



The impact of CSR on casino employees' organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation: An empirical examination of responsible gambling strategies

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ABSTRACT

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has emerged as a critical philosophy and a strategy that affects both internal (i.e., employee) and external (i.e., customer) attitudes. The importance of CSR extends to the casino industry, especially when it pertains to compulsory and supplementary responsible gambling (RG) strategies. To this end, this study surveys casino employees in South Korea to examine the impact of CSR on casino employees' organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation. Results indicate that legal CSR and supplementary RG have a positive effect on organizational trust, whereas compulsory RG strategies have a negative effect on organizational trust. Also, it appears that organizational trust positively influences job satisfaction, which in turn has a positive effect on customer orientation. In building off of these findings, this study provides practical implications for casino managers when implementing CSR and RG strategies.

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1. Introduction

During recent years, corporate social responsibility (CSR) has become a critical consideration for businesses and academics alike. Today, many companies consider CSR an important corporate strategy for achieving a competitive advantage (Kim et al., 2012; Weber, 2008). According to stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984), CSR strategies benefit a company or organization by satisfying major interests of the company's various stakeholders (which include consumers, employees, government, and shareholders). Hence, investigating the effects of CSR strategies on stakeholder attitudes constitutes a worthy direction for academic research.

According to Carroll's (1979) social performance model, CSR contains four dimensions: economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic. The economic dimension refers to a company's economic obligations to stakeholders (e.g., to be profitable), while the legal

dimension relates to the legal compliance required of companies. The ethical dimension refers to expected activities a company performs as a member of society – excluding those which are legally bound by statutes. Finally, the philanthropic dimension addresses companies' voluntary activities to improve human welfare (e.g., donations and volunteerism) (Carroll, 1979).

While much of the CSR research focuses on the relationship between CSR activities and external customers (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Kang et al., 2010; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Lee and Park, 2009), relatively few studies examine the impact of CSR from the perspective of employees as *internal* customers (Chiang, 2010; Lee et al., *in press*). This is unfortunate, as employees are not only a major stakeholder group (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001), but they also play a crucial interactive, frontline role in affecting customers' experiences in hospitality settings (Dawson and Abbott, 2009). Within this context, creating and maintaining long-term company value depend heavily upon fulfilling employees' expectations (Hillman and Keim, 2001).

What is more, a company can achieve a sustainable competitive advantage when they retain highly skilled employees, and CSR can contribute positively to retention (Lado and Wilson, 1994; Wright et al., 1995). For instance, Chiang (2010) asserted that CSR is a useful strategy for efficiently managing human resources by improving organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation. According to Tuzzolino and Armandi (1981), management can

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instill positive attitudes toward work, encourage greater productivity, and improve customer interactions by satisfying employees' expectations for company's CSR activities.

Although CSR typically incorporates the four dimensions outlined by Carroll (1979), unique characteristics of a given industry can affect appropriate manifestations of CSR. Casino companies, for instance, possess some idiosyncratic characteristics when it comes to CSR: they generate positive socio-economic impacts, but they also can contribute to negative impacts due to the challenges posed by problem gambling (Lee et al., 2009). To minimize negative social impacts associated with problem gambling, many casino companies have implemented responsible gambling (RG) strategies, including employee training, self-exclusion, and/or self-limitation policies (Song et al., 2012a). Hence RG strategies often fit within a broader CSR strategy for casino companies, which typically require community (and government) approval to operate in the first place. As a result, we might argue that CSR (and RG) approaches take on additional importance in the gaming industry, as other hospitality industries (indeed, other industries) do not require such an explicit and rigorously investigated license to operate.

Although research on RG has been done in the past (e.g., Blaszczynski et al., 2004; Hing, 2004; McCain et al., 2009; Monaghan, 2009; Song et al., 2012a), relatively little research has explored how the dynamics of broader CSR strategies including RG affect casino employees.

This article addresses this shortcoming by investigating the impact of CSR and RG strategies on organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation from the perspective of casino employees. To accomplish this objective, this study adopts multi-dimensional measurements of CSR based on Carroll's social performance framework (Carroll, 1979), as well as a distinctive measurement of RG based on Song et al.'s approach (2012a). The results of this study will shed light on the most relevant and influential dimensions of CSR, as well as the impact of these dimensions on casino employees' attitudes toward their organization and customers.

2. Literature review

2.1. CSR and RG

In an apt early description, Bowen (1953, p. 6) defined social responsibilities as "the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, make those decisions, or follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society." This has since been conceptualized and operationalized in corporate settings as corporate social responsibility, or CSR, which encompasses economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic dimensions (Carroll, 1979).

Luo and Bhattacharya (2006) asserted that CSR enjoys a high profile because of its strategic importance to many companies in the competitive environment of today's service markets. For instance, a company with an excellent CSR reputation, by contributing to reducing conflicts between business and society, delivers a strong and positive image to its stakeholders, which consequently affects these stakeholders' perceptions of various organizational actions (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Montgomery and Ramus, 2003). Of course, as one of the major stakeholder groups for a company, employees play a crucial role in strengthening a company's competitive advantages (Hillman and Keim, 2001). More germane to our study, in the hospitality industry, employees play an obvious role as a bridge between the company and its customers (Dawson and Abbott, 2009).

According to social identity theory, people tend to classify themselves and others into various categories, and perceived identity within each categorized group in turn influences each member's

self-concept (Peterson, 2004). For instance, if employees of a company recognize themselves as members of a better company when compared with others, this recognition enhances self-esteem and has a positive effect on attitudes toward the organization to which they belong (Smith et al., 2001). When we apply this theory to the CSR context, it makes sense that a company's participation in CSR activities may lead employees to develop positive perceptions about the company. Subsequently, when employees form positive attitudes toward work, competitive advantages can be realized (Dawson and Abbott, 2009; Lee et al., in press; Turban and Greening, 1996). Put another way, a company's CSR participation, recognized by employees, influences employee perceptions of their work environments (e.g., organizational trust). In turn, these perceptions likely affect job satisfaction and customer orientation, which would seem to translate into significant competitive advantages in the marketplace.

Within the scholarly literature on gaming, as the RG concept has grown in importance, many scholars have sought to define it more clearly. For instance, Hing (2004) defines RG as a strategy or policy that is designed to minimize the harmful effects from gambling activities on both customers and the community. Similarly, Monaghan (2009) defines RG as a strategy, action, or policy taken by casino operators in order to minimize the adverse impacts of gambling on casino visitors while simultaneously providing benefits to the local community (Monaghan, 2009). Blaszczynski et al. (2004) define RG as a strategy that is aimed to prevent and reduce the potential risks from excessive gambling activities, while Song et al. (2012b) define RG as a unique CSR strategy intended to minimize negative impacts associated with problem gambling. In building upon these kinds of definitions, Blaszczynski et al. (2011) suggest several features of responsible gambling programs: public education, staff training programs, information on help-lines for treatment programs, underage gambling restrictions, and self-exclusion programs, among others. For our purposes in this paper, we define RG as a strategy or policy that can minimize negative social and/or community impacts associated with gambling activities.

In the gaming industry, these strategies can have measurable impacts. Giroux et al. (2008) investigated the impact of an RG training program on casino employees, finding that the program helped casino employees better understand gambling problems – and also led to enhanced understanding of their role in helping problem gamblers. Similarly, LaPlante et al. (2012) conducted a pre- and post-test study of U.S. casino employees and found measurable increases in their responsible gaming knowledge. In a pioneering Australian study that examined employee identification of customers with gambling problems, Delfabbro et al. (2012) found that employees rated customers' problematic gambling behaviors somewhat accurately – but not accurately enough that this type of problem gambler identification was deemed appropriate in the venue. Finally, McCain et al. (2009) conducted a survey on how employees implemented RG initiatives, and found that personal perceptions of RG and the ethical climate in the workplace positively influence implementation of RG practices.

2.2. Organizational trust

Trust can be defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712). Bhattacharya et al. (1998, p. 462) define trust as the "expectancy of positive (or nonnegative) outcomes that one can receive based on the expected action of another party in an interaction characterized by uncertainty." Building upon these definitions of trust, Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000, p. 37) establish

organizational trust as the “expectations individuals have about networks of organizational relationships and behaviors.”

Researchers have found that organizational trust, as an essential factor in promoting cooperation within organizations, leads to improved behavioral and performance outcomes (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Kramer, 1999) and maintenance of long-term employee-customer relationships (Berry, 1995). Woodman and Sherwood (1980) suggest that a high level of organizational trust leads to better team processes and performances. Unfortunately, however, Chathoth et al. (2011) note that relatively little of this research work on organizational trust has been applied to hospitality settings.

2.3. Job satisfaction

An early definition of job satisfaction held that it referred to “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Subsequent research found that satisfaction can be a pivotal variable that impacts employees’ behavioral intentions (Cronin et al., 2000), and hence, job satisfaction is a commonly used construct in the study of organizational behavior (Lee et al., in press). In general, satisfied employees tend to be more customer-oriented (Lee et al., in press) and thus deliver better service to customers, leading to higher levels of customer satisfaction (Heskett et al., 1994).

2.4. Customer orientation

In the research literature, customer orientation is defined as “an employee’s tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context” (Brown et al., 2002, p. 111). These “predispositions” can be important, as previous studies have found a positive relationship between employees’ attitudes and customers’ evaluations of satisfaction and loyalty. Specifically, Brady and Cronin (2001) asserted that customer orientation directly relates to customers’ evaluations of employees’ performing services, while Chow et al. (2006) insisted that customer orientation is an essential feature of strong service quality. Hence, it seems that creating a customer-oriented business culture is important for successful operations in an increasingly competitive service-oriented market (Athanasopoulos, 2000).

2.5. Relationships among CSR, RG, and organizational trust

Previous studies have examined the impact of CSR on consumers (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006), but not many have investigated the effect of CSR on employees’ attitudes, especially from the perspective of internal marketing (Chiang, 2010; Lee et al., in press). Employees’ perceptions of CSR are likely to have a positive effect on organizational trust because CSR activities elevate employees’ self-image and morale by helping align personal identities with those of the corporation (Lee et al., in press).

In the theoretical literature, social identity theory suggests that employees and other stakeholders are more likely to have positive perceptions of an organization when they feel connected to its objectives (Peterson, 2004). To this end, CSR strategies can positively enhance the perceptions that employees have of their own organization (Brown and Dacin, 1997), and stakeholders tend to trust companies that recognize and resolve social problems in an ethical manner (Hosmer, 1995). Further, Vlachos et al. (2010) identified a positive relationship between salespersons’ perceptions of their company’s CSR activities and organizational trust. In the hospitality literature, one recent study found that multiple dimensions of CSR have significant, positive effects on employees’ (i.e., internal customers) organizational trust (Lee et al., in press).

In this paper, we seek to apply these same dynamics to assess their applicability in the gaming industry. To examine these relationships, the current study adopts three of Carroll’s dimensions of CSR (economic, legal, and philanthropic), and substitutes RG constructs for Carroll’s ethical dimension. In applying these dimensions to a gaming setting, we rely upon Hing’s (2004) bifurcated conceptualization of RG as voluntary or legislated, which is similar to Song et al.’s (2012b) conceptualization of RG practices as either supplementary or compulsory. Both distinguish between forceful responsible gambling strategies that tend to be legislated or regulated, and additional or voluntary RG strategies that are not government-mandated.

To illustrate, compulsory RG practices might include government restrictions on resident access to casinos (e.g., in South Korea, residents are limited to 15 casino visits per month), mandatory identification requirements to identify minors and restricted patrons, or mandatory closures for certain hours during the day. On the other hand, supplementary RG goes beyond that which is required by law or regulation, and is typically designed and implemented by the gaming business itself.

Specifically, this study posits that CSR and RG are positively associated with casino employees’ organizational trust as follows.

- H₁**. CSR and RG positively influence organizational trust.
- H_{1a}**. Economic CSR positively influences organizational trust.
- H_{1b}**. Legal CSR positively influences organizational trust.
- H_{1c}**. Philanthropic CSR positively influences organizational trust.
- H_{1d}**. Compulsory RG positively influences organizational trust.
- H_{1e}**. Supplementary RG positively influences organizational trust.

2.6. Relationship between organizational trust and job satisfaction

Many studies have investigated the relationship between organizational trust and job satisfaction and concluded that a close relationship exists between them (e.g., Driscoll, 1978; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000), but two divergent viewpoints emerge from this literature. Proponents of the first viewpoint insist that trust arises from repeated satisfaction, as the result of accumulated satisfactory experiences (Horppu et al., 2008; Moliner et al., 2007). For instance, Horppu et al. (2008) found that it is the repeated experience of satisfaction in an online environment that determines trust. Proponents of the second viewpoint, meanwhile, maintain that trust is an antecedent of satisfaction; in this view, various marketing sources (i.e., advertising, word-of-mouth, and other marketing communication messages) first form trust, which then affects satisfaction levels (Lee et al., in press; Liu et al., 2010). In making further distinctions, Ratnasingham (1998) concluded that trust is associated with satisfied customers in electronic commerce settings, and Shim et al. (2008) suggest that customers’ trust in a given transaction affects their post-purchase satisfaction.

Internally, in organizational settings, trust also seems to increase satisfaction (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). For example, when internal marketing tools engender organizational trust, employees are more likely to perceive that their organization will protect them and secure their jobs based on that trust, and this subsequently increases employees’ satisfaction with the organization (Chiou and Pan, 2009; Lee et al., in press; Liu et al., 2010). Most relevant for our purposes, Lee et al. (in press) applied this viewpoint to the CSR context for hospitality employees, finding that employees with greater trust in the organization felt safer and happier in their jobs. This finding indicates that trust has a positive impact on the quality of experiences within the organization, and that this could positively affect employees’ judgments of the organization (Chiou and Pan,

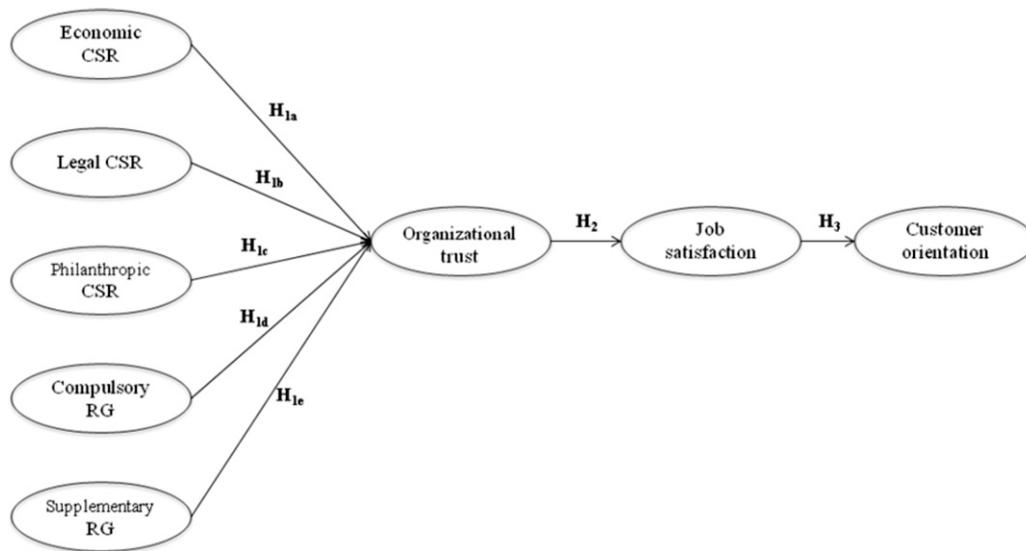


Fig. 1. Proposed model.

2009; Liu et al., 2010). Hence, the current study explores the second view, positing that trust affects job satisfaction in the casino industry.

H₂. Organizational trust positively influences job satisfaction.

2.7. Relationship between job satisfaction and customer orientation

The relationship between job satisfaction and customer orientation has been explored in several studies (e.g., Donovan et al., 2004; Hoffman and Ingram, 1992; Pettijohn et al., 2007). Results indicated that higher levels of job satisfaction encourage employees to have higher degrees of customer orientation (Pettijohn et al., 2007). This finding is grounded in the theoretical literature: social exchange theory proposes that individuals engage in reciprocal behaviors and support those from whom they benefit, and Hoffman and Ingram (1992) apply this to the workplace in finding that job satisfaction positively correlates with customer-oriented behavior. In addition, it seems job satisfaction is associated with kinder behavioral attitudes toward customers (Motowidlo, 1984). Thus, the current study posits that job satisfaction will positively affect customer orientation in the casino industry.

H₃. Job satisfaction positively influences customer orientation.

Based on these hypotheses, this study develops a research model shown in Fig. 1.

3. Methodology

3.1. Study site

Kangwon Land Casino, the only legal casino for domestic customers in South Korea, opened in October 2000 and currently offers 132 table games and 960 slot machines (Lee, 2008). Moreover, the broader amenities at Kangwon Land property include 18 ski slopes, an 18-hole golf course, three hotels, and three condominiums. In 2010, visitors to Kangwon Land totaled about 3.1 million, and contributed casino revenues of approximately US\$1.14 billion. The property currently has 1757 full-time employees (Kangwon Land, 2012). Befitting its status as the nation's only casino catering to the resident population, Kangwon Land has implemented

a multi-faceted RG strategy, including a self-exclusion program and limitations on access (local residents from Kangwon province are only allowed to visit once per month, while the rest of the Korean population is limited to 15 visits per month). In addition, the casino operates an on-site problem gambling treatment center, which provides multiple levels of counseling services for pathological gamblers.

3.2. Measurement

A preliminary list of measurement items for the current study was developed from a comprehensive review of previous research on CSR (Carroll, 1979; Lee et al., in press), RG (Song et al., 2012a; LaPlante et al., 2012), organizational trust (Chathoth et al., 2011), job satisfaction (Lee et al., in press), and customer orientation (Donovan et al., 2004; Donovan and Hocutt, 2001). To test content validity, four academic and hospitality experts (two academics and two casino managers) were asked to check this preliminary list. These experts were also asked to suggest additional items appropriate for the customer assessments of CSR and RG concepts. Based on these experts' evaluations and suggestions, the first draft of the questionnaire was developed, and a pretest with 35 undergraduate students in a tourism research method class further refined and reworded the measurement items.

The CSR constructs were developed to fit the casino context using previous research (Carroll, 1979; Lee et al., in press). The economic CSR was operationalized with four items (e.g., "Kangwon Land Casino generates employment impact"), the legal CSR was operationalized with four items (e.g., "Kangwon Land Casino abides by its business regulations"), and the philanthropic CSR was evaluated with four items (e.g., "Kangwon Land Casino provides a variety of charitable donations"). Finally, RG was operationalized with eight items – 4 items on compulsory responsible gambling strategy and 4 items on supplementary responsible gambling strategy (e.g., "Kangwon Land Casino is not open for 24 hours, closing 4 hours per day" and "Kangwon Land Casino provides treatment programs for problem gamblers and their families"). Organizational trust was evaluated with five items (e.g., "Our organization treats me fairly and properly"), and job satisfaction was operationalized with four items (e.g., "I think my job is fun"). Lastly, the customer orientation was evaluated with five items (e.g., "I try to ensure that visitors have no complaints").

Table 1
Demographic characteristics of respondents.

Characteristic	N (%)	Characteristic	N (%)
Gender		Marital status	
Male	196 (51.3)	Single	235 (61.0)
Female	186 (48.7)	Married	150 (39.0)
Education level		Monthly income level	
Less than high school	13 (3.4)	Less than 2 million Won ^a	64 (16.8)
Two-year college	155 (40.4)	2–3.9 million Won	268 (70.5)
University	206 (53.6)	4–4.9 million Won	38 (10.0)
More than graduate school	10 (2.6)	Over 5 million Won	10 (2.6)
Age		Position	
20–29	149 (38.7)	Clerk	92 (23.9)
30–39	213 (55.3)	Senior dealer	255 (66.2)
40–49	23 (6.0)	Supervisor	22 (5.7)
		Assistant manager	14 (3.6)
		Manager	2 (0.5)

^a US \$1 is equivalent to 1134 Korean Won.

3.3. Data collection

An on-site survey was conducted with frontline employees who were working for Kangwon Land Casino during November 2011. In a convenience sampling method, field researchers approached casino employees as they finished shifts or took a break in the staff lounge, outlined the purpose of the research, and requested participation in the survey. Upon consent, the field researchers distributed self-administered questionnaires to the respondents who were asked to rate their degree of agreement for each item, using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Respondents who completed the survey questionnaires were given a lottery ticket as expression of gratitude for their participation. The field researchers distributed 450 questionnaires to the subjects, and 398 questionnaires were returned. Fifty-two questionnaires were left incomplete, typically because the respondents did not have enough time to answer all question items due to their tight work schedule. A further inspection of the data identified 11 questionnaires with important questions unanswered or patterned responses, so these were also discarded. Ultimately, then, 387 questionnaires were used for the analysis.

3.4. Data analysis

This study employs a structural equation modeling (SEM) approach using SPSS (SPSS, 2001) and EQS (Bentler and Wu, 1995) to test research hypotheses in the proposed model (see Fig. 1). In estimating measurement and structural models, the two stages of testing procedure recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) are adopted. In the first stage, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) estimates the measurement model for items in the research model. In the second stage, structural relationships among the constructs in the research model are estimated to evaluate the structure model and test the research hypotheses. In this study, all data have been checked for multivariate normality.

4. Results

4.1. Demographic characteristics of respondents

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The proportion of male respondents (51.3%) and female respondents (48.7%) was nearly equal. Over half of the respondents were aged 30–39 (55.3%), followed by those aged 20–29 (38.7%). The majority of respondents had two-year college or higher education degrees, representing 96.6% of the respondents. A strong majority (70.5%) of the respondents considered themselves

middle-income earners (2–3.9 million Korean Won of monthly income). Single respondents were dominant (61.0%), with married respondents a distant second (39.0%). A majority of the respondents were senior dealers who worked for the casino for between six and eight years (66.2%), followed by clerks (23.9%), supervisors (5.7%), assistant managers (3.6%), and managers (0.5%).

4.2. Measurement model

Typically, structural equation modeling research employs the maximum likelihood method under the assumption that collected data have a multivariate normal distribution. However, most data in the social sciences appear to have non-normal distributions (Barnes et al., 2001). In other words, real-world data do not usually have multivariate normal distribution (Chou et al., 1991). In spite of this characteristic of real-world data, most SEM studies do not check to ensure that the collected data meet the assumption of multivariate normal distribution. Moreover, the results of SEM studies have the potential to invalidate statistical hypothesis-testing because the normal test statistics (χ^2) of maximum likelihood method may not reflect an adequate evaluation of the non-normally distributed data (Hu et al., 1992).

This study employed Mardia's standardized coefficient to confirm whether or not the data in the study violate the assumption of multivariate normality.⁵ In this study, the data appear to be non-normally distributed, as Mardia's standardized coefficient for the measurement model (59.012) is greater than the criterion of 5 (Byrne, 2006). Because of this, we performed the robust maximum likelihood method to estimate the structural equation modeling. The measurement model in Table 2 was derived from the CFA, indicating a satisfactory level of fit to all goodness-of-fit indices. These findings confirm that the proposed measurement model fits the data well: $\chi^2 = 1133.981$; S-B $\chi^2 = 813.206$; $df = 494$; normed fit index (NFI) = 0.896; non-normed fit index (NNFI) = 0.950; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.956, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.041. Table 2

⁵ If the data in the study do not hold the assumption, we would employ robust maximum likelihood method to estimate the structural equation modeling. If the collected data have a multivariate non-normal distribution, the robust maximum likelihood method can provide more stable and accurate robust standardized errors and other fit indices based on the Satorra–Bentler (S-B) χ^2 (Bentler and Wu, 1995; Byrne, 2006). Hu et al. (1992) stated that these robust statistics (i.e., Satorra–Bentler scaled statistic (S-B χ^2) and robust standardized errors) have been shown to perform better than uncorrected statistics where the assumption of multivariate normality assumption is not supported.

Table 2
Results of confirmatory factor analysis and goodness-of-fit indices for measurement model.

Constructs	Factor loading	t-Value	Cronbach's alpha					
<i>Factor 1: Economic CSR (ECSR)</i>								
Kangwon Land Casino generates much employment impact	0.711	14.049	0.801					
Kangwon Land Casino tries to save operating costs	0.682	12.244						
Kangwon Land Casino strives to improve employee's productivity	0.688	14.284						
Kangwon Land Casino establishes long-term strategy for economic growth	0.749	15.334						
<i>Factor 2: Legal CSR (LCSR)</i>								
Kangwon Land Casino abides by regulations of business	0.742	13.682	0.838					
Kangwon Land Casino complies with employment-related laws (hiring and employee benefits)	0.687	14.517						
Kangwon Land Casino is committed to a legal contract associated with business operation	0.766	16.868						
Kangwon Land Casino regulates the correct rules and methods of operation for visitors	0.749	15.074						
<i>Factor 3: Philanthropic CSR (PCSR)</i>								
Kangwon Land Casino provides variety of donations	0.877	22.395	0.915					
Kangwon Land Casino develops a campaign for helping the needy	0.879	20.268						
Kangwon Land Casino is committed to build a better community	0.821	19.074						
Kangwon Land Casino participates in a variety of volunteer activities	0.863	19.692						
<i>Factor 4: Compulsory RG (CRG)</i>								
Kangwon Land Casino restricts residents' access to the casino only once a month to prevent problem gambling	0.800	15.019	0.917					
Kangwon Land Casino restricts general visitors' access to the casino only 15 times a month	0.841	19.837						
Kangwon Land Casino is not open for 24 hours, but closes 4 hours per day	0.848	18.191						
Kangwon Land Casino requests visitors show identification to exclude minors and other restricted persons	0.873	19.757						
<i>Factor 5: Supplementary RG (SRG)</i>								
Kangwon Land Casino provides treatment programs for problem gamblers and their families	0.805	18.397	0.901					
Kangwon Land Casino supports rehabilitation programs for problem gamblers	0.817	18.239						
Kangwon Land Casino publicizes dangers to society from problem gambling	0.822	19.812						
Kangwon Land Casino supports research activities associated with prevention of problem gambling	0.825	19.369						
<i>Factor 6: Organizational trust (OT)</i>								
Our organization treats me fairly and properly	0.73	13.931	0.858					
Our organization communicates openly and honestly	0.732	16.316						
Our organization tells all that I want to know	0.749	16.591						
Our organization maintains a long-term relationship with me	0.72	14.249						
Our organization considers my advice valuable	0.774	16.868						
<i>Factor 7: Job satisfaction (JS)</i>								
I think my job is fun	0.886	23.774	0.934					
I feel comfortable with my job	0.886	24.026						
I feel satisfied with my job	0.894	22.623						
I am passionate about my work	0.869	21.798						
<i>Factor 8: Customer orientation (CO)</i>								
I try to make visitors have no complaints	0.766	14.589	0.910					
I try to serve visitors with a sense of caring	0.782	14.423						
I try to understand visitor's needs and help them	0.84	18.284						
I try to understand what is real problem with visitors	0.841	19.54						
I try to consider visitors' concerns at the first priority	0.826	18.965						
Measurement model	χ^2	S-B χ^2	df	Normed S-B χ^2	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
	1133.981	813.206	494	1.646	0.896	0.950	0.956	0.041
Suggested value ^a				≤3	≥0.9	≥0.9	≥0.9	≤0.08

Note: All standardized factor loadings are significant at $p < 0.001$.

^a Suggested values are based on Hair et al. (2006) and Bearden et al. (1982).

also presents Cronbach's alpha values which estimate the reliability of multi-item scales: economic CSR (ECSR) (0.801), legal CSR (LCSR) (0.838), philanthropic CSR (PCSR) (0.915), compulsory responsible gambling (CRG) (0.917), supplementary responsible gambling (SRG) (0.901), organizational trust (OT) (0.858), job satisfaction (JS) (0.934), and customer orientation (CO) (0.910). All alpha coefficients were above the cut-off point of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978), indicating an acceptable level of reliability for each construct.

Table 3 presents convergent and discriminant validity statistics. All average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability values for the multi-item scales were greater than the minimum criterion of 0.5 and 0.7, respectively (Hair et al., 2006), indicating a sufficient level of convergent validity for the measurement model. To check discriminant validity of the constructs, the study used three methods: the first method, AVE, did not confirm discriminant validity, as the highest squared correlation between ECSR and LCSR (0.669) was greater than the AVE for corresponding

inter-constructs (ECSR = 0.501; LCSR = 0.543) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). However, the other two methods (confidence intervals and constrained models) both supported the discriminant validity levels. Specifically, the confidence interval of correlation between ECSR and LCSR (0.517~0.821), plus or minus two standard errors of correlation between the two constructs, did not include the criterion of 1.0, based on a confidence interval method outlined by Anderson and Gerbing (1992). Discriminant validity using a constrained model was also confirmatory because the S-B Chi-square difference test statistic (Byrne, 2006) for the relationship between ECSR and LCSR (67.37) exceeded the criterion of 3.84 ($p < 0.001$) (Bagozzi and Phillips, 1982; Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991).

4.3. Hypothesis testing

Fig. 2 summarizes the estimated results of the proposed research model in this study. The results confirm that the

Table 3
Reliability and validity for measurement model.

Constructs	ECSR	LCSR	PCSR	CRG	SRG	OT	JS	CO
ECSR	1.000							
LCSR	0.818 ^a (0.669)	1.000						
PCSR	0.706 (0.498)	0.663 (0.440)	1.000					
CRG	0.590 (0.348)	0.558 (0.311)	0.601 (0.361)	1.000				
SRG	0.590 (0.348)	0.593 (0.352)	0.643 (0.413)	0.785 (0.616)	1.000			
OT	0.320 (0.102)	0.438 (0.192)	0.258 (0.067)	0.104 (0.011)	0.357 (0.127)	1.000		
JS	0.173 (0.030)	0.308 (0.095)	0.123 (0.015)	0.043 (0.002)	0.068 (0.005)	0.548 (0.298)	1.000	
CO	0.351 (0.123)	0.468 (0.219)	0.325 (0.106)	0.338 (0.114)	0.357 (0.127)	0.546 (0.298)	0.552 (0.305)	1.000
CR	0.801	0.826	0.919	0.906	0.889	0.859	0.935	0.906
AVE	0.501	0.543	0.740	0.707	0.668	0.549	0.781	0.659

Numbers in the parenthesis indicate squared correlation among latent constructs. Correlation coefficients are estimated from EQS.

CR, composite reliability; AVE, average variance extracted; ECSR, economic CSR; LCSR, legal CSR; PCSR, philanthropic CSR; CRG, compulsory RG; SRG, supplementary RG; OT, organizational trust; JS, job satisfaction, and CO, customer orientation.

^a Pairs of constructs having highest correlations.

proposed structural model fits the data well: $\chi^2 = 1233.286$; S-B $\chi^2 = 887.332$; $df = 505$; $NFI = 0.887$; $NNFI = 0.942$; $CFI = 0.948$, and $RMSEA = 0.044$. The explained variance in endogenous constructs (Fig. 2) was 32.1% for organizational trust, 31.1% for job satisfaction, and 31.8% for customer orientation. The results of hypotheses testing indicate that LCSR, CRG and SRG have a significant effect on casino employees' organizational trust ($\beta_{LCSR \rightarrow OT} = 0.522$; $t = 3.320$; $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{CRG \rightarrow OT} = -0.524$; $t = -4.796$; $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{SRG \rightarrow OT} = 0.524$; $t = 4.529$; $p < 0.01$). The findings support H_{1b} and H_{1e} , but interestingly, CRG negatively relates to trust, the opposite direction of the hypothesis, thus failing to support H_{1d} . ECSR ($\beta_{ECSR \rightarrow OT} = -0.053$; $t = -0.317$, not significant) and PCSR ($\beta_{PCSR \rightarrow OT} = -0.076$; $t = -0.821$, not significant) were not statistically significant in predicting organizational trust, leading us to reject H_{1a} and H_{1c} .

These findings suggest that the legal dimensions of CSR are more likely to exert a significant impact on forming employees' organizational trust; whereas, economic and philanthropic dimensions of CSR seem to have no impact on formation of employees'

organizational trust. Moreover, supplementary RG positively influences employees' organizational trust while compulsory RG negatively impacts employees' organizational trust. Organizational trust is a significant determinant for explaining job satisfaction ($\beta_{OT \rightarrow JS} = 0.557$; $t = 10.342$; $p < 0.01$), supporting H_2 . Finally, the causal relationship between job satisfaction and customer orientation ($\beta_{JS \rightarrow CO} = 0.564$; $t = 9.181$; $p < 0.01$) was positive and significant, supporting H_3 .

4.4. Indirect and total effects

Total effects are the sum of direct and indirect effects (Bollen, 1989). The concept of total effects is important as it seeks to interpret all changes, including mediating effects, from an independent variable to a dependent variable. Therefore, this study can be said to interpret the total effects of each dependent variable. As shown in Table 4, job satisfaction is the most powerful antecedent for predicting customer orientation, with the largest total impact

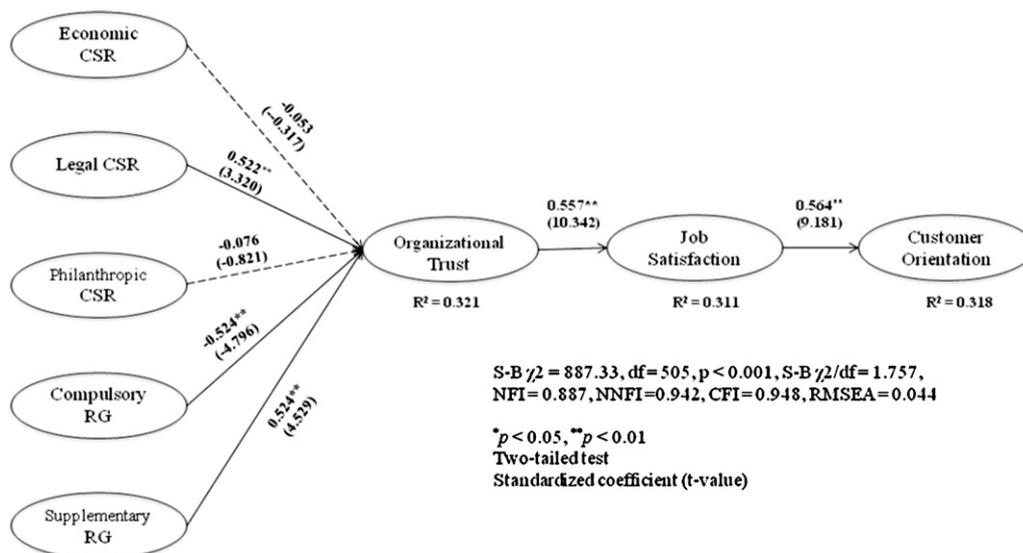


Fig. 2. Results of the research model.

Note: the numbers in the parentheses indicate t-values.

Table 4
Results of structural equation modeling.

	Direct effect			Indirect effect			Total effect		
	OT	JS	CO	OT	JS	CO	OT	JS	CO
ECSR	-0.053	-	-	-	-0.029	-0.017	-0.053	-0.029	-0.017
LCSR	0.522**	-	-	-	0.291**	0.164**	0.522**	0.291**	0.164**
PCSR	-0.076	-	-	-	-0.042	-0.024	-0.076	-0.042	-0.024
CRG	-0.524**	-	-	-	-0.292**	-0.165**	-0.524**	-0.292**	-0.165**
SRG	0.524**	-	-	-	0.292**	0.165**	0.524**	0.292**	0.165**
OT	-	0.557**	-	-	-	0.314**	-	0.557**	0.314**
JS	-	-	0.564**	-	-	-	-	-	0.564**

ECSR, economic CSR; LCSR, legal CSR; PCSR, philanthropic CSR; CRG, compulsory RG; SRG, supplementary RG; OT, organizational trust; JS, job satisfaction, and CO, customer orientation.

** $p < 0.01$.

(0.564), followed by organizational trust (0.314), SRG (0.165), CRG (-0.165), and LCSR (0.164). In assessing the effect of predicting job satisfaction, organizational trust was the most powerful factor with the largest total effect (0.557), followed by SRG (0.292), CRG (-0.292), and LCSR (0.291). In assessing the predictive effect of organizational trust, CRG (-0.524) and SRG (0.524) were the most significant factors followed by LCSR (0.522).

5. Discussion and conclusions

As the importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR) currently continues to grow, a better understanding of CSR strategy's relationship to various aspects of a company becomes critical. Although the CSR literature has paid substantial attention to the relationship between CSR strategy and external customers, less attention has been paid to internal customers (i.e., employees), especially in the context of the casino industry. This study, therefore, mainly explores the relationship between CSR strategies (primarily RG strategies) and internal marketing perspectives on casino employees.

A casino represents a unique and interesting setting for this study. First, the importance of employees for casinos is significant. Not only do employees constitute a major group of stakeholders, but they also play a particularly important role in affecting customers' experiences due to their close interactions with customers (Dawson and Abbott, 2009). Second, many casinos commonly practice an industry-specific strategy called responsible gambling (RG), which closely resembles the ethical CSR dimension from Carroll's CSR framework (Carroll, 1991). This study incorporates the RG concept into the CSR framework by substituting the ethical CSR dimension with RG strategies (specifically, compulsory and supplementary RG strategies), and, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first effort to consider this link in the CSR literature. Consequently, the current study contributes, uniquely, to both the literature and the industry.

More specifically, this study examines the perceptions of casino employees on CSR and RG strategies as they influence organizational trust and attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and customer orientation). Results indicate that the legal CSR dimension has a significant effect on organizational trust, while the economic and philanthropic CSR dimensions have an insignificant effect. When examining the two dimensions of the RG concept, this study finds a positive effect from supplementary RG, but a negative effect from compulsory RG on employees' organizational trust. Interestingly, these findings are inconsistent with a previous hospitality study's findings in the foodservice industry: Lee et al. (in press) found a significant and positive effect from economic and philanthropic CSR dimensions, but an insignificant effect from legal and ethical CSR dimensions on employees' organizational trust.

The insignificant relationship between economic CSR and organizational trust may suggest that the economic imperative – to

derive profits for stakeholders – is less important to casino employees, perhaps because excessive profit-seeking in this setting may be seen as distasteful. Or perhaps casino employees in this monopolistic setting accept profitability as assured, and hence value it less. As for the insignificant relationship between philanthropic CSR and organizational trust, perhaps casino employees deem these insincere or insufficient, especially in an industry that receives significant attention in South Korea for its negative impacts.

The significant relationship between legal CSR and organizational trust suggests that this casino's compliance with the casino laws and regulations influences its employees' organizational trust in a positive manner. This finding may imply that casino employees want their company to be perceived as legitimate (and certainly not illegal), because gambling often suffers from perceptions of its illegitimacy. Hence, the modern, regulated gaming industry's emphasis on strict compliance and the rule of law may alleviate employees' concerns that they work in a less than respected industry, especially when media reports and anti-gambling groups frequently emphasize the downsides of casinos (Bernhard et al., 2010).

In one of the more revealing findings about RG, these results indicate that supplementary RG (SRG) activities have a positive effect – while compulsory RG (CRG) activities have a negative effect – on casino employees' organizational trust. Put another way, those RG activities that were mandated by government (CRS) led to negative evaluations, while those RG activities that were voluntary and supplementary (SRS) led to positive evaluations. This finding is actually consistent with a recent study on how certain RG measures are perceived by customers – with customers preferring those measures that were voluntary rather than required (Bernhard et al., 2008). It could be that similarly, employees chafe a bit under the mandatory requirements, but take pride in those RG measures that the casino undertakes beyond those that the government mandates.

Since CRG strategies are negatively perceived by casino employees, casino management might strive to address employees' negative perceptions. For instance, Giroux et al. (2008) found training sessions to be quite helpful in encouraging employees to change their attitudes about RG. Similarly, Blaszczynski et al. (2011) and LaPlante et al. (2012) emphasize the importance of staff training programs that encourage a positive embrace of RG, and find empirical support suggesting that these sessions can be effective.

These training programs might focus on the long-term positive effects of CRG for sustainability – as proper RG measures will help ensure both customer wellbeing and community acceptance. It also fits well within a broader customer relations strategy; as the casino industry is a hospitality industry that focuses on entertainment, and as hospitality employees are caretakers of that entertainment experience, RG might be positioned as another important exercise in ensuring customer satisfaction. As Giroux et al. (2008) suggest, RG education and training programs should be not provided as

one-time events, but as regular sessions that become an expected component of employees' continuing education as hospitality professionals. Furthermore, reinforcing information might be provided with additional information in the form of posters, brochures, and videos (Giroux et al., 2008).

Results of the remaining hypotheses tests demonstrate that organizational trust has a significant positive effect on job satisfaction, which, in turn, positively influences employees' customer orientation. These findings suggest that casino managers can encourage positive work attitudes in employees by creating a trustworthy atmosphere based on CSR and RG strategies. These findings are consistent with the literature: as we have noted, positive attitudes of employees are important for achieving competitive advantages (Wan, 2010; Back et al., 2011). In addition, customer orientation directly relates to customers' evaluations (Brady and Cronin, 2001) and is an essential feature of good service (Chow et al., 2006).

6. Limitations

Although the results of this study contribute to knowledge of the impact of CSR and RG strategies in casino settings, this study has limitations that future studies may address. First, the results of the current study may not be generalized to other jurisdictions because this study collected data only from employees at South Korea's Kangwon Land Casino, the sole casino for domestic Korean customers. As Kim et al. (2010) note, perceptions of RG can vary significantly by culture, which makes generalizability all the more important in this research field. Hence, additional research using these CSR and RG constructs in other jurisdictions is recommended. Second, future researchers may consider other variables (e.g., organizational commitment or organizational citizenship behavior) not examined in this study when exploring the role of CSR and RG role in forming employees' attitudes and actions. Finally, although this study identifies the impacts from CSR and RG from the perspectives of casino employees, future studies may focus on other stakeholders, such as casino visitors and local residents. Investigating these constituencies may be valuable for acquiring a more comprehensive understanding of various stakeholders' impacts on the casino business worldwide.

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