choose to work in a prosocial organization. In other words, it is possible that the causal arrow works in the direction opposite of our prediction. In order to examine the direction of causality, we examined our hypotheses in a situated in experiment.

STUDY 2

Study 2 sought to replicate and extend the findings in Study 1. It builds on Study 1 by experimentally manipulating social responsibility and work meaning, allowing us to establish a causal link. Study 2 is a situated experiment (Greenberg & Tomlinson, 2004) conducted within a single work organization, Amazon. Participants were presented with two sets of manipulations (social responsibility manipulation and work meaning manipulation), which were counterbalanced.

Participants

The sample consisted of 240 participants who were recruited from MTurk. Participants were 52.1% male and had a mean age of 35.05 years ($SD = 12.00$). White/Caucasians made up 78.3% of participants, followed by 7.1% African American, 6.3% Asian, 5.8% Hispanic, and 2.5% from other ethnicities. The majority of participants (85.9%) have college degrees. Participants indicated that they work an average of 22.09 hours ($SD = 14.58$) on MTurk each week. They have been working on MTurk for an average of 1.73 years ($SD = 1.13$) and have completed an average of 16,782 tasks or "*hits*" each.

Social Responsibility Manipulation

Social responsibility condition. We started by telling participants that we wanted to give them a bit of context for thinking about the work they do through Amazon Mechanical Turk. Then, they read information about Amazon's strong commitment to environmental sustainability and community outreach. A few examples of Amazon's social responsibility initiatives were given, such as "*Amazon Frustration-Free Packaging is a multi-year initiative designed to eliminate excess packaging and make packaging 100% recyclable*" and "*Amazon has contributed more than $35 million to global relief programs since 2001.*" Finally, participants read the statement, "*Amazon is increasingly recognized as a clear leader in socially responsible business.*"

Control condition. In the control condition, participants read information about how Amazon has grown to become an online retail giant. Statistics about Amazon's retail business were provided, such as "*Amazon web sales are five times Walmart, Target, and Buy.com web sales combined*" and "*Amazon owns a tenth of the North American e-commerce pie, and 1000+ other retailers share the rest of the pie.*" Finally, participants read the statement, "*Amazon is increasingly recognized as a clear leader in online retail and commerce.*"

Work Meaning Manipulation

Following Grant's (2008) work on task significance with fundraising callers, we randomly assigned participants into two conditions: high work meaning (i.e., task significance) and low work meaning (i.e., personal benefit).

Task significance condition. In the task significance condition, participants read a story ostensibly written by a university researcher who has benefitted from the work done by MTurk workers. The researcher explained that he or she was now able to recruit participants more easily

than before, and was able to obtain high-quality data from MTurk workers. The researcher also explained that using data collected from MTurk workers, he or she has written several research papers that have been presented at academic conferences and published in top journals. Because of working with MTurk workers, the researcher has contributed new knowledge to his or her field and made discoveries that empower people to improve their lives.

Personal benefit condition. In the personal benefit condition, participants read a story written by an MTurk worker who has benefitted from working on MTurk. The MTurk worker explains that the extra income helps his or her financial situation and doing tasks on MTurk has been a more productive use of free time. Also, he or she was able to develop career skills, like writing or editing, from working on MTurk tasks. The length of the story in this condition was equivalent to that of the researcher's story in the task significance condition.

Prosocial Behavior

Willingness to help. After being exposed to the manipulations, participants were asked to read a paragraph about J. Murphy, a university researcher who studies people's attitudes toward social issues. Then, they were told that Murphy is looking for participants to participate in several online studies. We explained that these online studies typically ask participants to report their opinions towards several social issues, such as poverty, human trafficking, and environmental destruction. Finally, they were told that participation in Murphy's online studies would be unpaid. We then asked participants, "*How willing are you to volunteer your time to participate in researcher Murphy's studies?*" Participants indicated their willingness to help on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *very unwilling*, 7 = *very willing*).

Money donated. This measure of prosocial behavior is similar to the one used in Study 1. At the end of the study, participants were told that they would receive a chance to win a $50

bonus. Next, participants were shown the following message, "*We have agreed to provide our participants with the opportunity to donate some of their potential winnings to charity. For this purpose, we've chosen Habitat for Humanity.*" Habitat for Humanity is a nonprofit organization that builds simple, decent and affordable housing for people in need. Participants read a brief description of the mission of Habitat for Humanity and they were given a link to its website. Finally, participants were asked "*If you were to win the $50 from us, how much of the bonus would you like to donate to Habitat for Humanity?*" They indicated the value of their donation via a sliding scale, ranging from $0 to $50.

Manipulation Checks

We asked participants to respond to two items, "*My work on MTurk has a large impact on people outside the organization*" and "*The work performed on MTurk has a significant impact on people outside the organization,*" to check if task significance was successfully manipulated. Participants in the task significance condition ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 1.23$) reported significantly more task significance than those in the personal benefit condition ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 1.50$), $F(1, 239) = 4.11$, $p < .05$.

We also asked participants to respond to the item, "*Amazon is increasingly recognized as a clear leader in socially responsible business*" to check if social responsibility was successfully manipulated. Participants in the social responsibility condition ($M = 5.71$, $SD = 1.15$) were significantly more likely to agree with the statement than those in the control condition ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 1.59$), $F(1, 238) = 29.78$, $p < .001$.

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Descriptive statistics for Study 2 are displayed in Table 3.

Insert Table 3 About Here

Hypothesis Tests

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) yielded a significant interaction between Amazon's social responsibility (Social Responsibility vs. Control) and participants' task significance (Task Significance vs. Personal Benefit) on participants' willingness to help the researcher, $F(1, 237) = 5.36, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$ (see Figure 4). Participants in the task significance condition were more willing to help the researcher when they were in the social responsibility condition ($M = 4.37, SD = 2.13$) than when they were in the control condition ($M = 3.69, SD = 2.02$), $F(1, 237) = 3.37, p = .07, d = .33$. Participants in the personal benefit condition were less willing to help the researcher when they were in the social responsibility condition ($M = 4.04, SD = 2.03$) than when they were in the control condition ($M = 4.58, SD = 2.01$), $F(1, 237) = 2.08, p = .15, d = .27$. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Insert Figure 4 About Here

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) also yielded a significant interaction between Amazon's social responsibility (Social Responsibility vs. Control) and participants' task significance (Task Significance vs. Personal Benefit) on participants' money donated, $F(1, 237) = 5.10, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$ (see Figure 5). Participants in the task significance condition donated more money to Habitat for Humanity when they were in the social responsibility condition ($M = 16.29, SD = 14.02$) than when they were in the control condition ($M = 11.26, SD = 12.57$), $F(1,$

237) = 4.28, $p < .05$, $d = .38$. Participants in the personal benefit condition donated less money when they were in the social responsibility condition ($M = 11.40$, $SD = 12.02$) than when they were in the control condition ($M = 13.83$, $SD = 12.29$), $F(1, 237) = 1.24$, $p = .31$, $d = .20$. Again, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Insert Figure 5 About Here

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

Study 2 provides further support for Hypothesis 1, indicating that employees' work meaning moderates the effect of working in socially responsible organizations on their prosocial behaviors. Participants in the task significance condition were more willing to help and donate money when told about their organization's social responsibility initiatives (moral consistency). However, participants in the personal benefit condition were less willing to help and donate money when told about their organization's social responsibility initiatives (moral licensing).

STUDY 3

Study 3 sought to replicate and extend the findings in Studies 1 and 2. Study 3 builds on the first two studies by looking at a mediating mechanism explaining the link between the interaction effect of social responsibility and work meaning on prosocial behavior. Study 3 has a multi-source design; focal employees and their respective immediate supervisors were involved in this study. Specifically, focal employees rated the independent variable, moderator variable and mediator variable, while supervisors rated the dependent variable. Study 3 also extends the first two studies by testing our hypotheses for prosocial behavior within the organization—organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, Study 3 allows us to examine whether the findings in

Studies 1 and 2 involving prosocial behavior outside of the organization constructively replicate when examining prosocial behavior within the organization.

Participants

The sample consisted of 215 employee-supervisor dyads. All participants were part- or full-time employees working in the United States and represent a variety of industries, including health care, manufacturing, finance, government, retail and many others. Focal employees were 49.3% male and had a mean age of 27.20 years ($SD = 10.48$). Average tenure with their organization was 4.36 years ($SD = 5.37$). In terms of race, 64.9% were Caucasian/White, 10.1% Hispanic, 7.1% African American, 3.6% Latino/a, 3.0% Asian, and 9.3% from other ethnicities. Supervisors were 64.8% male and had a mean age of 40.52 years ($SD = 11.79$). Average tenure with their organization was 8.70 years ($SD = 7.54$). In terms of race, 69.1% were Caucasian/White, 16.7% Hispanic, 4.9% African American, 3.1% Asian, and 6.2% from other ethnicities. Response rates were 80.93% for focal employees and 77.21% for supervisors.

We utilized a snowball sampling method (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) of gathering both focal employee and supervisor ratings to reduce potential error caused by single-source bias. We extended an invitation to participate in this study to 278 undergraduate students attending a large university in the United States. Each student was given a packet that included two instruction sheets, one for a focal employee and one for the employees' immediate supervisor. These sheets provided information about our study and links to the online surveys, and a unique identification number for matching respondent data anonymously. As an incentive, participating students received extra credit for their involvement.

Measures

Social responsibility. Focal employees answered eight questions (α = .91) about the extent to which their organization engages in CSR. They were asked the extent to which their company "*gives adequate contributions to charities,*" "*helps the local community,*" "*takes an active interest in conserving the environment,*" "*cares about the well-being of people in general (i.e., well-being of employees, customers, suppliers, shareholders, local community),*" "*is socially responsible,*" "*cares about issues that affect their community,*" "*acts in a responsible manner towards people in general,*" and "*is active in social responsibility.*" Participants answered on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *to a very large extent*).

Work meaning. The task significance portion of Morgeson and Humphrey's (2006) Work Design Questionnaire was used to assess employees' work meaning. This is a four-item measure (α = .89), consisting of items such as, "*The results of my work are likely to significantly affect the lives of other people*" and "*The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.*" Focal employees responded to these items on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*).

Prosocial behavior. Supervisors rated their employees' prosocial behavior using Lee and Allen's (2002) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) scale. Participants were presented with the eight items for OCB directed toward individuals (α = .88). They indicated the extent to which they agreed with statements about their work behaviors, such as "*I help others who have been absent*" and "*I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.*" Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*).

Mediator: Prosocial motivation. Focal employees completed the prosocial motivation scale developed by Grant (2008). The scale starts with the question, "Why are you motivated to

do your work?" and then allows respondents to rate their prosocial motivation on four items (α =

.92). Items include "*Because I want to help others through my work*" and "*Because I want to*

have positive impact on others through my work." Responses were recorded on a five-point

Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*).

      Control variables. Like in Study 1, we controlled for employee gender, age and

organizational tenure. In addition, employee job tenure (i.e., number of years in current job) and

employee supervisor tenure (i.e., number of years working under this supervisor) were included

as more nuanced indicators of employee tenure.

STUDY 3 RESULTS

      Descriptive statistics for Study 3 are displayed in Table 4.

Insert Table 4 About Here

Hypotheses Tests

      Table 5 presents a summary of the linear regression results. Following Aiken and West

(1991), we began by mean-centering the independent variable (social responsibility), the

moderator variable (task significance) and all control variables. Next, we multiplied the two

mean-centered variables to create an interaction term. The results of the regression analyses with

OCB as the dependent variable indicate a statistically significant interaction, b = .11, SE = .05, t

= 2.17, p < .05, ΔR^2 = .05. Simple slopes analysis demonstrated that when task significance was

high (1 SD above the mean), the relationship between social responsibility and OCB was

marginally significant, t = 1.70, p = .09. When task significance was low (1 SD below the mean),

the relationship was not significant, t = -.65, p = .51. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

Insert Table 5 About Here

Insert Figure 6 About Here

We predicted that prosocial motivation mediates the interaction effect between social responsibility and task significance on OCB. Using the framework outlined by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007), we tested for mediation using a series of linear regressions (see Table 5). We conducted the first regression with prosocial motivation as the dependent variable. The results reconfirm a significant interaction between social responsibility and task significance, $b = .12$, $SE = .06$, $t = 1.98$, $p = .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$ (see Figure 7). Simple slopes analysis demonstrated that when task significance was high (1 SD above the mean), the relationship between social responsibility and prosocial motivation was positive and significant, $t = 2.04$, $p < .05$. When task significance was low (1 SD below the mean), the relationship was not significant, $t = .00$, $p = 1.00$. In the second regression, we ran the same regression with OCB as our dependent variable and entered the measure of prosocial motivation as a predictor. We found a positive significant effect of prosocial motivation on OCB, $b = .27$, $SE = .08$, $t = 3.24$, $p < .01$, and we found that the interaction between social responsibility and task significance was no longer significant, $b = .08$, $SE = .05$, $t = 1.56$, $p = .12$.

Insert Table 6 About Here

Insert Figure 7 About Here

To further confirm that prosocial motivation mediates the effect of social responsibility on OCB when task significance is high but not when task significance is low, bootstrap confidence intervals for this conditional indirect effect were obtained. We used a bootstrap procedure with 5,000 bootstrap samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). When task significance was high (1 SD above the mean), the 95% bias-corrected interval did not include zero [.0094, .2680], indicating a significant indirect effect of the interaction on OCB mediated by prosocial motivation. When task significance was low (1 SD below the mean), the 95% bias-corrected interval did include zero [−.0974, .0867], indicating that the indirect effect was not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Additional Analyses

In addition to the hypotheses tests in Studies 1 to 3, we ran a meta-analysis on the three studies in this paper to determine if moral licensing and moral consistency effects are significant averaged across all studies. For our analyses, we let each study contribute a single effect size to each meta-analysis of our proposed relationships. Results from the meta-analysis show that when there is high work meaning, there is a positive relationship between working in a socially responsible organization and employees' prosocial behaviors, $\rho = .128$, 95% C. I. = .043 to .201, supporting moral consistency. When there is low work meaning, there is a negative relationship between working in a socially responsible organization and employees' prosocial behaviors, $\rho = -.084$, 95% C. I. = -.159 to -.001, supporting moral licensing. Because the confidence intervals

for both high and low work meaning do not contain zero, the relationships are statistically significant—thus, we find statistically significant support for both moral consistency and moral licensing. Therefore, across our three studies, the findings suggest that moral consistency and licensing both occur: when work meaning is high, employees show moral consistency, but when work meaning is low, employees demonstrate moral licensing.

STUDY 3 DISCUSSION

Study 3 provides support for Hypothesis 1 and 2 such that employees' work meaning moderates the effect of working in socially responsible organizations on their prosocial behaviors, and that these relationships are mediated by prosocial motivation. When employees perceive high task significance, the relationship between working in a socially responsible organization and prosocial behavior is mediated by prosocial motivation. However, when employees perceive low task significance, prosocial motivation does not mediate the relationship between working in a socially responsible organization and prosocial behavior. Further, meta-analytic results from the three studies provide support for moral consistency when work meaning is high, and support for moral licensing when work meaning is low.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The title of this paper asks—does working for a socially responsible organization make employees more or less prosocial? The moral licensing perspective suggests that working for a socially responsible organization may make employees less prosocial, while the moral consistency perspective suggests that working for a socially responsible organization motivates employees to be more prosocial. Recent research has started to reconcile these two perspectives, and this paper contributes to that line of work. We hypothesized that the meaning that employees derive from their work might influence when either moral licensing or consistency occurs. We

find support from two field studies and one situated experiment for the interaction effect between working in a socially responsible organization and work meaning on prosocial behavior. In Study 1, working for a socially responsible organization made employees with more of a calling orientation more likely to donate and volunteer more, while making employees with less of a calling orientation less likely to donate and volunteer. In Study 2, the social responsibility condition increased willingness to help and donate money for those in the task significance condition but decreased that willingness for those in the personal benefit condition. In Study 3, working for a socially responsible organization increased OCB among employees who reported a higher level of task significance but did not affect the OCB of those who reported a lower level of task significance. Furthermore, we hypothesized that the relationships predicted in the interaction hypothesis were mediated by prosocial motivation. Results from Study 3 provide support for our moderated mediation hypothesis. We found that when task significance was high, prosocial motivation mediated the interaction effect of social responsibility and task significance on OCB. When task significance was low, the mediating role of prosocial motivation disappeared. Finally, meta-analytic findings across the three studies are consistent with our argument that when working for a socially responsible organization, moral consistency emerges when work meaning is high and moral licensing emerges when work meaning is low.

Theoretical Implications

This article helps to resolve conflicting perspectives about people's tendencies to engage in moral licensing versus moral consistency. Taken together, the results for all three studies suggest that work meaning is a moderator determining when moral licensing or consistency happens. Employees can show both moral licensing and consistency; it just depends on whether they derive meaning from their work or not. Our findings suggest that moral licensing based on

one's organization's socially responsible behavior does happen when employees do not experience the work they do as meaningful. In circumstances when employees find their work meaningful, they do not show moral licensing, but moral consistency instead. Notably, given our theoretical model, it makes sense that moral licensing findings in the lab have been so robust. Specifically, lab settings are imbued with lower levels of meaning. In moral licensing experiments, lab participants complete research tasks for class credit or monetary compensation, and they may not necessarily see a greater significance for their time and effort beyond that. Furthermore, some experimenters have to give a cover story for the research, keeping lab participants blind to the real impact that their contribution to the research project can have. Without a broader, more coherent sense of prosocial impact to their activities, lab subjects may adopt a more calculative, instrumental approach to their actions. Unlike the lab, work organizations are important sites of meaning (Brief et al., 2005; Pfeffer, 2005; Podolny et al., 2005). People interact with their coworkers and supervisors, and they identify with various groups or teams in the organization; all of these factors contribute to their sense of meaning (Rosso et al., 2010). As a consequence, we propose that there is a pressing need to situate moral licensing in the actual organizational context, so that it can explain broader organizational phenomena, such as the influence of working in certain kinds of organizations on employees' behavior. Our research suggests that the arguments made by moral licensing scholars can be extended to explain organizational phenomena, beyond the lab, but that these effects are only likely to emerge among employees who experience low levels of work meaning. At the same time, our findings among those with low work meaning provide further support for the moral licensing effects that have been found in the lab.

Our research suggests that the decisions that organizations make can influence and shape their members' behaviors both within and outside the organization. Our findings show the positive effect organizations' socially responsible behavior can have on employees' prosocial behavior, somewhat akin to what some scholars call "*ethical socialization*" (Latif, 2000; Mujtaba & Sims, 2006; Ponemon, 1992). Organizations can also be thought of as imprinting (Marquis & Tilcsik, 2013) their employees with a certain predisposition toward prosocial behaviors, that they can carry with them back home or to future workplaces. Our findings suggest that this type of imprinting is more likely to happen when employees derive meaning from their work. In addition, our findings add to research showing how employees' prosocial motivation and behaviors can be shaped by organizational initiatives, such as corporate social responsibility.

The work meaning literature has helped us understand several implications of meaningful work on organizational outcomes. Meaningful work is associated with outcomes like job satisfaction (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997) and performance (Wrzesniewski, 2003). Our findings show that meaningful work also leads employees to adopt a less transactional approach to their work. When work is not meaningful, work is simply done as a transaction between the employee and the organization. With this transactional mindset, employees accrue moral credits when their organization is socially responsible, which they can later spend by doing less good. However, when work is experienced as meaningful, employees' transactional mindset is switched to a prosocial one. Our research also makes a contribution to the work meaning literature by showing the key role of work meaning in encouraging employees' prosocial behavior. Our research reveals that meaningful work is not only meaningful within the work domain, but can lead the effects of one's organizational membership to pervade other aspects of life, such as discretionary prosocial behavior outside the organization. Specifically, we find that meaningful work can

influence employees' prosocial motivation and prosocial behavior when it comes to activities outside the organization, such as donating to charities or volunteering for causes.

The final contribution of this paper is that it adds to the emerging conversation on the micro-level consequences of firms' CSR and related activities. As articulated in the introduction to this paper, the majority of research on CSR has focused on macro-level processes and consequences. We have a good understanding of how CSR influences firms that practice them, but we are only beginning to get a sense of cross-level effects—how CSR influences the employees within those firms (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Our research suggests that CSR can influence employees' prosocial motivation and prosocial behaviors, and the direction of these relationships depends on employees' sense of meaning at work. In particular, CSR positively influences employees with high levels of work meaning; these employees experience an increase in prosocial motivation and display more prosocial behaviors. This finding suggests that CSR does not only help society directly through specific organizational initiatives (e.g., corporate philanthropy, green manufacturing practices), but also indirectly through the positive effect it can have on employees' prosocial motivation, who then act in ways that benefit their organization and society. This gives an additional reason for organizations to adopt social responsibility as a goal or mission, and builds a stronger case for the effectiveness of CSR in addressing social needs.

Managerial Implications

In management practice, organizations should be aware of how their CSR activities may influence their employees' prosocial behaviors. CSR not only influences firm performance or corporate reputation, but it can actually influence employees' behavior in and out of the organization. The influence of organizations' CSR activities on employees is complex. Although

CSR can be a positive influence on some employees, organizations should be wary of the negative influence it can have on employees with low work meaning. Managers should be particularly interested in the influence that CSR activities have on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. Our findings show that there is a positive relationship between CSR and OCB for employees who find their work meaningful.

Our research highlights the importance of meaningful work, which suggests managerial implications for job design. The relational structures of jobs and implications for task significance should be examined (Grant et al., 2007). To the extent that jobs can be designed in a way that employees can find their work more meaningful and significant, they are more likely to increase their prosocial behaviors, both within and outside the organization, provided that the organization is socially responsible. Managers can also create opportunities for employees to have the freedom to practice job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and proactively incorporate more meaningful activities into their work. Rewards and incentives can be put in play to encourage employees to change the boundaries of their jobs to make their work more meaningful.

Beyond the prosocial domain, our research suggests that initiatives undertaken by organizations (e.g., CSR) do not only influence organizational outcomes. Organizational initiatives can also have a profound effect on the way employees perceive themselves and shape the underlying motivations that drive their behavior. Organizational decisions not only influence the organization, but also have downstream effects on the employees who work in the organization through socialization or imprinting processes. Furthermore, these downstream effects of organizational decisions can be far-reaching, influencing employees' behaviors beyond the work context. With this knowledge in mind, organizations should take more caution before

implementing new programs or strategies and consider the effects those actions can have on employees' motivation and behavior.

Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation of our research is the issue of employees' self-selection in certain organizations. Our field studies (Study 1 and Study 3) are limited in their ability to address the possibility of prosocially-motivated employees selecting into socially responsible organizations and having a higher likelihood of experiencing work as meaningful. We have taken several steps to deal with the selection issue. Study 2 deals with this issue through random assignment of participants into experimental conditions. Also, our moderated mediation analysis in Study 3 helps to build a causal story statistically. Our analyses show that when employees have high work meaning, working in a socially responsible organization leads to an increase in prosocial motivation, which results in moral consistency in prosocial behavior. Finally, our data in Study 3 reveals that for people with high prosocial motivation, there is high variance in the level of social responsibility found within their organizations; that is, we do find people with high prosocial motivation working in organizations with low levels of social responsibility.

Another limitation of this research is that we examine differences between organizations that are perceived as good versus neutral, but we do not look at organizations that are perceived negatively (e.g., as anti-social or irresponsible). Psychology research has examined the phenomenon of "*moral compensation*" (Sachdeva et al., 2009; Zhong & Liljenquist, 2006; Zhong, Liljenquist, & Cain, 2009), conceived as the opposite of moral licensing. The moral compensation perspective states that a prior immoral act can be compensated for by a subsequent moral act. This perspective would suggest that people working in bad organizations might be more likely to display prosocial behaviors in order to make up for the misdeeds of their

organizations; however, the moral consistency perspective would suggest that people working in bad organizations might be less likely to display prosocial behaviors. Future research should examine what happens for employees working in bad (i.e., unethical) organizations, and explore if the findings are driven by a different set of mechanisms. For example, social learning or organizational identification may be potential mechanisms explaining moral consistency by employees in bad organizations, rather than prosocial motivation.

In this paper, we lump donating behavior, volunteering behavior and organizational citizenship behavior under the broad umbrella of prosocial behavior. We find consistent results with these various measures of prosocial behavior. However, more nuanced future research might explore if there are different alternative mechanisms explaining the findings for prosocial behaviors outside the organization versus inside the organization. For instance, regarding prosocial behaviors within the organization, employees may be additionally driven by impression management motives (Bolino, 1999; Grant & Mayer, 2009). Also, there may be different mechanisms explaining prosocial behaviors that involve varying types and degrees of cost to the self, such as time versus effort, and small cost versus big cost to the self. The costs or sacrifices required can influence people's prosocial behaviors (e.g., Gneezy et al., 2012; Reed et al., 2007). It would also be interesting to look at anti-social behaviors (e.g., Baron & Neuman, 1998) or unethical behaviors (e.g., Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2009) as dependent variables. For these variables, we expect that in prosocial organizations, employees with high work meaning will show less anti-social or unethical behaviors, although employees with low work meaning will show more of these negative behaviors.

An additional mechanism could explain the relationships found in our studies—social learning (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Over time, working in socially responsible organizations with

high work meaning, employees could learn to be more prosocial through picking things up from their surrounding environment and the coworkers or managers with whom they interact. In fact, the moral licensing versus consistency debate may be missing an important third possible effect of organizations on individuals' behaviors. The moral consistency view implies that employees are not changing over time, but a potentially interesting question is whether it is possible for employees to show growth and development in prosociality over time. In other words, might employees, through organizational influence, be able to become more helpful and caring individuals?

Finally, although this paper focuses on the work context, its findings could be generalized to address the broader psychological debate on moral licensing versus moral consistency. Might meaning, beyond the domain of work and employment, determine when moral licensing or consistency occurs? We seek meaning not just as an employee, but also as a family member, a friend, a church member, a neighbor, a citizen, and so on. Meaning, or a sense of purpose, is a basic human need (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002; Frankl, 1997; Heine et al., 2006). However, meaning does not necessarily have to manifest in the form of a vocation, it can also manifest in the form of domestic life or civic participation. Future research should explore if meaning, in its various manifestations (e.g., at home or at work), can facilitate moral consistency and limit moral licensing in people's lives.

Conclusion

Does working for a socially responsible organization make employees more or less prosocial? Our research suggests that both answers are right, and that it depends on employees' work meaning. When organizations engage in social responsibility, they have a positive influence on employees who find their work meaningful, motivating these employees to engage

in more prosocial behaviors. However, employees who do not find their work meaningful are inclined to morally license, and engage in less prosocial behaviors. In this way, an organization's CSR activities can have an impact not just on the external beneficiaries of those activities, but also on employees working within those organizations.

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TABLE 1

Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Social Responsibility	3.89	2.00	(.96)							
2. Calling orientation	3.47	1.22	.51**	(.83)						
3. Money donated	18.72	16.13	.09	.18*	--					
4. Time volunteered	33.74	84.88	.08	.10	.06	--				
5. Gender	.61	.49	-.04	.03	-.05	-.20*	--			
6. Age	33.28	10.24	-.01	-.07	.04	-.01	-.12	--		
7. Log income	1.63	.54	.16*	.16	.02	.03	.10	.09	--	
8. Work hours	4.80	.82	.02	-.06	-.09	.14	.04	.01	.16*	--
9. Organizational tenure	2.48	1.02	.05	.03	.10	.12	-.02	.38**	.26**	.10

Notes. Cronbach's alphas appear on the diagonals in parentheses. For gender, 0 = female, and 1 = male. For log income, we took the natural log of 1 = less than $10,000, 2 = $10,000 to $19,999, …, 10 = $90,000 to $99,999, 11 = $100,000 to $149,999, and 12 = $150,000 or more. For work hours, 1 = 0-10 hours, 2 = 11-20 hours, …, 8 = 71-80 hours, and 9 = More than 80 hours. For organizational tenure, 1 = less than a year, 2 = 1-5 years, 3 = 6-10 years, …, 6 = 21-25 years, and 7 = More than 25 years. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 2

Regression Results for Study 1

Regression Model	DV: Time Volunteered			DV: Money Donated		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
(Constant)	34.30 (6.97)**	34.34 (6.98)**	25.10 (7.75)**	18.19 (1.37)**	18.20 (1.35)**	16.46 (1.50)**
Gender	-36.40 (14.35)*	-36.18 (14.41)	-41.17 (14.22)**	-2.02 (2.81)	-2.04 (2.78)	-2.80 (2.75)
Age	-.66 (.74)	-.59 (.75)	-.63 (.73)	-.04 (.15)	-.01 (.14)	-.02 (.14)
Log income	-.39 (13.52)	-3.37 (13.77)	-1.03 (13.53)	-.35 (2.65)	-1.33 (2.66)	-.88 (2.61)
Work hours	13.79 (8.58)	14.68 (8.64)[+]	14.37 (8.47)[+]	-1.90 (1.68)	-1.53 (1.67)	-1.59 (1.64)
Organizational Tenure	10.64 (7.63)	10.41 (7.65)	11.14 (7.51)	2.12 (1.50)	2.04 (1.48)	2.18 (1.45)
Social Responsibility		.82 (4.08)	1.22 (4.01)		-.13 (.79)	-.05 (.77)
Calling Orientation		6.60 (6.71)	10.56 (6.76)		2.80 (1.30)*	3.55 (1.31)**
Prosocial organization X Calling			7.38 (2.90)*			1.39 (.56)*
R^2	.08*	.09[+]	.13*	.03	.07	.11*
ΔR^2	.08*	.01	.04*	.03	.04[+]	.04*

Notes. [+] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 3

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4
1. Social Responsibility	.49	.50	--			
2. Task significance	.51	.50	.08	--		
3. Willingness to Help	4.19	2.07	.01	-.07	--	
4. Money Donated	13.34	12.88	.06	.05	.22**	--

Notes. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 4

Study 3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Social Responsibility	3.30	.84	(.91)							
2. Task significance	4.90	1.50	.54**	(.89)						
3. OCB	4.16	.57	.07	-.04	(.88)					
4. Prosocial motivation	3.79	.77	.31**	.35**	.36**	(.92)				
5. Employee gender	.49	.50	.00	.12	-.07	-.07				
6. Employee age	27.2	10.48	.07	.05	.18*	.19*	-.22*			
7. Employee organizational tenure	4.36	5.37	.10	.04	.16	.24**	-.21*	.72**		
8. Employee job tenure	3.63	4.68	.10	.01	.10	.22*	-.20*	.67**	.72**	
7. Employee supervisor tenure	3.44	4.52	.18*	-.01	.15	.21*	-.19*	.60**	.76**	.84**

Notes. Cronbach's alphas appear on the diagonals in parentheses. For gender, 0 = female, and 1 = male.
* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

TABLE 5

Regression Results for Study 3

	OCB		
Regression Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
(Constant)	4.14 (.06)**	4.13 (.07)**	4.05 (.07)**
Employee gender	.01 (.13)	.02 (.14)	.01 (.13)
Employee age	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Employee organizational tenure	.01 (.04)	.01 (.04)	.01 (.04)
Employee job tenure	-.06 (.04)	-.05 (.04)	-.03 (.04)
Employee supervisor tenure	.04 (.04)	.04 (.04)	.03 (.04)
Social Responsibility		.03 (.11)	.08 (.11)
Task significance		-.03 (.06)	-.01 (.06)
Social Responsibility X Task significance			.11 (.05)*
R^2	.04	.04	.09
ΔR^2	.04	.00	.05*

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

TABLE 6

Regression Results for Moderated Mediation Model in Study 3

Regression Model	Dependent Variables	
	Mediator Variable Model *Prosocial Motivation*	Dependent Variable Model *OCB*
(Constant)	-.14 (.09)	4.09 (.07)**
Social Responsibility	.18 (.13)	.04 (.11)
Task significance	.14 (.07)*	-.04 (.05)
Social Responsibility X Task significance	.12 (.06)$^{+}$	.08 (.05)
Employee gender	-.07 (.16)	.03 (.13)
Employee age	.00 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Employee organizational tenure	.02 (.04)	.01 (.03)
Employee job tenure	.05 (.05)	-.05 (.04)
Employee supervisor tenure	-.03 (.05)	.04 (.04)
Prosocial motivation		.27 (.08)**

Notes. $^{+}$ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.
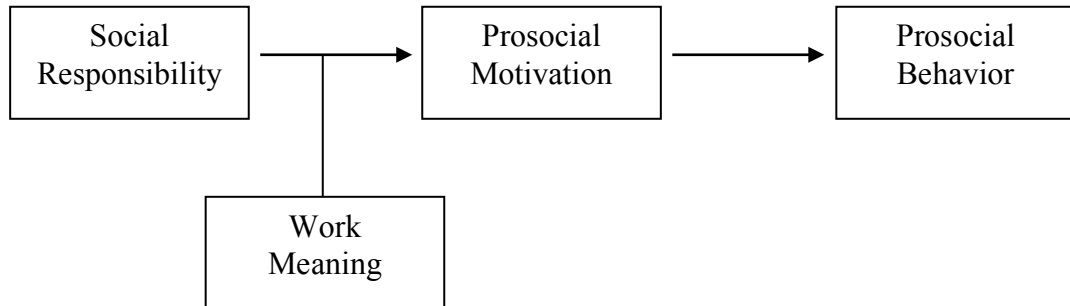
FIGURE 1

Theoretical Model

```
┌──────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────┐
│      Social      │───────▶│     Prosocial    │───────▶│     Prosocial    │
│  Responsibility  │        │    Motivation    │        │     Behavior     │
└──────────────────┘   │    └──────────────────┘        └──────────────────┘
                       │
              ┌────────┴─────────┐
              │       Work       │
              │     Meaning      │
              └──────────────────┘
```

FIGURE 2

Interaction of Social Responsibility and Calling on Time Volunteered (Study 1)
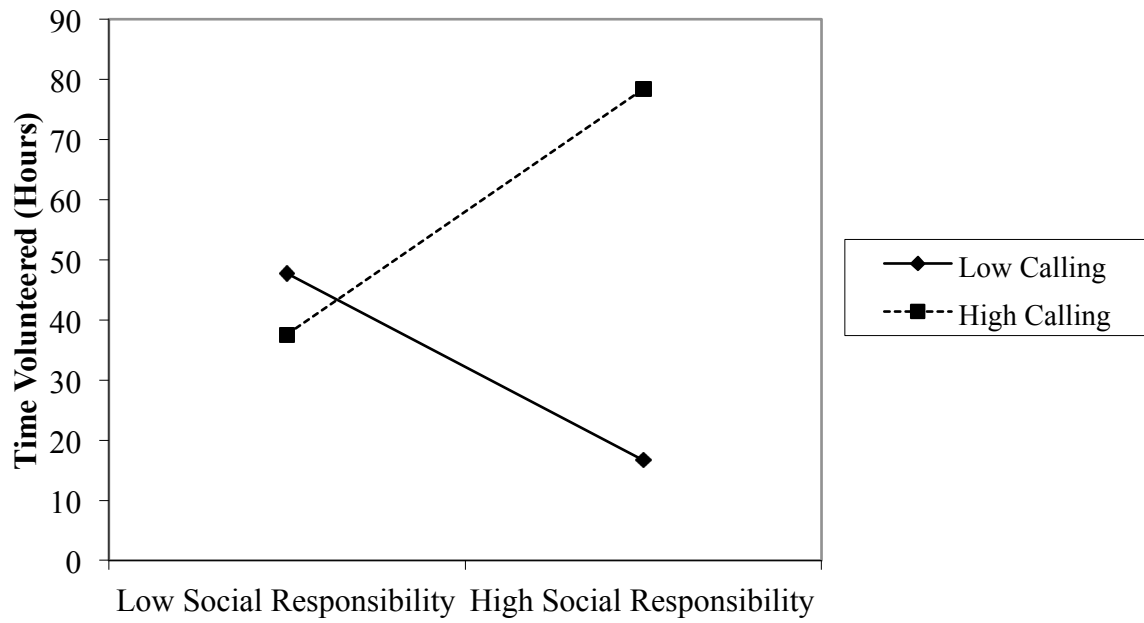
FIGURE 3

Interaction of Social Responsibility and Calling on Money Donated (Study 1)
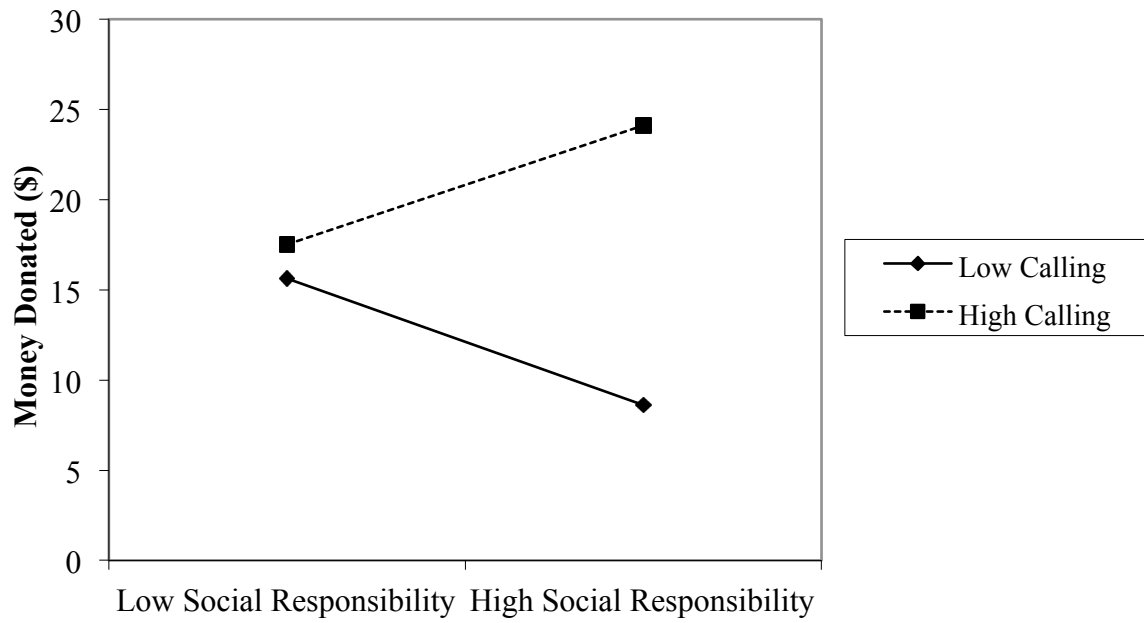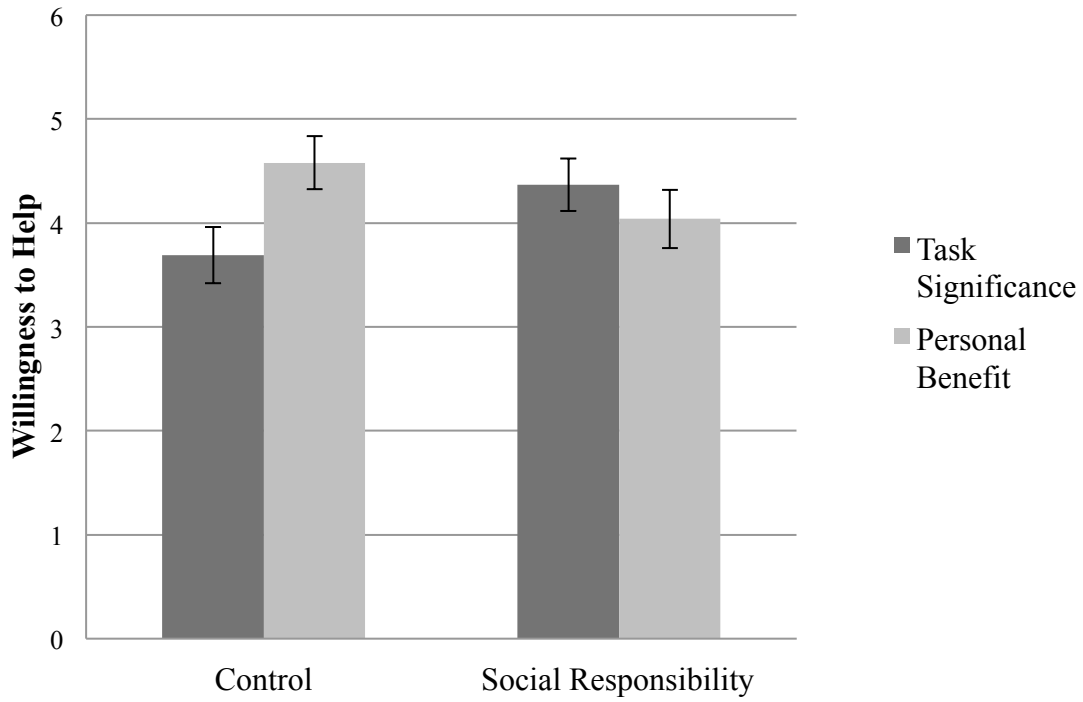
FIGURE 4

Interaction of Social Responsibility and Task Significance on Willingness to Help

(Study 2)

FIGURE 5

Interaction of Social Responsibility and Task Significance on Money Donated (Study 2)
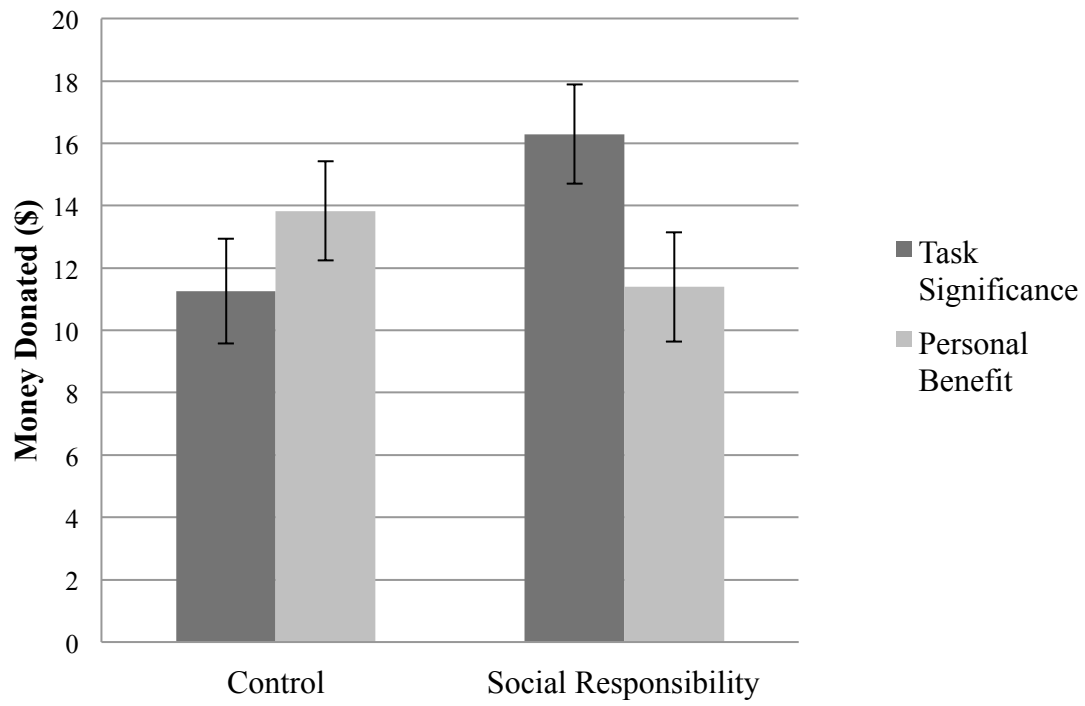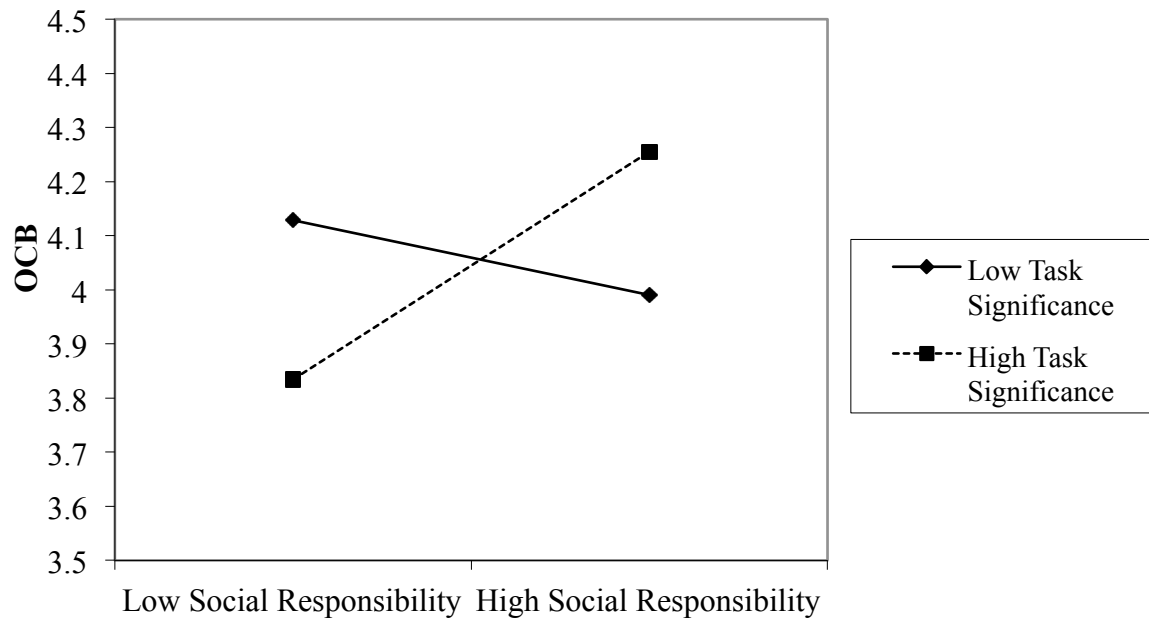
FIGURE 6

Interaction of Social Responsibility and Task Significance on OCB (Study 3)

FIGURE 7

Interaction of Social Responsibility and Task Significance on Prosocial Motivation

(Study 3)