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Personal Social Responsibility and Employee Well-Being in Labor-Intensive Manufacturing: A Contingency Perspective on Organizational Commitment

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Abstract

This study examines the relationship between Personal Social Responsibility (PSR) and Employee Well-Being (EWB), considering the moderating role of Organizational Commitment (OC) in a labor-intensive manufacturing setting in Mexico. While Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has been widely studied, research on PSR, which is composed of individual ethical, legal, economic, and environmental responsibility, remains limited. Using a cross-sectional survey of 236 employees from a Mexican maquiladora located in one of the country's leading exporting regions, we applied Structural Equation Modeling to test the relationships between PSR, OC, and EWB. Results indicate that PSR positively relates to EWB, and OC further enhances PSR adoption. However, contrary to expectations, OC negatively moderates the PSR–EWB relationship, suggesting that socially responsible behaviors may be less strongly associated with EWB among highly committed employees. This study extends the boundary of Social Cognitive Theory and challenges the universal assumption regarding the moderating role of OC within the framework of Sustained Performance Management. The research provides context-specific evidence on PSR, OC, and EWB in a labor-intensive export manufacturing setting and offers implications for performance management, employee care, and social responsibility initiatives.

Keywords: Personal Social Responsibility; Employee Well-Being; Organizational Commitment; Social Cognitive Theory; Sustained Performance Management; Mexican Maquiladora

1. Introduction

CSR has become an essential component of contemporary business strategy, contributing not only to competitive advantage but also to the long-term sustainability of organizations. Nevertheless, CSR continues to receive uneven attention across developing countries, where workplace conditions, employee health, safety, and well-being often remain secondary to operational and economic priorities (Fatima & Elbanna, 2023). Despite these challenges, recent evidence continues to demonstrate that CSR

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creates value for both organizations and employees. Edriani et al. (2024) found that CSR disclosure enhances firm value through improved financial performance, while Ahsan and Khalid (2025) reported that CSR positively influences employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (OC), particularly when external CSR initiatives are complemented by internal practices focused on employee well-being (EWB).

Among the outcomes associated with socially responsible organizations, EWB has become increasingly important. Beyond representing a desirable employee outcome, workplace well-being contributes to healthier organizations, stronger engagement, and more sustainable organizational performance over time (Ji et al., 2021; Tziner & Persoff, 2024). Both the International Labour Organization (2019) and the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2021) emphasized that organizations should contribute to a future in which people can live well within planetary boundaries and identified individual health and well-being as a core transformation pathway. Therefore, understanding the factors that promote EWB has become a priority for both scholars and practitioners.

While CSR has received substantial attention, less is known about how employees' personal social responsibility (PSR) shapes their own well-being and commitment. CSR has traditionally been examined at the organizational level. Recent research has begun to recognize that socially responsible organizations are ultimately composed of individuals whose own responsibility orientations influence how they interpret, support, and enact responsible practices within the workplace (Davis et al., 2021; Păceşilă, 2018). In parallel, OC has consistently been associated with positive workplace outcomes, including higher EWB (Carneiro & Bastos, 2023; Sarkar & Sarkar, 2025), stronger organizational attachment (Brammer et al., 2007), and greater support for socially responsible organizational initiatives (Kim et al., 2017). Together, these findings suggest that employees' responsibility orientations and their commitment to the organization may jointly contribute to workplace well-being.

Despite these advances, important gaps remain in the literature. First, research on PSR remains in its early stages and has focused primarily on consumers, citizens, and entrepreneurial settings rather than employees working within organizations (Davis et al., 2021; Emami et al., 2026; Li & Kang, 2024). Second, previous studies have separately examined the relationships between CSR and EWB, CSR and OC, and OC and EWB (Brammer et al., 2007; Sarfraz et al., 2018; Paruzel et al., 2021; Bocean et al., 2022; Carneiro & Bastos, 2023; Ahsan & Khalid, 2025; Sarkar & Sarkar, 2025). However, considerably less is known about the role of employees' own PSR in explaining workplace well-being. Third, existing evidence has largely analyzed these constructs independently, while research integrating PSR, OC, and EWB within a single explanatory framework remains scarce, particularly in labor-intensive manufacturing environments. Finally, little is known about whether OC not only contributes directly to EWB but also influences the extent to which employees' personal responsibility orientations translate into positive workplace experiences.

Accordingly, the objective of this study is to examine the relationship between PSR and EWB while analyzing the dual role of OC as both an antecedent of PSR and EWB and as a moderator of the relationship between these two constructs. Specifically, this study addresses the following research question: How does PSR contribute to EWB, and what role does OC play in this relationship among employees in labor-intensive manufacturing environments?

To address this question, the study integrates three complementary theoretical perspectives: Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), Sustainable Performance Management (DeNisi & Smith, 2014; DeNisi & Murphy, 2017; Ji et al., 2021; Tziner & Persoff, 2024), and the organizational commitment literature (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Together, these perspectives explain how responsibility-oriented

values influence EWB, the organizational conditions under which these relationships develop, and the role of OC in shaping their strength.

This study contributes to the literature in three ways. First, it extends Social Cognitive Theory by explaining how OC contributes to employees' responsibility orientations, highlighting the role of the organizational context in shaping socially responsible behavior. Second, it advances Sustainable Performance Management by examining how responsibility-oriented behaviors contribute to EWB and by identifying OC as an important contextual condition influencing this relationship. Third, it integrates PSR, OC, and EWB into a single explanatory model, providing empirical evidence from a labor-intensive manufacturing context that has received limited attention in the literature.

The empirical analysis was conducted in a Mexican maquiladora, a labor-intensive manufacturing environment characterized by demanding production targets, cost competitiveness, and challenging working conditions. Although Mexico plays a central role in global manufacturing, many employees continue to experience relatively low wages and long working hours. According to the OECD (2023), Mexico records the highest proportion of employees working excessively long hours among OECD member countries, increasing risks to both physical and psychological well-being. This context provides an appropriate setting for examining the factors that contribute to employee well-being, which is the purpose of this study.

A quantitative, cross-sectional design based on survey data collected from 236 employees working in a Mexican maquiladora was used. The proposed relationships are tested using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), allowing the simultaneous estimation of both the measurement and structural models.

2. Theoretical framework and hypothesis development

2.1 Theoretical foundations of the proposed model

This study sits at the intersection of Sustainable Performance Management, Social Cognitive Theory, and organizational commitment (OC) literatures. Together, these perspectives help explain how responsibility-related values held by employees become workplace well-being outcomes under different levels of OC. Specifically, Sustainable Performance Management (Ji et al., 2021; Moynihan et al., 2012; Neher & Maley, 2020; Tziner & Persoff, 2024) provides the overarching organizational perspective, social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989) explains the individual-level mechanism through which responsible values are translated into behavior, and OC (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) represents a contextual condition that may shape the strength of these relationships.

On the one hand, Sustainable Performance Management extends traditional performance management beyond productivity and appraisal systems by emphasizing ethical behavior, fairness, employee development, and long-term workplace sustainability (Moynihan et al., 2012; Neher & Maley, 2020; Tziner & Persoff, 2024). Rather than focusing exclusively on performance outcomes, this perspective recognizes that organizational effectiveness depends on creating workplace conditions that support EWB, engagement, and sustained contribution over time (Tziner & Persoff, 2024). Ji et al. (2021) define sustainable employee performance as the ability to achieve desired work goals efficiently and consistently over time. Within this perspective, responsible employee behaviors are not merely desirable ethical outcomes but strategic resources that contribute to healthier workplaces, stronger social relationships, and long-term organizational sustainability (Bai, 2025). Consequently, understanding the factors that promote EWB becomes central to understanding sustainable organizational performance.

On the other hand, Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986) explains how such behaviors emerge. According to this theory, individuals actively regulate their behavior through cognitive processes

that involve self-reflection, moral agency, observational learning, and the interpretation of environmental cues (Wood & Bandura, 1989; Akhtar et al., 2025; Guo et al., 2025). Rather than simply responding to organizational rules, employees internalize values and translate them into workplace behaviors consistent with their beliefs and social environment. This perspective helps to understand PSR. Davis et al. (2021) define PSR as an individual orientation toward minimizing negative and maximizing positive impacts on social, environmental, and economic systems. Similarly, Li and Kang (2024) show that personal values activate PSR and influence how individuals interpret socially responsible practices. From a social cognitive perspective, PSR can therefore be understood as a value-driven behavioral orientation through which employees translate responsibility-related beliefs into workplace behaviors and psychological outcomes, including well-being.

A third stream of literature concerns OC, which has long been associated with employee attitudes, motivation, and workplace outcomes. OC reflects the psychological bond linking employees to their organization and was conceptualized by Allen and Meyer (1990) as a multidimensional construct comprising affective, continuance, and normative commitment. However, subsequent psychometric and cross-cultural validation studies have shown that the original three-component structure is not consistently replicated across cultural and occupational settings, highlighting the importance of evaluating its psychometric properties before application in new contexts (Agegnehu et al., 2022; Azdha et al., 2023). Rather than serving as the mechanism through which responsibility-related values influence well-being, OC is conceptualized as a contextual condition that may strengthen or weaken the extent to which PSR contributes to EWB.

Although previous studies have advanced understanding of PSR, important gaps remain. Davis et al. (2021) demonstrated that PSR is associated with self-esteem and life satisfaction, while Li and Kang (2024) showed that PSR links personal values with perceptions of CSR. Likewise, Emami et al. (2026) found that PSR may mediate the relationship between internal beliefs and socially productive outcomes. However, existing evidence has focused primarily on consumer, entrepreneurial, or non-workplace contexts. Much less is known about whether PSR contributes to EWB in organizational settings, whether OC is associated with PSR, and whether commitment alters the strength of the PSR–EWB relationship.

2.2 Personal Social Responsibility as an antecedent of Employee Well-Being

Prior research suggests that individual responsibility orientations can shape how people perceive CSR and whether they view organizational responsibility as meaningful or aligned with their own values. For example, Hemingway and Maclagan (2004) argue that CSR may be driven partly by managers' personal values, while Li and Kang (2024) show that individuals with stronger PSR are more likely to recognize corporate CSR efforts. This suggests that PSR may help explain why CSR affects employees differently. Employees with high PSR may experience stronger value congruence with socially responsible organizations, which can enhance their workplace well-being. PSR forms the foundation of CSR focusing on individuals' perceptions of how to live and act ethically and philanthropically, while being responsible for the impact of their actions and decisions on economic, social, and environmental realms, aiming to create a more just and sustainable society (Davis et al., 2021; Păceşilă, 2018). Therefore, this study considers that PSR is worth exploring further, as it potentially bridges individual-level responsibility with organizational-level CSR and provides a more complete understanding of how CSR relates to employee commitment and well-being.

The relationship between PSR and EWB can be abbreviated in four different approaches: Health and safety (Amponsah-Tawiah & Dartey-Baah, 2011; Gorgenyi-Hegyes et al., 2021; Zanko & Dawson,

2012), job satisfaction, and OC (Brammer et al., 2007; Crowne et al., 2014; Paruzel et al., 2021; Sarfraz et al., 2018); work environment and employee engagement (Dong et al., 2024; Kurdi & Alshurideh, 2020; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Straume & Vittersø, 2012); and work-life balance and flexible working hours (Gorgenyi-Hegyes et al., 2021). These policies are highly valued by employees worldwide and are particularly important for workers in developing countries like Mexico, as they significantly enhance emotional health and overall well-being (Gorgenyi-Hegyes et al., 2021). Accordingly, Sustainable Performance Management highlights the importance of responsibility-oriented behaviors for creating healthier and more sustainable workplaces, while Social Cognitive Theory explains how internalized responsibility values may translate into positive workplace experiences and psychological outcomes. Together, these perspectives support the expectation that employees with higher levels of PSR will report higher levels of workplace well-being.

Because PSR encompasses multiple but conceptually related responsibility domains, the present study recognizes that these dimensions may not operate independently. The behavioral spillover literature suggests that responsibility-oriented behaviors expressed in one domain can reinforce similar behaviors in related domains through processes of self-consistency and moral identity (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2003; Truelove et al., 2014; Nilsson et al., 2017). Although the hypotheses are formulated at the construct level, this perspective provides the theoretical rationale for the structural specification evaluated in the empirical analysis (see Appendix B).

H1: Personal Social Responsibility (PSR) enhances Employee Well-Being (EWB)

2.3 Organizational Commitment as an antecedent of Employee Well-Being

Previous research has consistently identified OC as an important antecedent of EWB. Employees who perceive greater continuity and stability in their relationship with the organization tend to report more positive workplace experiences, greater psychological security, and higher levels of well-being (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2025). Similarly, Carneiro and Bastos (2023) found a positive association between OC and workplace well-being while emphasizing that this relationship remains theoretically complex and is influenced by organizational conditions.

Several organizational factors help explain this association. Leadership styles (Liu et al., 2022; Purnomo et al., 2020), organizational culture (Purnomo et al., 2020; Syarifin & Atmaja, 2023; Vizano et al., 2020), and the alignment between employees' personal and organizational values (Lindfors & Junttila, 2014) have all been associated with stronger OC and more favorable workplace experiences. Likewise, job security, supportive relationships with co-workers, and the nature of employees' work contribute to stronger organizational attachment and are consistently associated with higher levels of EWB.

From the perspective of Sustainable Performance Management, these organizational conditions promote healthier and more sustainable workplaces by fostering employees' long-term engagement and well-being (Ji et al., 2021; Tziner & Persoff, 2024). Complementing this perspective, Social Cognitive Theory suggests that employees continuously evaluate their work environment and translate these perceptions into attitudes and psychological outcomes (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Consequently, employees with stronger levels of OC are expected to perceive their work environment more positively and report higher levels of EWB.

H2: Organizational Commitment (OC) enhances Employee Well-Being (EWB).

2.4 Organizational Commitment as an antecedent of Personal Social Responsibility

Social Cognitive Theory suggests that employees do not develop workplace behaviors in isolation but rather through continuous interaction with their organizational environment (Bandura, 1977, 1986). As

employees become more committed to their organization, they are more likely to internalize organizational norms, values, and expectations, including those associated with socially responsible conduct (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Brammer et al., 2007; Glavas, 2017; Kim et al., 2017). In this sense, OC may encourage employees to adopt behaviors that are consistent with broader organizational and societal responsibilities.

The literature confirms that OC remains a central employee attitude and a well-established construct in organizational behavior research (Kim et al., 2017; Sarkar & Sarkar, 2025). Kim et al. (2017) found that employees with stronger OC place greater importance on CSR initiatives. Likewise, CSR activities have been shown to support employee retention, strengthen OC, enhance organizational attractiveness, and contribute to positive organizational outcomes (Brammer et al., 2007; Chandra, 2020).

Evidence from the Mexican maquiladora context remains limited, particularly regarding how OC may influence employees' socially responsible orientations and behaviors. However, when employees perceive stronger alignment with organizational values and objectives, they may become more willing to engage in behaviors that support social, ethical, and environmental goals. Accordingly, higher levels of OC are expected to be associated with stronger levels of personal social responsibility.

H3: Organizational Commitment (OC) enhances Personal Social Responsibility (PSR).

2.5 The moderating role of Organizational Commitment

Although employees with higher levels of PSR are expected to report greater EWB, this relationship may not be equally strong across organizational contexts. Building on the theoretical framework presented in Section 2.1, Social Cognitive Theory suggests that responsibility-oriented values are translated into workplace behaviors through interactions between individual dispositions and environmental conditions (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Complementing this perspective, Sustainable Performance Management argues that organizational conditions influence whether employees' responsible behaviors translate into positive workplace outcomes (Tziner & Persoff, 2024). Together, these perspectives suggest that the relationship between PSR and EWB may depend on employees' relationship with their organization. For instance, employees with stronger OC are more likely to perceive greater value in behaviors that are consistent with organizational expectations, increasing the likelihood that responsibility-oriented behaviors translate into positive workplace experiences and higher levels of well-being (Bocean et al., 2022; Glavas, 2017; Sarkar & Sarkar, 2025). Employees with weaker OC may perceive responsible behaviors as additional obligations rather than meaningful contributions, reducing their positive effects on engagement, job satisfaction, and overall well-being (Lambert et al., 2020).

However, when OC is very high, employees may already invest substantial emotional, cognitive, and behavioral resources into the organization. Under this condition, high PSR may create additional felt obligation, responsibility pressure, or role burden. Highly committed employees with strong PSR may feel that they should continuously contribute to organizational and social goals, even beyond their formal responsibilities. In other words, PSR may be experienced not only as a personal value orientation but also as an additional responsibility burden. This argument is consistent with overcommitment research showing that excessive psychological investment in work can contribute to burnout and impaired mental health (Avanzi et al., 2014; Reimann, 2016). As a result, the positive effect of PSR on EWB may become weaker when organizational commitment is high. Importantly, this argument shows the trend in the sustainable performance management literature that is no longer limited to narrow performance appraisal; instead, it requires balancing commitment, responsibility, well-being, and long-term performance

outcomes (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017). In human resource management, long-term performance should not be achieved at the expense of employees' psychological health or social responsibility; rather, organizations should consider that commitment is valuable, but excessive psychological investment may reduce the well-being benefits of responsibility if employees experience responsibility as an additional demand (Kramar, 2014). Therefore, we argue that OC may function as a boundary condition in the PSR–well-being relationship.

H4: Organizational Commitment (OC) negatively moderates the relationship between Personal Social Responsibility (PSR) and Employee Well-Being (EWB), such that the positive relationship between PSR and EWB is weaker when OC is high.

The proposed model assigns two conceptually distinct roles to OC. First, OC is directly associated with PSR and EWB, reflecting its relationship with employees' responsibility orientations and workplace well-being. Second, OC functions as a contextual boundary condition that may weaken the association between PSR and EWB. Thus, the direct relationships explain variation in PSR and EWB, whereas the moderating role explains variation in the strength of the relationship between them. The resulting conceptual model is presented in Figure 1.

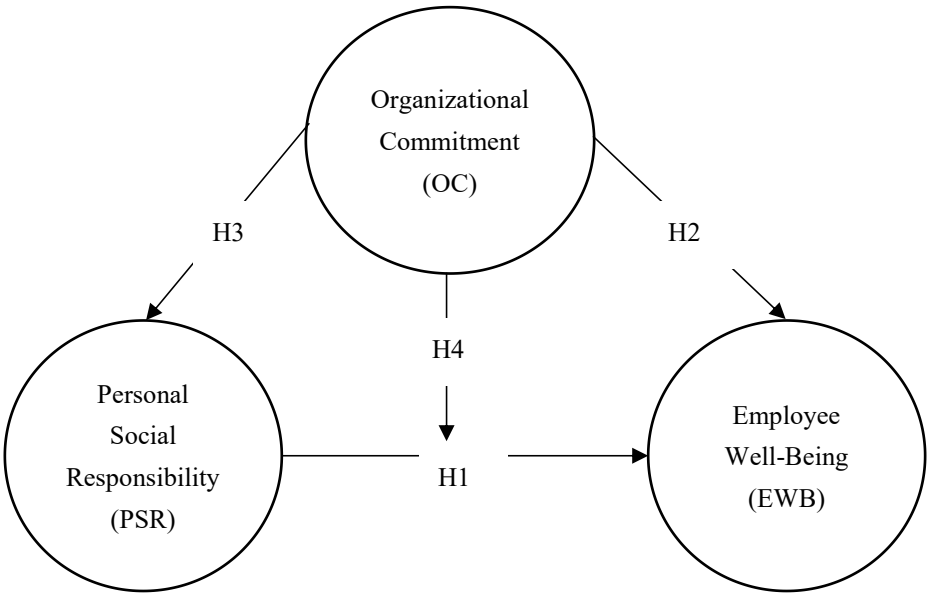


Figure 1. Theoretical Model

3. Methodology

This study adopts a quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional design to test the hypothesized relationships among the proposed constructs through statistical analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Sampieri, 2018). The variables were observed in their natural organizational setting without experimental manipulation, and data were collected at a single point in time to examine the associations among the study variables (Sampieri, 2018).

The empirical analysis for this study was conducted at a manufacturing company based in Chihuahua, Mexico, through a cross-sectional survey approach in 2022. The company operated under Mexico's IMMEX program, importing inputs for manufacturing and exporting finished products, and therefore corresponds to the export-oriented maquiladora setting examined in this study. An anonymous and voluntary survey was administered via an electronic platform (SurveyMonkey) and a total of 241 survey responses were collected, comprising 10% from management staff and 90% of employees from

operational areas. Participation was voluntary, and respondents were informed that their answers would remain anonymous and confidential and would be used exclusively for academic research.

Before completing the questionnaire, the researchers explained that there were no right or wrong answers and encouraged participants to respond honestly according to their own perceptions. No supervisors or managers were present during questionnaire administration, and individual responses were not accessible to the company. These procedural measures were implemented to reduce evaluation apprehension and the potential for socially desirable responding (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Rather than distributing the survey link remotely, the researchers visited the company in person, and participants completed the questionnaire on-site using the company's computers and iPads. Although the questionnaire was completed on company-owned devices during working hours, responses were submitted directly through the SurveyMonkey platform and were not accessible to the participating organization.

After excluding five incomplete questionnaires, 236 valid responses were retained for analysis. The final sample comprised 236 employees (54% male and 46% female). Most respondents (88%) were younger than 50 years of age. Educational attainment ranged from elementary school to master's degree, with middle school (43%) representing the largest group, followed by high school (19%) and bachelor's degree (18%).

The hypothesized relationships were estimated using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), which enables the simultaneous estimation of the measurement and structural models while accounting for measurement error (Hair et al., 2021). SEM is particularly appropriate for testing theoretical models involving latent constructs and multiple simultaneous relationships. All analyses were conducted using Stata.

Potential endogeneity of the PSR → WB equation was assessed using the Durbin–Wu–Hausman procedure (Durbin, 1954; Wu, 1973; Hausman, 1978). The test was applied to the retained factor scores, instrumenting PSR with work experience and educational attainment. These instruments were selected following an ex-ante evaluation of instrument relevance and the exclusion restriction. The complete instrument screening procedure and diagnostic tests are reported in Appendix D.

Measures:

A. Employee Well-Being at Workplace (EWB)

EWB is measured with the instrument by Zheng et al. (2015) across three dimensions: life well-being, workplace well-being, and psychological well-being. Each dimension is assessed using a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 ("totally disagree") to 7 ("totally agree"). Dimensions encompass items such as: "I am satisfied with my work responsibilities," "In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job," "I find real enjoyment in my work," "I can always find ways to enrich my work," "Work is a meaningful experience for me," and "I feel satisfied with my work achievements in my current job".

B. Personal Social Responsibility (PSR)

PSR was measured across five dimensions: philanthropic, environmental, ethical, legal, and economic (Davis et al., 2021). The philanthropic dimension comprises five items focused on voluntary actions, while the environmental dimension includes four items related to eco-friendly purchasing behaviors. The legal dimension consists of three items addressing compliance with social norms, and the economic dimension includes three items measuring necessary consumption patterns. Finally, the ethical dimension, represented by four items, emphasizes ethical considerations in personal life. All items were assessed using a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 ("totally disagree") to 5 ("totally agree").

For this study, the philanthropic dimension was excluded because the sample's average monthly income (MXN $11,327.80; approximately USD $560.28) places respondents within the lower-middle segment of the U-shaped relationship between income and philanthropy, where charitable engagement tends to be lowest (James III & Sharpe, 2007; Schervish & Havens, 1995). Furthermore, exploratory factor analysis did not replicate the original five-dimensional structure proposed by Davis et al. (2021). Instead, the ethical, legal, and economic items loaded on a common factor, hereafter labeled Economic–Ethical–Legal Personal Social Responsibility (EELPSR), whereas environmental responsibility emerged as a separate factor (EPSR). Accordingly, the operationalization of PSR in this study reflects the empirical structure observed in the sample rather than the original theoretical configuration. This finding suggests that employees in the Mexican maquiladora context perceive ethical, legal, and economic responsibility as closely interconnected aspects of personal responsibility, whereas environmental responsibility constitutes a more distinct dimension.

The resulting factor structure was subsequently incorporated into the structural model. Guided by the behavioral spillover literature, the relationship between EELPSR and EPSR was specified from EELPSR to EPSR and evaluated against alternative structural specifications. The theoretical rationale and comparative model assessment are presented in Appendix B.

C. Organizational commitment (OC)

OC was assessed using the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), which conceptualizes commitment as a three-dimensional construct comprising affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Consistent with previous psychometric and cross-cultural validation studies demonstrating that the original three-component structure may require refinement across different cultural and occupational settings (Agegnehu et al., 2022; Azdha et al., 2023), all three dimensions were included in the pilot-stage survey and subjected to psychometric evaluation. The pilot results indicated that the empirical factor structure differed from the original specification.

Although the three subscales exhibited moderate internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .65, .74$, and $.77$), the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses did not support the original three-component structure. Several items failed to load on their expected dimensions, and the CFA showed poor overall model fit (Appendix A). Following recommendations for measurement refinement in SEM (Hair et al., 2021), the measurement model was revised to reflect the empirical structure identified in the pilot study.

The refined measurement model operationalizes OC through the continuance commitment dimension, which reflects employees' perceived investments in, and costs associated with maintaining, their organizational membership (Powell & Meyer, 2004). CSR initiatives are complemented by internal practices focused on employee well-being (EWB).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics of the study variables

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the study variables. EWB and OC exhibited relatively high central tendency and lower dispersion than PSR. Both variables also showed moderate negative skewness, whereas PSR displayed a more symmetric distribution. Overall, the descriptive statistics indicate sufficient variability across the constructs to support the subsequent multivariate analyses.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for each Dimension

Dimension	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Mean	Median	Mode
EWB	0.927	-1.141	1.468	3.787	4.000	4.000
PSR	1.151	-0.28	-0.856	3.26	3.000	4.000
OC	0.957	-1.008	0.933	3.887	4.000	4.000

4.2 Assessment of the measurement model

Before testing the hypotheses, the measurement model was assessed through Cronbach's alpha and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). As shown in Table 2, all constructs demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency (α = .78–.93), exceeding the recommended threshold of .70 (George & Mallery, 2019; Kline, 2013).

The EFA did not reproduce the original five-dimensional structure of the PSR instrument proposed by Davis et al. (2021). Instead, the economic, ethical, and legal items loaded on a common factor (EELPSR), whereas environmental responsibility emerged as a separate factor (EPSR). This empirical structure suggests that employees in the Mexican maquiladora context perceive economic, ethical, and legal responsibility as closely related dimensions of personal responsibility, while environmental responsibility constitutes a more distinct domain. Overall, the EFA identified four factors explaining 96.44% of the total variance (Table 2).

Table 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis and Factors

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Eigenvalue	Cumulative Variance
EELPSR	9	0.932	6.2614	0.4338
EWB	6	0.8784	3.5304	0.6785
EPSR	3	0.8531	2.1694	0.8288
OC	3	0.784	1.9577	0.9644

The factor structure identified through the EFA was subsequently confirmed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). All retained indicators exhibited standardized factor loadings above .50, supporting convergent validity. Items that failed to meet this criterion were excluded from the final measurement model. The resulting four-factor structure (EWB, EELPSR, EPSR, and OC) was retained for the subsequent SEM analyses (Table 3 and Figure 2).

4.3 Structural model and hypothesis testing

The structural model was estimated using SEM to test the proposed hypotheses. Figure 2 presents the standardized path coefficients, while Table 3 reports the moderation estimates. Consistent with H1, EELPSR was positively associated with EWB ($\beta = .401$, $p < .001$), indicating that employees reporting higher levels of PSR also reported higher levels of workplace well-being. In addition, EELPSR showed a strong positive association with EPSR ($\beta = .668$, $p < .001$), supporting the proposed relationship between the two responsibility dimensions.

Supporting H2, OC was positively associated with EWB ($\beta = .195$, $p = .009$). Likewise, OC was positively associated with EELPSR ($\beta = .415$, $p < .001$), providing support for H3 and suggesting that

employees with stronger OC also reported higher levels of PSR. Importantly, our results confirm H4 that the interaction between EELPSR and OC was negative and statistically significant (β = −.247, p = .008). Rather than strengthening the positive association between EELPSR and EWB, higher levels of OC weakened this relationship. Therefore, H4 was also supported (Table 3).

Table 3. Exploratory Moderating Effect

Variables	Coefficient	Standard Error	Z-statistic	P-Value
EWB				
EELPSR	0.222	0.097	2.28	0.02
Moderation EELPSR and OC	**-0.247**	**0.093**	**-2.65**	**0.00**
OC	0.169	0.073	2.3	0.02

The moderated structural model produced results consistent with those obtained in the direct-effects model. The positive association between EELPSR and EWB remained statistically significant after including the interaction term, although its standardized coefficient decreased from β = .401 to β = .351 (p < .001). Likewise, the positive associations of OC with EWB (β = .286, p < .001), OC with EELPSR (β = .375, p < .001), EELPSR with EPSR (β = .642, p < .001), and OC with EPSR (β = .241, p < .001) remained statistically significant (Figure 2).

4.4 Model fit and specification assessment

The proposed structural model demonstrated an acceptable overall fit to the data. The goodness-of-fit indices met commonly accepted thresholds (SRMR = .063, RMSEA = .082, CFI = .910, TLI = .898), supporting the adequacy of the measurement and structural model (Acock, 2013; Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Byrne, 2013; Kline, 2023). Overall, these results indicate that the proposed model provides an adequate representation of the relationships among the study constructs.

To further assess the specification of the relationship between the two empirically derived PSR dimensions, three competing structural models were estimated: (1) a model without a relationship between EELPSR and EPSR, (2) a model specifying the reverse direction (EPSR → EELPSR), and (3) the proposed specification (EELPSR → EPSR). The no-link model exhibited substantially poorer fit (SRMR = .170; CFI = .878), indicating that environmental PSR should not be modeled independently of the remaining responsibility dimensions. The reversed and proposed specifications produced comparable global fit. However, the proposed model was retained because it achieved lower information criteria (ΔAIC = 2.0; ΔBIC = 5.5) while remaining consistent with the theoretical rationale derived from the behavioral spillover literature. Importantly, the substantive coefficients associated with the study hypotheses remained virtually unchanged across the competing specifications, indicating that the reported findings are robust to alternative model specifications. Complete model comparisons are presented in Appendix B.

4.5 Endogeneity assessment

Potential endogeneity of the relationship between EELPSR and EWB was assessed using the Durbin–Wu–Hausman procedure with work experience and educational attainment as instrumental variables. Neither the Durbin nor the Wu–Hausman test rejected the null hypothesis of exogeneity ($\chi^2(1) = 0.10$, p = .748; F(1, 237) = 0.10, p = .750). The excluded instruments were sufficiently strong (first-stage F(2, 237) = 11.62; Staiger & Stock, 1997) and satisfied the overidentification tests (Sargan and Basmann tests, both p = .998). Moreover, the instrumental-variable estimate of the effect of EELPSR on EWB (β = .406)

closely approximated the OLS estimate (β = .352) and remained statistically significant, providing no evidence that endogeneity materially affected the reported results. Complete diagnostic results are presented in Appendix D.

5. Discussion

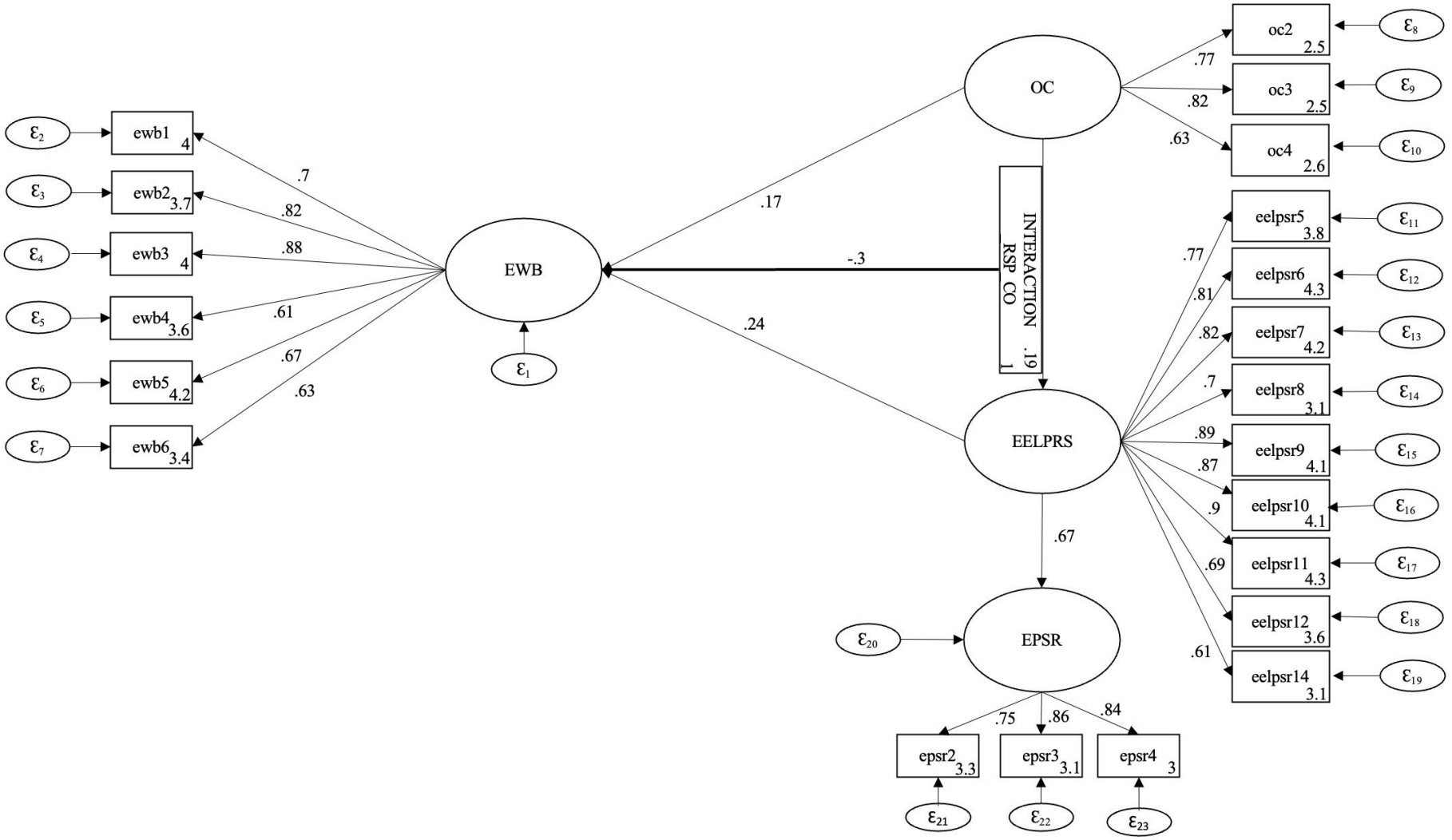
The present study examined the relationships among PSR, OC, and EWB within a labor-intensive manufacturing environment. By integrating Social Cognitive Theory, Sustainable Performance Management, and OC as complementary theoretical perspectives, the findings provide new evidence on how responsibility-oriented values and organizational conditions jointly shape employees' workplace well-being.

First, the findings support the positive association between PSR and EWB. Employees reporting stronger responsibility-oriented values also reported higher workplace well-being. While previous research has largely examined CSR as an organizational practice, the present study shifts attention toward the individual, demonstrating that employees' own responsibility orientations are positively associated with their workplace experiences. This finding extends previous work by Davis et al. (2021), Li and Kang (2024), and Păceşilă (2018), suggesting that responsibility-oriented values influence not only how employees perceive organizational responsibility but also how they experience their work environment. From the perspective of Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), these results suggest that responsibility-related values become self-regulated behaviors that contribute to healthier interpersonal relationships and more positive psychological experiences at work. Likewise, Sustainable Performance Management highlights that such behaviors represent organizational resources that contribute to long-term workplace sustainability by fostering healthier work environments.

Second, the study confirms that OC is positively associated with both EWB and PSR. Employees reporting stronger OC also reported higher workplace well-being and stronger responsibility-oriented values. These findings are consistent with previous studies showing that OC contributes to positive employee attitudes and organizational outcomes (Brammer et al., 2007; Glavas, 2017; Kim et al., 2017; Sarkar & Sarkar, 2025). Rather than operating independently, OC appears to create conditions under which employees are more likely to internalize organizational values and translate them into responsible workplace behaviors. This finding is particularly relevant because it suggests that OC contributes not only to employee retention but also to the development of responsibility-oriented values that are positively associated with workplace well-being.

An additional contribution concerns the multidimensional structure of PSR. Consistent with the behavioral spillover literature (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Mullen & Monin, 2016; Nilsson et al., 2017; Thøgersen & Ölander, 2003; Truelove et al., 2014), the empirical model supported a directional relationship from EELPSR to EPSR. Moreover, comparison with alternative structural specifications showed that this theoretically derived model provided the most appropriate representation of the data while yielding conclusions that remained robust across competing specifications. These findings provide empirical support for the proposition that responsible behaviors expressed in one moral domain may extend to conceptually related domains, reinforcing the idea that personal responsibility develops through mutually reinforcing patterns of behavior rather than isolated actions.

Figure 2. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with Moderating Effec



More importantly, the supported negative moderation effect shows that OC can function as a boundary condition in the PSR–EWB relationship. Specifically, our research enriches the roles of OC in the literature by showing that it not only remains positively associated with both PSR and EWB through the direct effect, but also that its negative moderation role should not be interpreted as evidence that OC is detrimental to workplace well-being. This finding highlights that the benefits of PSR for workplace well-being become less pronounced among employees who already exhibit high levels of OC, identifying OC as an important boundary condition in the PSR–EWB relationship. Through the lens of sustainable performance management and human resource management, our results provide empirical evidence that highly committed employees already derive substantial psychological benefits from their relationship with the organization, reducing the additional contribution of responsibility-oriented values to their workplace well-being (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017; Kramar, 2014). Still, among employees with lower OC, PSR may become a more important source of meaning, purpose, positive workplace experiences, and EWB. Thus, rather than indicating a contradiction, these findings suggest that responsibility-oriented values and OC operate as complementary resources whose relative importance varies across organizational contexts.

Finally, this study provides evidence from an organizational context that has received comparatively limited scholarly attention. Research on PSR has largely focused on consumers, entrepreneurs, and citizenship-related behaviors (Davis et al., 2021; Emami et al., 2026; Li & Kang, 2024; Păceșilă, 2018), while studies of OC have examined settings such as healthcare (Agegnehu et al., 2022), hospitality (Azdha et al., 2023), public organizations (Kim et al., 2017), and knowledge-intensive workplaces (Akhtar et al., 2025). Evidence from labor-intensive manufacturing environments, particularly Mexican maquiladoras, remains comparatively scarce. By examining employees in this setting, the study shows that responsibility-oriented values are positively associated with workplace well-being even under demanding production conditions marked by relatively low wages, operational pressure, and long working hours. The findings therefore identify PSR and OC as relevant resources for understanding EWB in challenging manufacturing environments and extend existing knowledge beyond the organizational and occupational contexts in which these relationships have traditionally been studied.

6. Contributions

6.1 Theoretical Contribution

This study makes several theoretical contributions to the literature. First, it extends Social Cognitive Theory, which explains human functioning through the reciprocal interaction of personal factors, behavior, and the social environment (Bandura, 1977, 1986). The positive relationship between OC and PSR indicates that employees' responsibility orientations are associated not only with personal values but also with their perceptions of their relationship with the organization. In the present study, OC is represented by continuance commitment, which reflects the perceived costs of leaving and the availability of alternative employment opportunities. The findings therefore suggest that employees who perceive stronger reasons to remain with an organization may become more attentive to the expectations, norms, and responsibilities embedded in their organizational environment. This interpretation is consistent with the Social Cognitive Theory proposition that individuals internalize contextual cues and incorporate them into their self-regulatory beliefs and conduct (Guo et al., 2025). The positive association between PSR and EWB further suggests that acting in accordance with personal responsibility values may enhance employees' well-being by reinforcing moral consistency, meaningful contribution, and a sense of purpose at work.

Second, the study contributes to sustained performance management theory by positioning PSR and EWB as interconnected elements of long-term organizational functioning. Performance management research has progressively moved beyond short-term performance appraisal and control toward broader systems that support employee motivation, development, well-being, and sustainable performance outcomes (DeNisi & Smith, 2014; DeNisi & Murphy, 2017). Consistent with this perspective, the positive associations of OC with both PSR and EWB indicate that employees' perceived relationship with the organization may contribute to responsibility-oriented conduct and favorable psychological outcomes. At the same time, the negative moderating effect of OC introduces an important boundary condition. The contribution of PSR to EWB becomes weaker as continuance commitment increases. Thus, remaining in an organization because leaving is perceived as costly may constrain the extent to which responsible conduct translates into greater well-being. This finding adds nuance to sustained performance management lens by showing that OC cannot be treated as uniformly beneficial. Its implications depend on the basis of commitment and on how it interacts with employees' personal resources and values.

In sum, the study extends current theory by showing that PSR operates as a positive personal resource, while its contribution to EWB depends partly on the OC context in which it is expressed. In particular, the findings indicate that continuance commitment may support responsibility-oriented attitudes and well-being directly, yet simultaneously weaken the extent to which PSR translates into greater EWB. This pattern offers a more differentiated understanding of the role of OC and highlights the importance of examining not only whether employees are committed, but also the basis on which that commitment is formed.

6.2 Managerial Implications

The findings provide valuable guidance for managers in manufacturing industries, particularly in emerging economies. Rather than only focusing exclusively on strengthening OC, managers should create workplace environments that align employees' personal responsibility values with organizational goals. This alignment can be encouraged by providing employees with opportunities to participate in meaningful social responsibility initiatives, including paid time for volunteering in environmental or community projects (Dong et al., 2024). Such initiatives can reinforce the connection between personal and organizational responsibility while allowing employees to experience their work as socially meaningful.

Managers should also balance extrinsic motivators, including economic incentives, performance bonuses, and profit-sharing schemes, with intrinsic drivers such as ethical alignment, purpose, autonomy, and personal growth (Liu et al., 2022). In labor-intensive manufacturing settings such as the one examined in this study, this balance could be supported through skill-development programs that strengthen technical competencies while incorporating social and environmental responsibility into employees' professional development. Ethical leadership workshops, sustainability-focused mentoring programs, and formal recognition of socially responsible conduct offer additional mechanisms for embedding PSR into organizational practices.

The negative moderating effect of continuance commitment indicates that retaining employees primarily through economic dependence, limited employment alternatives, or the perceived costs of leaving may reduce the extent to which responsible behavior contributes to their well-being. Managers should therefore distinguish between employee retention and genuinely positive organizational attachment. Retention strategies should be complemented by fair working conditions, opportunities for

advancement, employee participation, meaningful job design, and access to professional development. Open communication is also important, particularly in labor-intensive settings where employees may perceive inconsistencies between corporate responsibility statements and everyday workplace practices. Organizations should regularly communicate how their operations reflect their stated ethical, economic, and environmental commitments and provide employees with credible channels for expressing concerns. Annual sustainability and responsible labor reports that acknowledge both progress and continuing challenges could further strengthen organizational transparency, trust, and employee engagement (Tziner & Persoff, 2024).

These managerial implications also have broader relevance for the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The positive association between PSR and EWB supports the objectives of SDG 3, particularly the promotion of mental health and well-being. The findings are also relevant to SDG 8 by emphasizing the importance of workplace conditions that foster EWB, responsible conduct, and decent work. In particular, the results indicate that employee retention alone should not be interpreted as evidence of a healthy or supportive workplace. Employees who remain primarily because of the perceived costs of leaving may experience fewer well-being benefits from socially responsible behavior. Organizations seeking to advance SDG 8 should therefore complement retention strategies with meaningful work experiences, development opportunities, fair employment practices, and workplace environments that support both EWB and responsible conduct.

6.3 Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations that also provide directions for future research. First, the analysis focuses on employees from a single maquiladora in Mexico. Although this setting offers valuable evidence from a labor-intensive manufacturing environment that remains underrepresented in the literature, the contextual specificity of the sample may limit the generalizability of the findings to other organizations, industries, regions, and institutional environments. Future studies should replicate the model across multiple maquiladoras and compare the results with those obtained in other manufacturing and service sectors, as well as in countries with different labor market and cultural conditions. In addition, because the data were collected in 2022, the findings reflect the organizational and labor conditions prevailing at that time and should therefore be interpreted within that temporal context rather than as evidence of subsequent developments in Mexico's manufacturing environment.

Second, reciprocal relationships between PSR and OC remain theoretically possible, and the estimated associations may be affected by endogeneity. To assess this concern, the Durbin–Wu–Hausman procedure was applied, as reported in Appendix D, and the results provided no evidence of endogeneity in the EWB equation. Nevertheless, statistical procedures based on single-source, cross-sectional data cannot definitively rule out endogeneity or establish causal direction (Antonakis et al., 2010). The findings should therefore be interpreted as evidence of associations rather than definitive causal effects. Future research using longitudinal and cross-lagged designs could examine how PSR, OC, and EWB influence one another over time, while experimental or appropriately instrumented designs would offer stronger evidence regarding causality.

Third, OC was operationalized through the continuance commitment dimension, in accordance with the validated measurement model adopted in this study. The findings should consequently be interpreted as pertaining specifically to employees' perceived costs of leaving the organization and the availability of employment alternatives, rather than to the broader multidimensional construct of OC. This distinction is particularly important when interpreting both the positive direct associations and the negative

moderating effect identified in the analysis. Future studies should continue evaluating the measurement of OC across cultural and occupational contexts, including the Mexican maquiladora industry, and examine whether affective, normative, and continuance commitment exert differential effects on PSR and EWB in contexts where the multidimensional structure of OC can be fully retained.

Fourth, organizational CSR policies and practices were outside the scope of the study. The analysis therefore captures employees' personal responsibility orientations without simultaneously examining the formal responsibility practices of the organization. Future multilevel research should measure PSR and organizational CSR together to determine whether consistency between employees' personal values and organizational practices strengthens EWB. Such studies could also examine whether organizational CSR mitigates the weaker association between PSR and EWB observed when continuance commitment is high.

Finally, the study identified an alternative dimensional structure of PSR in which ethical, legal, and economic responsibilities converged into a common factor, while environmental responsibility emerged as a distinct dimension. This structure may reflect the characteristics of the sample, the labor-intensive manufacturing setting, or the broader cultural and institutional context in which the study was conducted. Further research should test the stability of this structure across organizations, industries, countries, and occupational groups. Comparative studies could help determine whether the observed configuration is specific to Mexican maquiladoras or represents a more general way in which employees conceptualize PSR in workplace settings.

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According to the ethics guidelines of authors' university, anonymous and voluntary surveys that do not collect identifiable information do not require formal ethics review. All participants provided informed consent and were informed of the study's purpose, voluntary participation, anonymity, and exclusive academic use of their data. The study complies with national and institutional standards for research with human participants.

Data Availability Statement

The data supporting the findings of this study are not publicly available due to confidentiality restrictions established with the participating organization. As part of the agreement governing data collection, the researchers committed to maintaining the confidentiality of the information provided and to not distributing the collected data to third parties. Therefore, the dataset cannot be shared publicly in accordance with these confidentiality obligations.

Ethics Statement

This study was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards and guidelines of the authors' institution. Under institutional guidelines, anonymous and voluntary survey research that does not collect personally identifiable information does not require formal ethics committee review. Participation was voluntary, and all participants provided informed consent prior to completing the survey. Participants were informed of the purpose of the study, the anonymous and confidential nature of their responses, and the exclusive academic use of the data. No supervisors or managers had access to individual responses. The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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The author(s) strictly adhered to academic norms in the process of using AI tools for manuscript preparation. No AI tools were employed to generate the content of the manuscript; AI was used solely for linguistic editing and proofreading. The author(s) have not engaged in any practices that violate academic ethics, including plagiarism, data forgery, or result falsification.

Appendix A: Pilot procedure

The instrument was piloted with 213 master's students employed across a range of firms. Seven incomplete questionnaires were excluded, leaving an analytic sample of 206 cases. The pilot questionnaire included the 24 organizational commitment items (eight per dimension: continuance, co1–co8; affective, co9–co16; normative, co17–co24), together with the responsibility (rs1–rs14) and well-being (bl1–bl6) scales.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed for each subscale (with reverse-worded items recoded: co4, co12, co13, co14, and co16), followed by an unrestricted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the full instrument with varimax rotation, an EFA forced to three factors restricted to the 24 commitment items, and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the three-factor model estimated by maximum likelihood (standardized solution).

Table A.1. Reliability of the commitment subscales in the pilot (n = 206)

Subscale	Items	k	α	Eigenvalue	Cumulative Variance
Continuance commitment	co1–co8	8	.6477	2.9116	0.3640
Affective commitment	co9–co16	8	.7434	3.1157	0.3895
Normative commitment	co17–co24	8	.7685	3.2623	0.4078
Retained continuance items	co1–co5	5	.6505	2.1650	0.4325

Table A.2. Unrestricted EFA of the full instrument (varimax rotation)

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Uniqueness
bl1		0.7629					0.3506
bl2		0.8567					0.1604
bl3		0.8663					0.2140
bl4		0.8084					0.2575
bl5		0.7873					0.2940
bl6		0.7577					0.3356
rs1	0.7359						0.3389
rs2	0.8367						0.1460
rsp3	0.7542						0.1662
rsp4	0.8055						0.1510
rsp5	0.9091						0.1207
rsp6	0.9315						0.0707

(Table A2. continued)

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Uniqueness
rsp7	0.9096						0.1266
rsp8	0.8399						0.2294
rsp9	0.9485						0.0454
rsp10	0.9476						0.0527
rsp11	0.9297						0.0747
rsp12	0.7775						0.2865
rsp13	0.7944						0.2778
rsp14	0.7459						0.3244
co1						0.6149	0.5311
co2			0.6473				0.4145
co3			0.6098				0.3638
co4						0.6952	0.3184
co5			0.5750				0.3891
co6							0.4071
co7							0.4586
co8							0.5633
co9			0.5484				0.3209
co10							0.2494
co11			0.5853				0.4247
co12							0.5250
co13				0.6356			0.4919
co14				0.8035			0.2909
co15			0.5571				0.2068
co16				0.7895			0.2660
co17							0.4434
co18							0.5635
co19					0.6651		0.4313
co20					0.7160		0.3331
co21							0.4836
co22						0.6381	
co23							
co24							

Note. Only loadings ≥ .50 are shown. Extracted factors 7–10 had no loadings ≥ .50 and are omitted from the table.

Table A.3. Three-factor forced EFA of the commitment scale (co1–co24, varimax rotation)

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Uniqueness
co1			.5599	.6188
co2	.5873			.5269
co3	.5482			.4572
co4			.6810	.3614
co5	.6572			.4654
co6	.6862			.4887
co7		.5161		.6376
co8				.6624
co9	.7529			.3949
co10	.7727			.3154
co11	.6394			.5819
co12		.5252		.6367
co13		.6825		.5341
co14		.8059		.3262
co15	.8479			.2718
co16		.8102		.2957
co17	.6069			.5359
co18				.7090
co19				.6674
co20	.6276			.5660
co21				.7415
co22	.6397			.5604
co23				.6621
co24				.6306

Note. Only loadings ≥ .50 are shown.

Table A.4. CFA of the three-factor model: standardized loadings and factor correlations (n = 206)

Item	Standardized loading	*z*	*p*
Continuance commitment			
co1	.08	0.99	.322
co2	.64	13.38	< .001
co3	.67	14.03	< .001
co4	.03	0.35	.728

(Table A2. continued)

Item	Standardized loading	*z*	*p*
co5	.74	18.78	< .001
co6	.61	11.49	< .001
co7	.44	6.93	< .001
co8	.57	10.70	< .001
Affective commitment			
co9	.75	20.83	< .001
co10	.81	26.81	< .001
co11	.66	15.29	< .001
co12	.28	4.08	< .001
co13	−.02	−0.21	.837
co14	−.16	−2.25	.024
co15	.89	39.94	< .001
co16	−.20	−2.76	.006
Normative commitment			
co17	.62	11.85	< .001
co18	.14	1.86	.062
co19	.67	14.54	< .001
co20	.76	19.49	< .001
co21	.55	10.06	< .001
co22	.75	19.33	< .001
co23	.55	10.15	< .001
co24	.35	5.09	< .001
Factor correlations			
Continuance ↔ Affective	.81	19.29	< .001
Continuance ↔ Normative	.81	17.12	< .001

Global fit of the three-factor model was poor on every index: $\chi^2(249) = 1248.28$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .140 (90% CI [.132, .147], p close < .001); CFI = .566; TLI = .519; SRMR = .152 all outside conventional thresholds (RMSEA ≤ .08; CFI and TLI ≥ .90; SRMR ≤ .08). Nine of the 24 items showed standardized loadings below .50 (co1, co4, co7, co12, co13, co14, co16, co18, and co24), with null or negative loadings concentrated among the reverse-worded items (co13, co14, and co16). In the unstandardized solution, the variance of the continuance factor was virtually null (.011, 95% CI [.0002, .587]), indicative of a degenerate solution. Factor correlations (.68–.81) approached or exceeded the .80 threshold, further signaling a lack of discriminant validity among the three dimensions.

In sum, the pilot evidence shows that the responsibility and well-being scales reproduced their intended structures (loadings of .74–.95 and .76–.87, respectively), whereas the commitment scale did not: in the unrestricted EFA, ten of the 24 items (co6, co7, co8, co10, co12, co17, co18, co21, co23, and co24) failed to reach loadings ≥ .50 on any factor, and in the forced solution the factors organized by wording a reverse-worded item factor (co12, co13, co14, co16) rather than by content, with items from all three subscales mixed on the first factor. The exclusion of the affective and normative dimensions was therefore not driven by reliability (their alphas were acceptable: .74 and .77) but by factorial validity: the subscales were internally consistent yet unable to discriminate the intended constructs in this population. The five continuance items forming a coherent core were retained (co1–co5; pilot α = .651) and administered in the main study; after measurement-model purification in the focal sample, the final continuance measure comprised three items (α = .784).

Appendix B: The link between EELPSR and EPSR

To evaluate the specification of the link between economic, ethical, legal personal social responsibility (EELPSR) and environmental personal social responsibility (EPSR), three rival models were compared on the final sample and the purified set of 21 indicators (N = 236): M1, with no link between the two constructs (and the EPSR–CC covariance fixed at zero, so that the environmental dimension is genuinely disconnected from the system); M2, with the reversed direction (EPSR → EELPSR, with the EPSR-CC covariance free); and M3, the proposed specification (EELPSR → EPSR). The three specifications share an identical measurement model (EELPSR: rsp5–rsp12, rsp14; EPSR: rsp2–rsp4; CC: co2–co4; EWB: (bl1–bl6) and the structural paths EELPSR → EWB, CC → EWB, and CC → EELPSR; they differ only in the EELPSR–EPSR link. Notably, the PSR instrument's items are predominantly self-reported behaviors and consumption choices in the environmental and economic dimensions, legal compliance, and everyday ethical conduct, which makes the behavioral spillover logic underlying the evaluated specification directly applicable.

Table B.1. Fit indices of the three specifications (N = 236)

Model	χ^2 (df)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
M1: no EELPSR–EPSR link	590.59 (186)	.878	.862	.095	.170	12221.31	12451.31
M2: reversed (EPSR → EELPSR)	481.67 (184)	.910	.897	.082	.060	12116.38	12353.35
M3: proposed (EELPSR → EPSR)	481.67 (185)	.910	.898	.082	.060	12114.39	12347.87

Note. Maximum likelihood estimation (Stata, sem; estat gof, stats(all)). The three models form a nested chain (M1⊂ M3 ⊂ M2 66, 67, and 68 parameters respectively); M1 is obtained by fixing the EELPSR-EPSR link at zero, and M2 by additionally freeing the EPSR-CC covariance, saturates the structural part among the latent constructs. The chi-square difference tests decisively reject M1 (M3 vs. M1 $\Delta\chi^2(1)$= 108.92, $p < .001$) and do not reject the restriction M3 imposes relative to M2 ($\Delta\chi^2(1)$) ≈ 0.00, n.s.): the EELPSR→ EPSR direction reproduces the fit of the saturated structure with one fewer parameter, and both information criteria favor it (ΔAIC = 2.0; ΔBIC = 5.5). M3 is the specification retained in the manuscript.

Table B.2. Structural coefficients (unstandardized) across the three specifications

Path	M1	M2	M3
EELPSR → EWB	.358 (p < .001)	.351 (p < .001)	.351 (p < .001)
CC → EWB	.154 (p = .012)	.154 (p = .012)	.154 (p = .012)
CC → EELPSR	.371 (p < .001)	.226 (p < .001)	.375 (p < .001)
EPSR → EELPSR	—	.623 (p < .001)	—
EELPSR → EPSR	—	—	.642 (p < .001)

Note. In the retained model (M3), standardized coefficients were: EELPSR → EPSR, β = .668 (z = 15.42); CC → EELPSR, β = .415 (z = 6.57); EELPSR → EWB, β = .401 (z = 6.14); CC → EWB, β = .195 (p = .009).

The comparison yields three readings. First, M1 collapses (SRMR = .170; CFI = .878), and the nested test formally rejects it ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 108.92$, $p < .001$), indicating that the environmental dimension can be neither omitted from the system nor treated as an isolated component. Second, M2 and M3 achieve identical fit ($\chi^2 = 481.67$; CFI = .910; RMSEA = .082; SRMR = .060), and the difference test does not reject M3's overidentifying restriction ($\Delta\chi^2(1) \approx 0.00$): the proposed direction reproduces the fit of the saturated structure with one fewer parameter and is favored by both information criteria (ΔAIC = 2.0; ΔBIC = 5.5). Because equivalent fit does not by itself establish causal direction, the EELPSR → EPSR additionally rests on the logic of behavioral spillover: performing responsible behaviors in one domain increases the likelihood of related behaviors in domains perceived as similar, through self-consistency and identity processes (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2003; Truelove et al., 2014; Nilsson et al., 2017). Two conditions favor spillover in this case: the high perceived similarity between dimensions of a single responsibility construct (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2003) and the role of moral identity as a disposition that generalizes across domains (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Mullen & Monin, 2016), so that responsibility exercised in the economic, ethical, and legal core would tend to extend to the environmental domain, rather than the reverse. Third, the well-being equation coefficients are stable across the three specifications (EELPSR → EWB between .351 and .358; CC → EWB = .154, p = .012 in all three), so the study's conclusions do not hinge on the specification of the link; the CC→EELPSR path, by contrast, varies with the specification, as expected (.371 in M1; .226 in M2, where EPSR enters as an additional predictor and shares variance; .375 in M3). In the retained model, the EELPSR → EPSR link was substantial (b = .642, z = 8.47; in the standardized solution, β = .668, z = 15.42). We acknowledge that the RMSEA (.082, 90% CI [.073, .091]) marginally exceeds the conventional .08 threshold.

Note on the moderating effect. The comparison was conducted on the main-effects structural model, holding the rest of the specification constant. The moderating effect of CC on the EELPSR–EWB relationship (H4) was estimated separately the interaction term was constructed from centered factor scores of EELPSR and CC and entered the model as an observed regressor, as the estimation of interactions between latent variables is not implemented in the Stata sem command employed a limitation of the software, not of the structural equation framework. The retained specification is robust to the inclusion of the moderation: in the model incorporating the interaction term, the EELPSR → EPSR link remains at β = .67, identical to that of the main-effects model. In that model, the interaction term was negative and significant (b = −.247, z = −2.65, p = .008; β = −.30 in the standardized solution displayed in the manuscript figure), and its re-estimation via the two-stage factor-score approach yielded convergent results (β = −.263, z = −2.91, p = .004).

Appendix C: Procedural remedies

Procedural remedies to mitigate common method variance were adopted at the design stage: participation was anonymous and voluntary, the scales were presented in clearly delimited sections of the questionnaire, and a unified response format was used. In addition, three post hoc statistical checks were conducted on the final sample (N = 236): a single-factor confirmatory factor analysis contrasted with the four-factor measurement model (EWB, CC, EELPSR, and EPSR), an examination of the latent factor correlations, and the estimation of an unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC).

Table C.1. Single-factor CFA vs. four-factor measurement model (N = 236)

Model	χ^2 (df)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
Single factor (all indicators)	1331.92 (189)	.655	.617	.158	.120	12956.64	13176.18
Four factors (EWB, CC, EELPSR, EPSR)	480.10 (183)	.910	.897	.082	.060	12116.82	12357.27

Note. Maximum likelihood estimation (Stata, sem; estat gof, stats(all)). The models are nested (the single-factor model equals the four-factor model with interfactor correlations fixed at 1): $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 851.82$, $p < .001$, decisively rejects the single-factor model. If a common source of variance dominated the responses, the single-factor model would show at least acceptable fit; its collapse (ΔCFI = .26; RMSEA nearly doubles; ΔAIC ≈ 840) is incompatible with that hypothesis.

Table C.2. Latent factor correlations (four-factor measurement model)

Construct pair	r
EELPSR ↔ EPSR	.67
EWB ↔ EELPSR	.48
CC ↔ EELPSR	.42
EWB ↔ CC	.36
CC ↔ EPSR	.28
EWB ↔ EPSR	.26

Note. All correlations are significant ($p < .001$) and below the .85 threshold associated with discriminant validity concerns. The pattern from .26 to .67, with the highest correlation between the two responsibility dimensions is incompatible with the uniform inflation a dominant method factor would produce.

As a third check, a ULMC model was estimated: the four-factor measurement model plus a latent method factor, orthogonal to the substantive factors, with loadings constrained to equality across the 21 indicators. The solution was empirically unidentified: the method factor loading was non-significant (b = 1.30, SE = 182.86, z = 0.01, p = .994) and the method factor variance showed an essentially unbounded confidence interval, together with degenerate standard errors on several parameters. This result provides no evidence of a substantive method factor, but neither does it yield a stable estimate of its magnitude behavior consistent with the documented limitations of the technique.

Therefore, the evidence converges that the single-factor model collapses, the latent correlations are moderate and differentiated, and the ULMC detects no estimable method factor. Moreover, the study's

central effect includes a significant interaction (H4): common method variance tends to attenuate interaction effects rather than create them (Siemsen et al., 2010), so the observed moderation cannot be attributed to such bias. We nonetheless acknowledge that the single-source, cross-sectional design cannot fully rule out common method variance, and the negative skew of EWB and CC is discussed in the body of the manuscript in relation to the administration conditions.

Appendix D: Durbin–Wu–Hausman procedure

Endogeneity reverse causality, omitted variables, or correlated measurement error is a central threat to inference in management research based on observational data (Antonakis et al., 2010; Semadeni et al., 2014). To assess it in the well-being (EWB) equation, the Durbin–Wu–Hausman procedure was applied (Durbin, 1954; Wu, 1973; Hausman, 1978), which contrasts ordinary least squares estimates against instrumental-variable estimates: under exogeneity both are consistent and should coincide, whereas under endogeneity only the instrumental estimate is (Semykina & Wooldridge, 2010). The procedure was applied to the factor scores derived from the retained model, with continuance commitment (CC) as an exogenous covariate.

Instrument selection followed the two classical conditions (Semykina & Wooldridge, 2010; Semadeni et al., 2014). First, relevance: the instrument must be associated with the potentially endogenous regressor (EELPSR); this condition is empirically verifiable and was tested through bivariate correlations and the first stage excluded-instruments F test. Second, the exclusion restriction: the instrument must affect well-being only through EELPSR, with no direct channel of its own; this condition cannot be directly verified with the data it rests on theoretical argument and, with the model overidentified, is partially testable via the Sargan (1958) and Basmann (1960) tests. The available sociodemographic candidates were screened against this double filter. Gender and age were discarded for empirical irrelevance ($r = -.001$, $p = .986$ and $r = .09$, $p = .157$, respectively): an instrument unrelated to the regressor contributes no identification. Marital status, despite passing relevance ($r = -.16$, $p = .014$), was discarded for violating the exclusion restriction: partnership status directly affects subjective well-being regardless of a person's level of responsibility, opening a direct channel that invalidates the instrument; income was discarded for the same reason. Work experience ($r = .21$, $p = .001$) and educational attainment ($r = .19$, $p = .004$) passed both conditions: they are significantly associated with personal social responsibility career trajectory and education shape responsibility attitudes and lack a plausible direct channel to workplace well-being once those attitudes are formed. In operational terms: among employees with identical levels of EELPSR (and CC), neither years of experience nor schooling, by themselves, should alter well-being. The overidentification tests ($p = .998$) were consistent with this reasoning.

Table D.1. OLS vs. 2SLS estimates of the well-being equation (factor scores, N = 236)

Parameter	OLS	2SLS (IV)
EELPSR → EWB	.352 (.053), p < .001	.406 (.175), p = .020
CC → EWB	.186 (.051), p < .001	.162 (.092), p = .078
R^2	.303	.300
N	236	236

Note. Standard errors in parentheses. Instrumented variable: EELPSR; excluded instruments: work experience and educational attainment.

Table D.2. Procedure diagnostics

Test	Criterion	Statistic	p
Relevance: excluded-instruments F (first stage)	F ≥ 10 (Staiger & Stock, 1997)	F (2, 237) = 11.62	< .001
Endogeneity: Durbin (score)	H_0: exogeneity; retained if p > .05 (Durbin, 1954)	$\chi^2(1) = 0.104$	.748
Endogeneity: Wu–Hausman	H_0: exogeneity; retained if p > .05 (Wu, 1973; Hausman, 1978)	F(1, 237) = 0.102	.750
Overidentification: Sargan	H_0: valid instruments; retained if p > .05 (Sargan, 1958)	$\chi^2(1) < 0.001$	.998
Overidentification: Basmann	H_0: valid instruments; retained if p > .05 (Basmann, 1960)	$\chi^2(1) < 0.001$	.998

Note. First stage: experience (t = 3.54) and education (t = 2.04), with CC as covariate. The joint F exceeds the threshold of 10 proposed by Staiger and Stock (1997) to rule out weak instruments (see also Stock & Yogo, 2005).

The results provide no evidence of endogeneity: neither the Durbin nor the Wu–Hausman statistic rejects the null hypothesis of exogeneity (p ≈ .75); the instruments are relevant under the Staiger and Stock (1997) criterion and valid according to the Sargan (1958) and Basmann (1960) overidentification tests; and the instrumented EELPSR coefficient (.406) is close to the OLS estimate (.352) and remains significant precisely the pattern expected under exogeneity, as both estimators converge to the same parameter (Semykina & Wooldridge, 2010). The model's inference is therefore robust to this check. This result complements the specification comparison in Appendix B: the direction of the link between the responsibility constructs rests on theory and parsimony, and the central EELPSR-EWB relationship shows no signs of endogeneity bias.

As a limit, and in line with Antonakis et al. (2010), we acknowledge that no test on single source, cross-sectional data can rule out endogeneity definitively; the result should be read as an absence of evidence against the specification employed.

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