

**PERCEPTIONS REGARDING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP
BEHAVIOUR IN ZIMBABWE**

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**PERCEPTIONS REGARDING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP
BEHAVIOUR IN ZIMBABWE**

By

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DECLARATION

I Itai Muzvidziwa hereby declare that this thesis entitled: 'Management perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour in zimbabwe' is my own independent work and that it has not previously been submitted by me for the awarding of any degree at any other university.

Signature: 

Date: 16 March 2015

DEDICATION

Completing this journey is a true blessing and God continues to be glorified. This success has not been achieved in isolation and I am grateful for the hand of the Lord upon me. Thank you God, for giving me the strength to continue on this journey when I felt that I could not finish. I could not have finished this thesis without much prayer, and indeed God has answered me.

He named it Ebenezer, saying,

“Thus far has the Lord helped Us.” –1 Samuel 7:12

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ABSTRACT

Corporate Citizenship (CC) has risen as a conspicuous term in the literature dealing with the social role of business. Citizenship's focal point is the rights and responsibilities of all members of the community. CC can be defined as the extent to which organisations undertake the compulsory economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders. CC recognises organisations as legal persons with certain rights and responsibilities as members of a community. The upsurge in undertaking acts of social responsibility illustrates that CC tends to be a strategic measurement that investors use to consciously align ethical concerns with publicly held organisations. In Zimbabwe, some organisations have made some progress towards CC - yet a long journey lies ahead in promoting CC by both the private sector and the Government of Zimbabwe. Against this background, the following research question was addressed in this study: *What are the perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe?* This study has been motivated by the knowledge gap on CC as a dynamic and contextual response to internal and external environmental pressures and the shift in community expectations concerning the roles, responsibilities and accountabilities of businesses in Zimbabwe.

The main objective of this study was to investigate perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour in Zimbabwe. A hypothetical model shows various factors that may influence perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. Three independent variables (internal factors, external factors and personal factors) were identified as variables that may influence perceptions regarding CC behaviour. The mediating variable (*perceptions regarding CC behaviour*) was also identified as a variable that have potential to affect the dependent variables (*organisational performance, competitiveness, image and sustainability*). Furthermore, seven null-hypotheses were developed to test the relationship between the independent, mediating and dependent variables. All these variables were clearly defined and operationalised with various items obtained from measuring instruments used in other similar studies.

A quantitative research approach was followed and the population of interest was all managers of multinational organisations, major institutional investors as well as small and medium enterprises (2405 businesses). A non-probability sampling technique by means of a convenience and judgemental sample of 500 respondents was drawn from Harare Mashonaland Province of Zimbabwe where most headquarters of most organisations are situated. A survey was conducted using a self-administered structured questionnaire using a seven-point Likert-type scale. A total of 419 usable questionnaires were received from respondents. Various statistical analysis techniques were used such as descriptive statistics and frequency distributions, exploratory factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha reliability testing and correlation and regression analysis.

The empirical results indicated that there are five influences on perceptions of CC behaviour in Zimbabwe, namely organisational social responsibility; personal importance; personal characteristics; environmental involvement and market orientation. Perceptions regarding CC behaviour were assessed in terms of strategic and operational planning as aspects. Only three independent variables were related to strategic planning issues regarding CC behaviour, namely organisational social responsibility, personal characteristics and market orientation, while only two dependent variables were related to operational planning issues regarding CC behaviour, namely, organisational social responsibility and personal characteristics. Perceptions regarding CC behaviour impacts organisational performance and organisational sustainability of organisations in Zimbabwe. This study could assist organisations to strengthen and acknowledge its role in developing society through good CC behaviour and to pressurise the government to play a significant role in developing CC programs and to inform policy formulation.

KEY WORDS: Management perceptions; CC behaviour; social responsibility

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the past decade there has been a notable increase in the pressure faced by managers regarding the financial performance of their organisations. As a consequence, these managers tend to lose focus of the broader picture of corporate citizenship (CC) which, in the long run, places their organisation in a better position in the societies in which they operate (Waddock, 2003a:4). Organisations are a public culture, in their own right, in terms of being politically, socially and economically focused (Birch, 2001:53). It is evident that organisational management, worldwide, is now prioritizing CC for their organisations (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:1). According to Reddy and Gordon (2010:19), organisational management uses annual reports to inform stakeholders about the economic performance of the organisation. The contemporary state of CC is a changing prospect, and so too are norms centered around organisational values and behaviour in an environment that is straining to create links between citizenship and the success of the organisation (Waddock, 2003a:5). Consequently, as witnessed across the globe, there is an amplified expectancy from the bigger picture of organisational stability and the rising demand for the participation of organisations in social issues (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:1).

The mainstay of CC is its reputation and the treatment of stakeholders and shareholders. However, according to McIntosh, Thomas, Leipziger and Coleman (2003:31) there is significant global disintegration of financial, trade, social as well as environmental conditions and the organisation. Presumably, CC's agenda is to take on board these concerns by using the organisational supremacy to affect global social development and the management of global capitalism (McIntosh *et al.*, 2003:31).

However, this study is motivated by the need to enhance the practice of CC in Zimbabwe in order to address its challenges and prospects; this is done with a view to creating a strong CC platform in Zimbabwe, by which an array of stakeholders becomes engaged in organisational innovation and nurturing a culture of giving in all organisations.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The most prevalent concept to date is the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) which is regarded as the flagship of contemporary organisational-societal relations. CSR manifested in the 1950s and the concept became a topical issue around 1970s (Carroll, 1999:263). The original definition of the modern CSR is found in the four-part model of CSR by Carroll (1979:497), Carroll & Buchholtz (2000:82). In addition, the theory has not changed meaningfully beyond this definition. CC has arisen as a conspicuous term in the literature dealing with the social role of business. However, CC in the US organisation was invented in the 1980s and that is when it started featuring in the global organisational arena (Altman & Vidaver-Cohen, 2000:1). In the same period, the term CC has been implemented among various consultants and government units in reference to an organisation's social and environmental policies (Roberts, Keeble, & Brown, 2002:37). Furthermore, from the 1990s onwards, the existence of the new term CC gradually contends with and acts as a substitute for this and other existing philosophy in the management domain of theory and practice (Noeiaghahi, 2009:7). The surfacing of CC rendered the old terminology of stakeholder management and CSR inappropriate in the current discourse (Noeiaghahi, 2009:7).

According to Van Luijk (2001:9), the developments pointed out that the way in which organisations had been conducted was not favourably in the industry, due to the absence of the concepts of CSR and organisational ethics in the world of business. Admittedly, these terms were used as a reminder to organisations that they should give back to society. Citizenship, however, has a rather different undertone for organisations, and has the ability to highlight the actuality that the organisation brings to mind its rightful place in society, as it forms part of the community (Matten & Crane, 2003:111).

Waddell (2000:107) posits that citizenship's focal point is the rights and responsibilities of all members of the community, as communally interlinked. According to Carroll (1999:455), CC has been described as an annex to an origin of work remarkably dominated by the notion of CSR, in terms of putting forward the responsibility of organisations in society, in the management literature (Matten & Crane, 2003: 2). The concepts of CC and CSR have, to a certain extent, been largely and frequently defined as interchangeable (Rondinelly & Berry, 2000: 73). According to Du Toit, Erasmus & Strydom (2007:93), in some literature, the term corporate citizenship, corporate investment and corporate social responsibility are used as interchangeable as well. However, in this study, CC will be used consistently to stand for corporate citizenship.

An analysis of the research in these related areas suggests that CC can be defined as the extent to which organisations undertake the compulsory economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001:38). Although both CSR and CC refer to conduct of organisations in society, the former centers solely on the responsibility aspect of the organisation while the latter focuses on an organisation as a social player by virtue of both its rights and responsibilities as a citizen (Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, 2010:145). In support of these primary changes, the term CC recognizes organisations as legal persons with certain rights and responsibilities as members of a community (Du *et al.*, 2010:145). Undoubtedly, more and more organisations are strategically accommodating CC as a new managerial resolution calling for their consideration (Lockwood, 2004:2).

In addition, Lockwood (2004:4) asserts that the upsurge in undertaking acts of social responsibility illustrates that CC tends to be a strategic measurement that investors use to consciously align ethical concerns with publicly held organisations. Furthermore, Lockwood (2004:4) asserts that the Dow Jones Sustainability Indexes follow the financial performance of sustainability-driven organisations worldwide, and the Domini Social Investment screens organisations for CC, diversity, employee relations, environmental responsibility, non toxic and valuable products.

However, Matten and Crane (2003) hypothesize that CC appears solely as a branding or relaunching of existing facts in order to be more appealing to the organisation simply because nothing significant in the CC literature is considerably different to the traditional CSR stance, except that CSR lacks a clear normative trait (Matten & Crane, 2003:111). However, there is an assumption that higher levels of development lead to higher CC and for that reason, it calls for higher levels of resources and greater awareness of issues. Hence, Zimbabwe lags behind 1st world countries and many other African countries in the penetration of CC (KPMG, 2005:5; Welford, 2004:31). Thus the historical belligerence of government-organisational relations, and public policy designs, are used to elucidate the disparity in the CSR or CC of countries (Moon, 2004:27).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The first class CC used to be optional but, of late, it is intricate in the sense that organisations have to act responsibly to gain the confidence of their society because of the previous scandals that took place in the world of business (Waddock, 2003a:21). CC becomes an essential piece of any successful organisational plan; it affects its share price, long-term viability and bottom line (D'Amato, Henderson & Florence, 2009:8). Initially of the Global Compact signatories comprised of 44 were US organisations and, evidently, US organisations now dominate global organisational settings (Waddock, 2003a:22). In most cases, organisations find that they are not participating in citizenship; the literature has however suggested that there are organisations which have mastered the reporting aspect of CC and may be proactive in their programs, but lag behind in transparency (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:8).

There appears, then, to be an acceleration in the growth of CC to integrate organisational responsibility and the organisation in society. This is one of the fundamental motivations for this study in that it will assist organisations to develop an array of associations among shareholders, employees, consumers, governments, the environment, the community and other relevant groups in their area of operation.

In the past, CC commonly embraced the notion of giving to local charities and volunteering in the local community but, nowadays, knowledgeable consumers and organisational partners developed an interest in looking more distinctively at organisational practices, philanthropy, diversity, volunteerism, and environmental impact; moreover, their expectations continue to augment (Wood, 1991:171). However, it is abundantly clear that expectations of organisations have grown enormously over the two decades and are expected to contribute absolutely to society. This point is sustained by evidence from Mirvis & Googins (2006:8) who suggest that, because of the greater market liberalization, organisations around the world are reaping the benefits as the expectations of society continue to rise. In Zimbabwe, most organisations are at the elementary stage in terms of, simply because CC activities seem to be intermittent and undeveloped.

The reasons for this are the inadequate awareness of the meaning of CC, uninterested top management as well as limited or one-way interactions with external stakeholder groups. Most organisations focus on obeying the law and protecting the organisation's reputation and, in many cases, these organisations take a defensive standpoint against outside pressures (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:7). In Zimbabwe, to a certain point, CC in some organisations has made tremendous progress, even though there is a distance yet to be travelled to complete the journey toward making CC a reality, and toward expanding the purview and impact of the organisation in society, which is one of the intentions of this study (Kakava, Mbizi & Manyeruke, 2013:678). Conversely, a lot has to be done among organisations to continue the progress of CC, in both intellectual and practitioner realms. An equally significant point to note is that, in order for it to be successful, an effort has to be made in promoting CC by both the private sector and the Government of Zimbabwe. Against this background, the following research question will be addressed in this study: *What are the perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe?*

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The rationale of this study is to examine how management and employees perceive CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

More specifically, the study seeks to help organisations interpret the principles into an effective action and share best practice related to social responsibility, and to cement corporate accountability to management and all other stakeholders. More so, this study works to clarify the perception of CC behaviour in Zimbabwe and, effectively, merge shareholder and consumer expectations; provide guidance to leaders; generate the logic and mechanisms that coerce the development of citizenship within organisations. In addition, since CC emerged as an organisational trend, with no existing framework to assist organisations to develop and promote global value based management, this study is also set to push the concept of CC into mainstream organisational thinking. Furthermore, the study intends to embrace the concept of CC and its responsibility of making society better as well as satisfying the modern organisation by taking into account the concerns of its management and stakeholders. Finally, the findings of the study will assist in putting forward several recommendations that can help to enhance the practice of CC across the country and globally.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study has been motivated by the knowledge gap on CC as a dynamic and contextual response to internal and external environmental pressures and the shift in community expectations concerning the roles, responsibilities and accountabilities of businesses in Zimbabwe. The study will contribute to the literature on CC in various manners. The researcher seeks to advance CC research by recognizing that, increasingly, CC issues are the drivers for change in the business community. The results of this study may possibly be pertinent to organisational decision makers, globally, giving the criterion for the management of corporate social initiatives and may add value to the indulgence and growth of CC in Zimbabwe.

Consequently, this study seeks to further acknowledge the best practices in CC in the country and to identify the link between the complete understanding and appreciation of CC as well as to offer other meaningful insights to practitioners in both industries, small, medium and large organisations. The study may possibly help business schools to develop responsible potential managers in a dynamic environment.

It is my sincere gratitude that business managers, Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), civic organisations, society and the government will benefit from the findings of this study, as these will offer a blue print of how to encourage organisations to partake in CC in Zimbabwe.

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.6.1 Primary objective

The main objective of this study is to investigate perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour in Zimbabwe.

1.6.2 Secondary objectives

To address the primary objective, the following secondary goals have been formulated:

- To provide a comprehensive literature overview of CC;
- To highlight the factors impacting CC behaviour;
- To develop a measuring instrument to empirically assess the perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe;
- To empirically assess CC behaviour in Zimbabwe; and
- To provide managerial guidelines for implementing CC in Zimbabwe.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

According to Leedy & Ormrod (2001:14), research methodology is defined as the universal method, or a particular way, applied by researchers to conduct a research project. Similarly, Polit, Beck and Hungler (2001:948) and Burns (2000:20) define methodology as a way of obtaining, organising and analysing data and it includes data collection and analysis techniques in the study. Burns (2000:3) defines research as a logical exploration of finding answers to a problem.

Consequently, Schreiber & Asner-Self (2011:30) refer to research as a logical course of action or an action inquiry and discovery through collecting, analyzing, and inferring from data, resulting in understanding a given phenomena in which the study is interested. In other words, it can refer to a data processing technique for an academic inquiry or stipulates how the researcher intends to go about the research. Burns and Grove (2001:223) hypothesize that in order for the researcher to obtain the intended results, particular techniques here are needed to plan and implement in a manner that will aid the researcher in increasing the chances of obtaining information that could be associated with the real situation. Research design, according to Kothari (2004:24), refers to the management of conditions for collecting and analyzing data in a way that intends to bring out the significance of a study.

Similarly, Burns and Grove (2003:195) define research design as an outline for carrying out a study with full control of the dynamics that may impede the soundness of the outcome. In other words, it is a structure or format used as a guide in collecting and analyzing data. This study focuses specifically on the need to enhance perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe and to identify the challenges and prospects of the concept.

1.7.1 Research paradigm

Advocates of research philosophies, including Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2009:120), Guba and Lincoln, (1994:105) and Becker, (1996:16), have displayed their knowledge and viewpoint on what materialized and is understood as hypothesis or paradigm “wars”. In research, there are three main methods to be followed; these are qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods (Creswell, 2003:209, 2009:95, Burns, 2000:613, Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:7). Apart from this, quantitative and qualitative methods of data gathering are often engaged in support of each other in a single research inquiry (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:31, Seale, Gobo, Gubrium & Silverman, 2004:7, Silverman, 2010:17). Burns (2000:13) and Creswell (2003:8) point out the mixed method of data collection which combines both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Although Mkansi & Acheampong's (2012:132) definitions of ontology, epistemology and axiology have a shared theme, even though they differ slightly in implication and emphasis, there seems to be no consent in the taxonomy and classification of these paradigms. There is thus an ongoing discussion that is embedded in relation to these ideas (Johnson & Duberley, 2000:8, Caelli, Ray & Mill, 2003:1). However, the research problem, personal experience of the researcher and the participants are factors that determine the choice of the method (Creswell, 2003:21).

1.7.1.1 Quantitative research

In quantitative studies, the researcher aims to measure variables and simplify the findings obtained from a representative sample of the total population (Flick, 2005:2-3, World Health Organisation, 2008:3). In actual fact, the quantitative research method is commonly known as the traditional approach since its inception in the 1960s and 1970s (Zohrabi, 2011:699). Quantitative data is numerical in nature. It means the method relies on statistical data to study and compare the relationships between the phenomena under investigation. That is, the method can be achieved by means of tests and objective questions in a questionnaire, can be carried out on a large scale and offer more than a statistical information (Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000:128).

1.7.1.2 Qualitative research

Qualitative researchers are concerned with understanding the meaning people put across regarding the experiences at hand and how they make sense of their world (Merriam, 2009:13). Apart from this, qualitative researchers have a propensity to study things in their usual settings, make logic of it, and interpret the observable facts in terms of the implication individuals append to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:3). Furthermore, Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2006:64) and Zohrabi (2011:700) elaborate that qualitative research focuses primarily on data gathering and analyzing information in various ways, predominantly, non-numerical. The method is prone to being centered on investigating as much detail as possible; this is normally viewed as being interesting and it aims to attain in-depth rather than surface analysis.

This sort of investigation facilitates the researcher to remain vigilant in the precise context of the study (Creswell, 2003:19).

1.7.1.3 Mixed Method

The mixed method, according to Creswell (2008:580), is a course of action for data gathering and analysis which combines the quantitative and qualitative research methods under one study. The goal is to understand a research problem and elaborate on the quantitative result. Furthermore, a mixed method approach entails following a line of inquiry of new knowledge and can involve either the concurrent or sequential use of these two methods (Stange, Crabtree, & Miller, 2006:292). This study forwards hypotheses which seek to provide tentative answers to the research problem, and will therefore employ a quantitative method. Consequently, the quantitative descriptive approach will be appropriate for the collection of information pertaining to perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe, as required for this study.

1.7.2 Population

A population, according to Hartl and Clark (2007:203), refers to target individuals or groups with mutual characteristics that suit the researcher's interests when conducting a study. In this study, the population of interest was the managers of multinational organisations, major institutional investors as well as small and medium enterprises. The population in Zimbabwe currently stands at 2405 businesses. According to Kitcheham and Pfleeger (2012:17), the target population refers to the cluster or the persons to whom the investigation applies. This implies that the study seeks those persons likely to give an intended answer and to whom the results of the survey apply. Preferably, a target population is supposed to be represented as a predetermined record of all its members.

1.7.3 Sampling

Sampling refers to the critical factor of identifying representative participants in the target population base (Yin, 2008:111). It thus involves choosing a reasonable group big enough to represent a larger group of the population under study, so as to avoid a distorted picture of the data to be collected. The rationale of sampling is the fact that it is unrealistic to include all members of a group; therefore, the intention is to draw a conclusion that is valid for the whole study population from the chosen sample. Pertaining to this study, a representative sample was drawn from all managers of companies and employees in Zimbabwe. A sampling structure was available in the form of a list of the entities that comprise the populace of the study.

The sampling method applied in this study was non-probability sampling; this means that members of the sample population were selected on the basis of their accessibility. The type of sampling technique used was convenience sampling. With convenience sampling, the samples are selected because they are accessible to the researcher. This technique is considered the easiest, cheapest and the least time consuming sampling technique.

The study was conducted in the Harare Mashonaland Province of Zimbabwe, where most the headquarters of most organisations are situated. The sampling frame of this study focuses on both middle and top managers as well as employees whose roles relate primarily to embedding a culture of CC and related practices in the organisation. As a sample size, five hundred (500) organisations are presumably enough to draw sufficient data in order to give validity to the results and reach a meaningful conclusion pertaining to CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. The following section will present the data collection method used in this study.

1.7.4 Data collection methods

According to Most, Craddick, Crawford, Redican, Rhodes, Rukenbrod and Laws (2003:1339), a data compilation method is the procedure followed to draw together and itemize information on variables in a recognized methodical approach that allows the respondents to respond to stipulated research questions, and allows the researcher to test the hypotheses and assess the findings.

Similarly, Zohrabi (2011:702) defines a data collection method as a stage in the research series in which diverse kinds of information is drawn together through various means. Richards and Schmidt (2002:142) accept as true that data is an anthology of information, verification or evidence that is collected with the intention of gaining an improved perception of an observable fact under study.

- **Primary data**

The primary data collection method employed in this study was the survey method, by means of a self-administered questionnaire. This type of research method is viewed as difficult to design but is known to be highly detailed and structured in a manner that allows results to be easily assembled and statistically presented. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007:66) assert that questionnaires tend to gather data, focusing on the entire population under study, in order to uniformly respond to the same questions. In this study, the questionnaires were distributed to a target population of five hundred (500) respondents with the aim of gathering data pertaining to CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

- **Secondary data**

Secondary data constitutes the study of existing literature, pertaining to the research being undertaken, which will form the foundation for the conceptual framework and from which the frame of reference of the study will be drawn (Oliver, 2004:1). The method has an advantage to the researcher in terms of interaction with printed materials which are non-human in nature (Shumba, Kaziboni & Chakuchichi 2005:91). Published journals, international, regional and domestic policies pertaining to the study, textbooks as well as internet resources are used as secondary data for this study.

1.7.5 Questionnaire design

Eislene, Uys and Potgieter (2005:1) define questionnaires as descriptive and opinion related surveys in the form of a self-administered questionnaire.

Initially, it takes the formulation of questions to include in a questionnaire and it is imperative to clarify the research questions and the intended goals. A questionnaire commonly comprises of a combination of the realistic and opinion-related factual questions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2004: 407). According to Saunders *et al.* (2007:315), questionnaires facilitate the collection of data to a sample of people, in order that they respond to the same questions. The questionnaires used in this study were self-administered to allow respondents ample time to reflect on the subject matter and will be distributed in person to all the intended targets. This study employs an ordinal scale using non-dichotomous data that consists of a spectrum of values by means of a seven-point Likert type scale with opinion-related factual questions for Sections A to E. A nominal scale was used to assess the biographical data of respondents (Section F). The survey consisted of the following sections:

- Section A focused on the perceptions regarding organisational factors impacting CC behaviour, using an ordinal scale.
- Section B investigated perceptions regarding the external factors impacting CC behaviour, using an ordinal scale.
- Section C weighed perceptions regarding personal factors impacting CC behaviour using an ordinal scale.
- Section D explored perceptions regarding CC behaviour, using an ordinal scale.
- Section E focused on the influence of CC behaviour on performance findings.
- Section F identified the biographical information of respondents, using a nominal scale.

1.7.6 Pilot study

According to Cooper & Schindler (2003:86), in order to detect any weaknesses in the research design, or instrument, a pilot study should be conducted. A pilot study is a pre-testing of the research instrument which helps the researcher spot uncertainty and the manner in which respondents respond to questions (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001:1, Brown, 2001:62). In this study, a pilot sample of 30 managers was randomly selected from the Harare Metropolitan Province.

1.7.7 Data analysis

Hatch (2002:148) asserts that data analysis is a manner which gives a clear sense of the data gathered during research so that it can be comprehended by anyone. Analysis of data encompasses splitting the data into attainable themes, patterns, trends and relationships, in terms of understanding the various concepts, constructs or variables (Mouton, 2001:108). Creswell (2003:190) contends that the analysis of data entails getting into the fine details of the subject under study, so as to put forward the broader and clearer meaning of the data.

Descriptive statistics was used to summarize the pattern of findings; this includes the measuring of the central tendency within a sample. For instance, this could point to the mean, mode and median as well as measures of the spread of scores within a sample; for example, the range or standard deviation. Russell, Schifter and Bastable (2002:65) maintain that frequencies indicated by tables, charts and graphs can also be used to summarize the results and should clearly identify and enhance the presentation of results. Other advanced statistical analysis techniques that were used include factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, as well as correlation and regression analysis. In this study, the Statistical Package (Version 12) was considered in the sense that it manipulates, analyses and presents data easily. The package is extensively used in the societal and behavioural sciences and is purposely made available for analyzing statistical data; hence, it provides an immense series of methods, graphs and charts (Landau & Everitt, 2004:11).

1.7.8 Validity and reliability of the measuring instrument

Validity is expounded as an appraisal of the authenticity of the data acquired by means of using the chosen research instrument; it is systematized as the internal and external validity of the measuring instrument (Burns & Grove 2001:226). In addition, the instrument's validity can be examined as the magnitude to which the instrument reproduces the nonfigurative construct under examination (Burns & Grove 2001:814).

The most important part of the instrument is its ability to measure and reproduce the same study on interval and be able to produce unwavering results. This rule of the thumb is measured through validity and reliability, respectively. Validity can be viewed as the aptitude of the instrument selected for a particular study to produce the intended results, and reliability is described as an instrument with dependable attributes of accuracy (Wood, Ross-Kerr & Brink, 2006:195, Winter, 2000:7). Validity was ensured by means of conducting an exploratory factor analysis. Construct validity characterizes how a study measures up to its claims.

Content validity shows which content is covered by the questions and which content is lacking whilst simultaneously offering the basis to give clarity to the correlation between similar items and the similarities in the responses provided. According to Landsheer and Boeijie (2008:60), "the content validity of a questionnaire can be established by showing that the test items are a sample of a universe in which the investigator is interested". In this case, the pilot study assists in the establishment of content validity. However, face validity is to be ensured by means of expert judgment as the questionnaire will be scrutinized by qualified experts in the area of ethics, tactical management and statistics. The reliability of the questionnaire, with reference to this study, was ensured in the manner in which the respondents self-administered the questionnaire at their convenience, which resulted in the receipt of honest responses. The questions were asked using the same format for all respondents. Manning and Munro (2006:35-37) assert that Cronbach's coefficient alpha settles on the internal consistency of an instrument.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Flick (2006:49) contends that the investigator will deal with ethical issues throughout the research. The ethical considerations have to be well thought-out from the initial plan of gathering data, data analysis to the outcomes. The main issue regarding ethical considerations in the research process is to safeguard the moral, legal attainment and concerns of the participants throughout the study. In general, in the field of study, moral values can be delineated as being more subtle than privilege. Regarding ethics, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003:56) point out the importance of inquiring what is correct and what is unsuitable.

On the whole, it can be inferred that, to a large extent, ethics are a matter of agreement amongst the researchers. This involves giving the respondents an assurance that any information derived from the research will be accorded top secret status (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003:59). However, Flick (2006:219) expresses that this poses an awkward position for researchers, with regards to research ethics, as he cites the consequences faced by researchers who wish to penetrate certain areas in order to get valid data. In this study, research ethics were observed in terms of seeking clearance from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University's Research Ethics Committee. Additionally, the covering letter bearing the signatures of the coordinators and the researcher was provided, specifying the participants' privacy, together with the anonymity and confidentiality of the data collected.

1.9 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

This research focuses on perceptions regarding corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour in Zimbabwe. Clear definitions of key words are presented below.

1.9.1 Corporate Citizenship (CC)

According to Cavanaugh (2005:1) and Farooq, Kanwal, Jatoi and Zafar (2013:942) CC is a concept with manifold meanings and this is evidenced from the perspectives of shareholders when they focus on the internal activities of the organisation; these activities include transparency, control and morals as the main elements of citizenship (Cavanaugh, 2005:1). In addition, Crane, Matten and Moon (2008:83) define CC as a lifeline of the society that shows progress and they investigate three dimensions of the organisation as a citizen, as a citizenship proprietor and as a citizenship field for stakeholders. In support of this notion, Aristotle (1990:85) postulates that CC is much like an individual who offers significantly and participates in giving life to the community. According to Johnstone (2008:7), CC is defined as surpassing philanthropic acts in terms of economic and social contribution.

However, for the purpose of this research, CC is understood as the degree to which organisations are socially responsible towards society in terms of creating higher standards of livelihood and increasing the value of life in the society in which they perform their organisational activities, despite safeguarding profitability for their stakeholders.

1.9.2 Corporate Social Responsibility

CSR has been referred to as organisational ethics, in the workplace, government, communities and the media (Lockwood, 2004:2). Despite the absence of a mutual definition, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development, (World Business Council for Sustainable Development, 2001) defines CSR as the organisational obligation and benefaction to the caliber of life its employees, their relations together with the entire humanity to be financially viable in terms of social growth (Lockwood, 2004:2, WBCSD, 2001:8, Jamali & Mirshak, 2007:243-244). CSR also ascribes to the scope of the organisation's accountability to its associates (Cavanaugh, 2005:2, Lockwood, 2004:2). In this study, CSR is classified as charitable activities undertaken by an organisation in the areas in which they operate.

1.9.3 Ethics

Maignan and Ferrell (2001: 39) define ethical responsibilities as the established moral standards that an organisation is expected to adhered to in a particular society. Ethical responsibility involves activities that are not inevitably tabulated into law; these include treating individuals with honor, circumventing community harm, and so forth. According to Heisler (2007:2), ethics is the ability of an organisation to pay attention to moral judgments, practices and commitments in organisational decisions. Further, Newton and Ford (2002:x) defines ethics as a conversation about conduct, the doing of good and the avoiding of evil. Similarly, Fouka and Mantzorou (2011:4) define ethics as the viewpoint which deals with spontaneous control concerning moral values; this expects the behaviour of an individual to be enacted in a manner that upholds positive morality.

This study defines ethics, basically, as principles for governing the relations between people with a focus on mutual respect for the needs of all parties involved. Ethics involves making moral judgments about what is right or wrong.

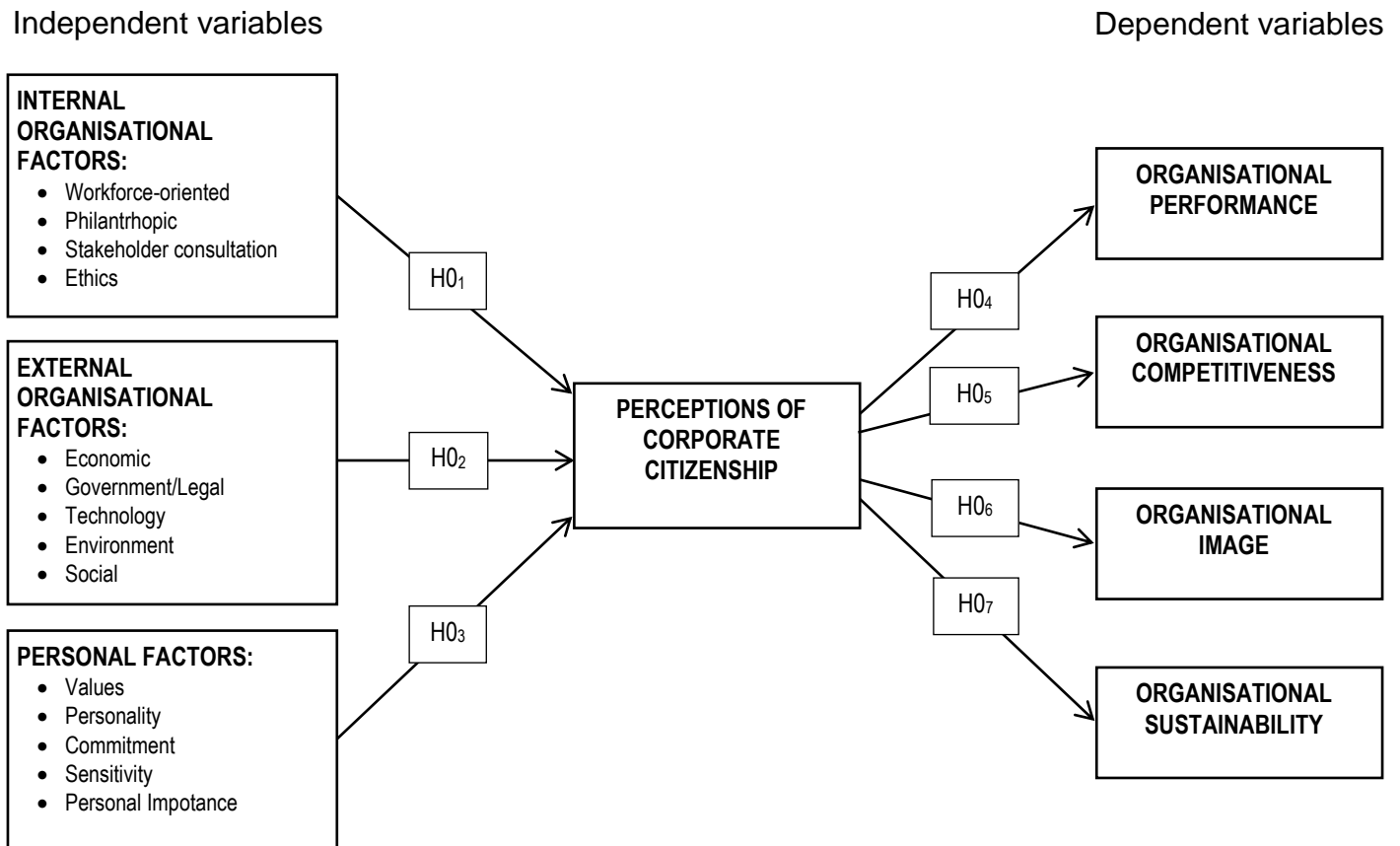
1.9.4 Stakeholder Management

According to Serrador (2009:3), stakeholder management balances and integrates multiple relationships and objectives. Hartman (2005:115) points out that organisations have stakeholders which are groups or persons who benefit or can be harmed by the actions of the organisation and whose rights are either desecrated or respected by the organisation. In general, the record of stakeholders takes into account the workforce, consumers, merchants, society, venture capitalists and other investors (Boatright, 2006:17). Stakeholders are defined as individuals or groups who are impacted by, or can impact, the work or its customers (Walker, Bourne & Rowlinson, 2008:70). Furthermore, Freeman, Wicks and Parmar (2004:364) depict stakeholder management as a way of dealing with the matters that can facilitate the generation of wealth by organisational management. This study understands stakeholder management as the process of monitoring and maintaining constructive relationships with all stakeholders.

1.10 THEORATICAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

The initial literature study has revealed a number of CC factors that could enhance its practice in the Zimbabwean companies. Based on such factors, the following hypothesized model is proposed (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Hypothetical model of the study



Source: Author's own construction

Figure 1.1 illustrates the link between the independent variables, which are the internal organisational factors, composed of the sub-factors, *workforce-oriented*, *shareholders*, *philanthropic*, *ethics* and *consultation*.

The external factors also have attributes, which comprise of the *economy*, *technology*, *legal*, *government* and the *global factor* at large. The final self-determining variables in this research are personal factors; these include values, commitment, personality, sensitivity and importance. However, these factors have a bearing on the moderating variable which, in this case, is perception regarding CC behaviour. This moderating variable has an impact on the dependent variables which will result in a company yielding competitiveness, high performance, portraying a

positive image and sustainability. The following section will provide an overview of the all the variables identified above.

1.10.1 Internal organisational factors

The internal organisational factors entail the realization of the main mission of the organisation's existence. It requires a certain organisational element that will result in the achievement of the outlined intended mission (Ekaterini, 2010:3). These elements involve the parameters of a single organisational structure in which the given elements are connected to each other. Similarly, Kabacoff (2002:207) remarked on the significance of getting to know the personal characteristics of individuals, for instance age, and whether it has some connection to management practice, based on some suggested principles. Management is expected to become proficient with a diversity of proficiency in order to execute their work successfully, with the full understanding of their roles and tasks (Stockdale & Crosby, 2004:206-223; Wallace, 2004:54). However, the experts in management development focus primarily on the coefficient fundamentals impacting an organisation's anatomy, administrators, personal characteristics and the managers' premiership techniques used (Ekaterini, 2010:3).

1.10.2 External organisational factors

According to Ingram and Media (2009:11), external organisational factors consist of the entire establishment that prevails exterior to the frontier, with substantial impact on its growth and survival. An equally significant aspect of any organisation is that it has an insignificant effect on or has no power over its surroundings; nevertheless, it is required to relentlessly examine, furthermore, become accustomed to this peripheral dynamism and this hands-on or spontaneous reaction pilot to meaningfully alter the conclusion (Gupta, 2009:3). Furthermore, Anugwom (2005:157) and Kotler (2003:596) postulate that an organisation has to be accustomed to its external environment to be prosperous and there should be well calculated between what the environment wants and what the organisation has to

bargain as well as between what the organisation needs and what the environment can provide.

Furthermore, Imaga (2003:321), Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (2002:129) highlight that the external environmental factors that influence an organisation's operations can be categorized into technology factors, legal factors, economic factors, political factors, socio-cultural and demographic factors. According to Kotler and Armstrong (2005:67), every new technology replaces an older technology and the technological environment is highly dynamic as new technologies render the old ones obsolete whilst creating new markets and opportunities. Technology includes the technical equipment that is used in the industrialization of the artifact itself in the event of high-tech trade; this can evidently revolutionize how organisations operate in the current era (Gupta, 2009:3). Also, Thompson and Martin (2010:6) point out that technology also forms a component of the organisation; in addition, it is employed for outwitting benefit and provides a valuable contribution, possibly in both industrialized and service industries (Thompson & Martin, 2010:6).

In addition to external forces, an organisation is also expected to put up with the legal system, new laws and policies of the nation state in which they run their businesses (Gupta, 2009:4). Another factor which affects the success of the business is the economy. Economic factors are probably the most apparent and predominant group of environmental variables affecting all organisations worldwide (Rosenbloom, 2004:75). According to Froneman (2004:45), the trade and industry outlook outlines the focal point in the micro atmosphere and all other surroundings. The physical aspects that include inflation, the recession along with the organisational cycle insist on the goods and services through convincing patrons to have another look at their range in terms of purchaser commodities (Nieman & Bennett, 2002:33).

Furthermore, social changes take various forms in changing people's values, beliefs and attitudes (Sadler, 2002:11). Moreover, Meulenbergh and Viaene (2005:17) explain that there are two notable basics of the changing social environment, namely, changes in value and changes in lifestyles. However, citizens revolutionize

in haste and these changes are calculated on the foundation of performances such as interest as well as views (Froneman, 2004:48).

The demographic factors, according to Cronje, Du Toit & Motlatla (2004:109), refer to physical resources such as water, air climate and forests that people need in their day to day lives and development. The political factors, according to Sadler (2002:145), entail the opinionated transformation taking place at each point from local to global. Political factors can generate both pressures and prospects for organisations in terms of establishing open international markets when it comes to opportunities and can influence tenders on the threat part (Froneman, 2005:48). Furthermore, as globalization increased, Bartlett and Ghoshal (2000:139) posit that many organisations become conscious of a premeditated resolution along with a high opinion regarding the proliferation. However, an organisation should take into account the difference in formulating and applying strategies as they have proven to work differently in different countries or regions (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2000:139).

1.10.3 Personal factors

General consensus has it that organisational commitment and job satisfaction have, of late, received significant attention that these two variables serve as major determinants of organisational performance and effectiveness (Riketta, 2002:257, Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian & Wilk, 2001:7). The counter argument is supported by evidence from Lok & Crawford (2003:321) who stipulate that whenever workers are disgruntled at the organisation, they bound to be incompetent and begin to venture for greener pastures elsewhere or will possibly be psychologically withdrawn from the organisation. However, personal factors that could play a significant role are values, personality and commitment.

1.10.4 Organisational performance

According to the results of management processes, the premeditated forecast to the functioning of the idea, predicates the dimension of organisational recitation (Fauzi, Svensson, & Rahman, 2010:134). Gavrea, Ilies and Stegorean (2011:284, Ekwueme, Egbunike & Onyali 2012:80) assert the magnitude of measuring

organisational performance, particularly in the context of the existing economic catastrophe, facilitate the recognition of those aspects that ought to be treated with concentration in order to advance the performance of an organisation.

Organisational performance, under this nature, usually delineates, in the fiscal reports, as a permissible prerequisite intended for organisations across humanity (Hubbard, 2008:177). Furthermore, organisational performance can be measured as an overall outcome of the strategy applied by the organisation for a product or an industry (Neely, 2007:204). In other words, organisational performance can be referred to as a multi-dimensional paradigm with each industry, having its own standards of performance (Pathak, 2011:13).

Organisational performance can be distinguished between financial and non-financial and is often measured using sales growth (Fraquelli & Vannoni, 2000:27, Crabtree & DeBusk, 2008:8). According to Richard, Devinney, Yip and Johnson (2009:718), organizational performance take on board the three distinct areas of the organizational aftermath, namely, monetary performance, shareholder return and product market performance. Traditionally, the annual reports traditionally serve as the medium used by organisations to enlighten stakeholders in relation to its accounting and financial viability system (Finch, 2005, cited in Reddy & Gordon, 2010:19).

1.10.5 Organisational Competitiveness

Organisational competitiveness is viewed as a skill applied by nations in order to remain competitive, which results in it positioning itself over other nations in terms of key industrial sectors (Mullineux & Murinde, 2003c:3). Ionescu (2008:123) suggest that for an organisation to remain competitive in a contemporary period, the consolidation, development and implementation of appropriate strategies is required. This implies that the competition is a vital and essential action of an organisation. According to Ionescu (2008:123), organisational competitiveness also necessitates the planning and defining of a suitable organisational scheme that will consider adjustments identified within the organisational settings and the development phase of the organisation that will be achieved in a long-term competitive advantage. It is,

however, said that if an organisation dominates its competitors for prolonged periods of time, the organisation has a persistent competitive advantage in terms of presenting a product unrelated to that of its contestants (Rothaermel, 2008:201).

As an alternative, the basis of hyper-competitive gain has efficiently supplied goods at comparable costs, especially in comparison to competing organisations (Fistung, 2001:4). Rao, Greve and Davis, (2001:457) observe that competitiveness ranges from macroeconomic policies to macro guiding principles at the height of the organisation, and that it enhances the potential, and thus the desire to compete in the industry. Ricupero (2004:66) supports this notion by reiterating that competition compels organisations to explore new techniques resulting in the realization of new business ventures by altering certain criminal activities in order to cut costs.

1.10.6 Organisational image

Organisational image is a result of the impact of the message in which the organisation constructs and spreads their deliberate objectives, undertakings, inventiveness and targets that reflects their core values (Bravo, Montaner & Pina, 2009:315). Similarly, this can mean a consciousness attached to the customers' intellectual alertness as a result of the intensification of presentiment, ideas, mind-set and encounters with the organisation (Hatch, Schultz & Williamson, 2003:1041, Bravo *et al.*, 2009:315). However, Pathak, (2011) postulates that academic literature and industry reports are filled with numerous organisational performance measures such as profitable liquidity, growth, efficiency, innovations, learning and output size, stock prices and capitalization, survival, development and other hybrid ratios (Pathak, 2011:3). Organisational reflection is strictly interconnected to product impartiality (Caruana & Chircop, 2000:43).

In general, organisational image is reflected as an asset that renders the organisation an opportunity to differentiate itself from the rest through maximization of their market share, profits, creating a center of attention for potential consumers, hanging on to the established ones, and counterbalancing the contender's activities (Bravo *et al.*, 2009:315, Sarstedt, Wilczynski & Melewar, 2012:285). Furthermore, organisational image is, by and large, considered a decisive aspect in the

assessment of an organisation; the reason for this is the impression that remains in the customer's mind at whatever time of inquiry about the name of the organisation (Kandampully & Hu, 2007:435, Hatch *et al.*, 2003:1041, Nguyen, 2006:227). Kandampully and Hu (2007:435) state that the organisational image consists of two main components; namely, the tangible characteristics and responsive, comparative opinion, position and viewpoint one has regarding the organisation. These normally accumulate through the understanding the consumer gains over time with the organisation.

1.10.7 Organisational sustainability

Dyllick & Hockerts (2002:130) define organisational sustainability as the ability of an organisation to possess leverage in the financial, societal and ecological assets for subscribing to sustainable development contained in the opinionated sphere. However, starting from an organisational focus on sustainable development, Silva and Quelhas (2006:385) pronounce that organisational sustainability explores the equilibrium that links what is socially, economically and ecologically sustainable. According to Savitz and Weber (2007:73), an organisation is sustainable when it generates profits for shareholders, protects the environment, and improves the lives of the people with whom it interacts. Noting the compelling nature of this evidence, to be efficient is a priority for an organisation and seeks to achieve eco-efficiency (Bleischwitz, 2003:453). Eco-efficiency is a fundamental part of any movement towards organisational sustainability (Savitz & Weber, 2007:73).

Furthermore, Munck and Borim-de-Souza (2009:1) argue that sustainable organisational actions instantaneously pay attention to socioeconomic development that enables the survival of present and future generations and takes note of those which have the lowest environmental impact due to operational activities. Consequently, organisations require a management tool that provides the ability to measure, assess and augment organisational sustainability (Kaptein & Wempe, 2002:142). It could also be said that some of the managerial tools are currently used in management practices and competences in this regard (Maggi, 2006:207).

However, sustainability reporting, according to Ekwueme *et al*, (2012:709), is regarded as one such device for announcing organisational performance with regards to CC operations. Furthermore, Dyllick and Hockerts (2002:130) affirm that researchers seek to unveil how organisations can endorse financial viability by escalating their collective and environmental good; that is, organisations with the intention of matching sustainability with organisational prerequisites. In order for an organisation to become sustainable, it necessarily integrates the economic, social and environmental pillars that create organisational sustainability. In this manner, Lorenzetti, Cruz and Ricioli (2008:33) suggest the economic pillar as an action that refers to the organisational impact of the economic conditions of stakeholders, as well as the economic systems, at all levels. According to Azapagic (2003:303), economic viability is the central part of sustainable development that entails the profitability result in job growth and improves the living conditions of the community.

In a more direct approach, Dyllick and Hockerts (2002:130) purport that an organisation's economic sustainability reveals its capacity to realize its activities in a way that is both responsible and results in a considerable profit. The environmental pillar refers to the conservation and management of natural resources that necessitates that organisations scrutinize their operations and products that are likely to affect both the living and inert natural systems, resulting in minimizing the negative and intensifying the positive impacts, in both inputs and outputs (Kranjc & Glavic, 2005:189).

1.11 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

1.11.1 Research questions

Based on the purpose and objectives of this study, the following research questions will be addressed:

- What are the internal organisational factors that impact perceptions regarding CC behaviour?

- Which external business environment variables have an impact on perceptions regarding CC behaviour?
- Do personal factors of marketers and shareholders have an impact on their perceptions regarding CC behaviour?
- Does CC behaviour improve organisational performance?
- Does CC behaviour promote organisational competitiveness?
- Does CC behaviour enhance the organisational image?
- Does CC behaviour improve organisational sustainability?

The research questions comprise the foundation for ascertaining the following hypotheses for this quantitative study which seeks to measure the effects of CC in Zimbabwe.

1.11.2 Research hypotheses

According to Haber (2002:39), a hypothesis is an assertion of two or more variables that recommend a response to the research query and are created prior to the study since they are pointers of the data gathering, examination and elucidation of data. Similarly, a hypothesis creates the research process framework, which will allow the researcher to realize the intended goal (Bulajic, Stamatovic & Cvetanovic, 2012:170).

The following are the null hypotheses to be tested in this study:

- H0₁: Internal organisational factors, as measured by workforce orientation, shareholder participation, employees and work ethics do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.
- H0₂: External factors, as measured by global economic, legal, technological and government do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.
- H0₃: Personal considerations, as measured by individual, values, commitment, sensitivity and personal importance do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.
- H0₄: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

H0₅: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence organisational competitiveness in Zimbabwe.

H0₆: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence organisational image in Zimbabwe.

H0₇: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence sustainability in Zimbabwe.

The following section outlines the scope and delimitation of the study and the research plan of the study.

1.12 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The research carried out in this study is intended to review the literature and empirical study of CC responsibilities in Zimbabwe's business sector. Conversely, the fundamental responsibilities to society cover compliance with basic laws and the volunteer responsibilities which are goals that every organisation has set for itself. The study will focus on the extent of the influence of perceptions of CC behaviour in terms of the natural environment and social dimensions within the organized sector and the interested parties. However, in order to promote the participation of all organisations in CC activities, this study will intensify its findings to make sure that individual organisations meet the expectations of society. The researcher will also focus on the variables identified in the proposed conceptual model so as to encourage organisations to engage in CC behaviour in Zimbabwe, with the aim of contributing to the board of knowledge in the field of CC.

1.13. STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The chapters of this study are structured as follows:

Chapter 1: Background and scope of the study

This chapter is comprised of the introduction to the study; as such, it covers the background, problem statement and the research objectives of the study. In addition, the research methodology is discussed herein and the clarification of the key concepts pertinent to this study are pronounced.

Chapter 2: Business environment of Zimbabwe

In this chapter the business environment of Zimbabwe is highlighted. This chapter will explore the environmental influences on the business environment of Zimbabwe, which are political, economic, social and technological forces (PEST).

Chapter 3: Theories of Corporate Citizenship

This presents CC as a concept, together with theories of CSR and their real world application. The research presents the theories of CC. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the initiatives and benefits of CSR with the intention of spearheading organisations in order to recognize the effects of their responsibilities to stakeholders outside of shareholders.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Overview of Corporate Citizenship

This chapter offers a theoretical conceptualization of CC. It examined the content of existing indulgent of CC and places them in the existing structure of investigation into organisational practice with organisational-society relations.

Chapter 5: Creating an enabling environment for corporate citizenship behaviour

This chapter provides possibilities and opportunities of creating an enabling environment for CC behaviour.

Chapter 6: A hypothetical model of Corporate Citizenship behaviour in the organisation

This chapter puts forward the anticipated hypothetical model and research hypotheses to be utilized in this research. However, it is about a model for management perceptions of CC and to examine how the independent variables play their roles in terms of internal, external and personal factors and the mediating variable of the perceptions regarding the CC strategic plan and CC organisational plan and their effects on organisational performance and sustainability as dependent variables.

Chapter 7: Research design and methodology

A summary of the research methodology is provided in Chapter 7. This chapter outlines the research design, research method, population under study, sampling procedure, and the method employed to amass data. Matters regarding the consistency and soundness of the research instrument will also be attended to in this chapter.

Chapter 8: Empirical results of management and employees perceptions regarding Corporate Citizenship behaviour in the organisation

The empirical results of this study are presented in this chapter together with the examination and elucidation of data from the responses based on the patterns and trends that may materialize. The results are demonstrated by means of tables, charts and graphs.

Chapter 9: Summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations

This chapter presents an overview of the outcomes of the study. Moreover, this chapter proposes a set of important recommendations that have been identified in accordance with the findings of the study.

1.14 Summary

Chapter 1, above, provides a comprehensive overview of the current research together with the motivation, justification, purpose and objectives of the study as well as its research design and methodology. In addition, the chapter provides a brief discussion of the existing literature on the thematic areas and hypothesizes a model of CC activities and their influence on management perceptions regarding CC behaviour. The next chapter, Chapter Two, explores the business environment of Zimbabwe by focussing on the business environment pertaining to the effect of political, economic, social and technological forces (PEST).

CHAPTER TWO

BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT OF ZIMBABWE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided the background and scope of the study, which covers the broad CC agenda that places organisations within the framework of the societies in which they operate. It has been revealed that organisational leaders the world over have prioritized and made CC fundamental to their organisations. A background of the most prevalent CSR concept as a building block of the modern business and its societal relations has been highlighted in addition to how CC, as a concept, came into being as a new terminology that replaced existing notions in the domain of management theory and practice. Chapter 1 also gave an account of the problem statement, objectives, methodology, sampling framework and the proposed hypotheses which were built from the previous models and the literature that revealed a number of factors that could enhance CC practice in Zimbabwe. However, the focal point of this chapter, Chapter 2, is the political, economic, social and technological forces in Zimbabwe.

2.2 BACKGROUND OF THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

Since independence in 1980, the citizens of Zimbabwe witnessed a load of multiple burdens that include economic recession, International Monetary Fund (IMF) sponsored structural adjustments, government corruption, land scarcity and drought (Callahan, 2001:85, Zamponi, 2004:28). Notwithstanding these limitations, the country continues to suffer a number of negative experiences such as international isolation which has created an explosive and exceptional cocktail of tensions; moreover, the HIV/AIDS epidemic has killed many of the country's productive people (Callahan, 2001:85, Zamponi, 2004:28). It is this context in which all imaginable evils have come together to make an existence which allows burdensome politicians and individuals to be relevant (Chitando, 2002:4).

The country was considered to be in crisis economically and socially as the severe droughts between 1992 and 1995 aggravated its growing economic and social problems (Barry, Honohan & McIndoe 2009:141, Sutcliff, 2013:2). The manufacturing sector was severely affected during the same period and the government had to abandon the economic relaxation methods followed in 1991 and 1996 (United States Agency for International Development, 2010:25). The reason for abandoning the liberalization program was because everything was done by trial and error and policy makers were not certain of which plan to execute for better results (United States Agency for International Development, 2010:25). The worst period was initially from 1997 when the country was marked out by economic collapse and intense political crisis (Zamponi, 2004:27).

However, new economic controls contribute to the informalization of the economy that led investors to lose confidence in the depreciation of the exchange rate for the Zimbabwean dollar versus major currencies, because the inflation rise abruptly forced investors to withdraw (United States Agency for International Development, 2010:25). In the same period, the supply market crashed, leading to exchange rate depreciation and the country's currency started losing its worth in the domestic market (Zamponi, 2004:27). After realizing the gravity of the situation, the government of 1996-2000 employed a follow-up program called the Zimbabwe Program for Economic and Social Transformation which aimed to redress the delay (Barry *et al.*, 2009:141).

According to Barry *et al.*, (2009:142), multitudes of fiscal challenges that include high inflation, lack of foreign currency and high financial plan deficits instigated an economic collapse; this happened so fast that the situation changed from day to day. Customer prices hiked, causing real earnings to fall and, at the time, the situation proved to be difficult to control (United States Agency for International Development, 2010:25). As previously mentioned, the social and political unrest emanated at an alarming rate, following the 1996 mass demonstration (Saunders, 2001:25). The civil unrest during the period 1996-1998 met with immense support from labor unions and, certainly, these demonstrations have subscribed to industry pressure and political forces in the country towards the end of 1999 (Saunders, 2001:25).

According to Zamponi (2004:30) and Saunders (2001:25), the country witnessed the height of its political, social and economic crisis and its social confrontation became clear. According to Moyo (2001:313), the government of the day became overwhelmed with more challenging issues related to its constitutionality, the land dispute and its war veterans. The approach to land restructuring was offered as a follow-up of the emancipation struggle (Zamponi, 2004:30). The state did not intervene in favor of the forces that were labelled as subversive elements and instruments of the West (Raftopoulos & Phimister, 2004:355). However, the upheaval was expressed through the constitutional division of land, political practice and patriotism between the intensification of anti-colonial forces and self-centered economic interests (Hammar, Raftopoulos & Jensen, 2003:17). However, as Dansereau (2003) clearly points out, the nature of deviated representation is a valuable popularization for a particular group generating lawfulness for itself amidst the growing discontentment (Dansereau, 2003:173, Kriger, 2001:80).

In February 2000, the government embarked on its economic Renaissance Plan (Millennium Recovery Plan) with the intention of curbing the challenges presented by high inflation, a large equilibrium of overhead deficits, lower exports, high government costs and the land restructuring question, which did not yield the intended results (Hess, 2001:10). During the same period, the World Bank terminated its ties with the nation state, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) followed suit by suspending the assistance it had previously rendered to the country (United States Agency for International Development, 2010:25). This brought Zimbabwe down to its knees since the IMF was its life line all this while. In 2004, the country started to lose foreign currency earnings from exports, in comparison to previous years when the situation was normal (Kairiza 2009:8). During the same period, many workers lost their jobs and job losses hovered at 80 percent, while foreign investment was in short supply and prices for essential commodities amplified rapidly (Kairiza 2009:8, Sokic 2009:19, Hanke 2008:9, Barry *et al.*, 2009:141). Subsequent to the liquidity predicament in 2004, the country's central bank introduced quasi-fiscal activities up until 2008. The fiscal predicament saw inflation peak at 231 million percent in 2008; absolute shortage was rampant and approximately 3 million people went into exile in foreign countries (Matombo & Sachikonye 2010:109).

The socioeconomic circumstances of most people in Zimbabwe deteriorated, while many professionals became economic refugees in the southern African region, or further afield (Mupedziswa & Gumbo, 2001:107). According Vambe (2008:78), discordant voices became more pronounced as it dawned on the masses that political independence had not been translated to the economic miracle that many had earlier anticipated (Vambe, 2008:78). According to the country's ruling party, it has a proverbial statement that depicts land as the economy and vice versa (Moore, 2001:253). However, the economy of Zimbabwe is centered on the land matter and, consequent to this, the country's economic mayhem and its governance have become visible and intimately interrelated (Carmody & Taylor, 2003:54). However, despite all these encounters, the situation at hand presents a stable business environment which can allow organisations to engage with and factor corporate citizenship into their strategic plans.

2.3 SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

The business environment in Zimbabwe was affected by the trade and industry adjustment programs during the 1990s and, untimely, in the 2000s; this led to the economy rendered down due to the land redistribution program initiated by the government in power in 2000 (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:12). In addition, the highly contested presidential elections of 2008, and the political impasse that followed, created political, economic and social insecurity amongst the population. The decision by professionals to leave the country has created a human capital shortage at all levels of the various sectors in the country. However, since 2000, the country remained one of the world's least economically free countries, as highlighted by the Canada-based Fraser Institute (Chauffour, 2011:170). Between 2009 and 2010, it ranked 142nd out of 144 countries (Richardson, 2014:2). Conversely, Gwartney, Joshua & Lawson, (2012:171) added that amid the causes for the country's underside status are unprotected property rights issue, lofty price lists on imports, progressively overstuffed civil servants, great challenges in opening a market, and tedious systems for the employment.

A contrary economic situation was evident in the country between 2009 and 2011, as the GDP increase averaged a remarkable 7.3 percent; this marked Zimbabwe as one of the world's fastest-growing countries in comparison to its previous status at the top of the list of the world's worst business environments (Richardson, 2013:1). Zimbabwe's performance is a result of the 2009 approval and official use of the American and South African currencies; this promptly crushed the widespread hyper-inflation and caused the country to become economically stable (Richardson, 2013:2). These currencies substituted Zimbabwe's valueless currency and expeditiously stabilized the widespread hyper-inflation in the preceding years; the inflation immediately fell to -2.3 percent in one month and stabilized thereafter (Noko, 2011:339).

Subsequently, dollarization stabilized the economy and Zimbabwe started collecting revenues more proficiently than it had in the previous situation (Robertson, 2013:3). In 2008, the hyper-inflation ended and a paltry \$133 million in taxes revenue was released the same year, but by 2011 duty proceeds rose to \$2.6 billion (International Monetary Fund, 2011:27 & 29). Despite the commendable growth in all sectors, economic and political factors have eroded the gains that were achieved in the first two decades of independence (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:12). According to Kotler and Gertner (2002:294), the business environment can be divided into two broad areas, that is, the micro environment and the macro environment. Lancaster (2011:53), defines the micro environment as those elements in which the marketing organisation has power to achieve information that assists in its advertising operations. The microenvironment of an organisation is therefore comprised of elements like internal process design, employees and shareholders, customers and suppliers as well as competitors. Kotler and Armstrong (2005:6) as well as Lancaster (2011:53) define the macro environment as those global elements over which the organisation has no control and which normally affect the organisation's aptitude to serve its customers profitably or the larger societal forces that affect the micro-environment.

The macro environmental influences, such as competitive, political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, environmental and legal factors, not only impact on an organisation's activities in the short-term, but also have a bearing on its long-term sustainability (Kotler & Armstrong, 2013, Wheelen & Hunger, 2002). However, it should be noted that after the introduction of the indigenization policy in 2008, all overseas organisations which were valued at 374,500 euros (\$500,000) or more had to give up 51 percent of their shares to Zimbabweans (Government of Zimbabwe, 2007:4). The 51 percent majority stake is comprised of 10 percent for a community trust, 10 percent of organisations and workers, while the remaining 31 percent goes to the state's National Indigenization and Economic Empowerment Fund.

The government believes that the act is crucial to render null and void colonial discrepancies and it urges investors to embrace the policy, as it is a confidence-building strategy that provides surety in terms of political solidity in the nation state and encourages win-win partnerships (Government of Zimbabwe, 2007:4). Zimbabwe is not the first country to implement an Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment program. Almost all the rich countries of the world have done this in various forms at one time or another; examples of these countries are: USA, Japan, France, China, Finland, Norway, Italy, Austria, Taiwan, Singapore, South Korea and South Africa (Dube, 2013:6).

2.4 ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

Economic growth is fundamental for sustainable development and poverty reduction (Saad & Kalakech, 2009:39). It is enhanced by strengthening the agricultural sector, encouraging investment, expanding infrastructure, improving education and health services as well as environmental restoration (Saad & Kalakech, 2009:39). Bolnick, Greenbaum, Pokhrel and Hendry (2007:7) posit that corruption in the government is an institutional barrier which can affect the proper way of doing business with profit and this is part of the decision antecedent of organisational advancement and forecast for sustainable development. Since 1998, Zimbabwe has earned the rank of the worst economy worldwide; during this period the regime's guiding principle was similar to the innate control system of the pre-independence era (Richardson, 2013:1, Bond 2000:36).

However, a change in the course of action was declared in the Millennium Economic Recovery Program formulated by the administration in 2000; the shift was not strategically articulated, instead, the strategic performance has been largely unplanned (Bond, 2000:37). The policy implementation was initially manifest by attempting to reassign the budgetary costs and subsidize the organisations by declaring annuity income so as to embrace regime bonds at depressing real interest rates and, in this manner, facilitating a decrease in the financial plan shortage (Buckley, 2002a:75). Furthermore, Bond (2000) articulated that the country's once strong industrial base should be back on track (Bond, 2000:185). The agricultural sector, one of the country's sources of export revenues is in shambles and, for the future of the country, the urban industrial sector is likewise in disarray, both economically and politically (Bond, 2000:186, Carmody & Taylor, 2004:9). In other words, Zimbabwe's economy is centered on agriculture, which is more significant and important than any other economic sector.

However, the economic problems are consequent of a land reform program which has caused disruption (Lyddon, 2013). In the same vein, during the period between 2005 and 2006, the economy of Zimbabwe plunged even further and this has been apparent in the World Bank's Statistical Capacity Indicator which indicates that it went down by 15 points to a score of 53 percent (United States Agency for International Development, 2007:22). Moreover, the inflation rate has skyrocketed and the official exchange rate was far from equilibrium (United States Agency for International Development, 2007:22). However, ten years ago, the country faced persistent financial fall down and the predicament was ascribed to economic delinquency, meager governance, and losing grip on the intercontinental community (United States Agency for International Development, 2007:9). The government's verdict was to pay no attention to monetary constrictions and thus made large pay-outs to war veterans of the sovereignty struggle of 1997 and the 1998 political impediment.

This was followed by the announcement made by government that it will seize white-owned land, which was another crucial activity of a contentious land reform program for instinctive land redistribution in 2000; this led to an abrupt turn down in output and yield in agriculture, which was previously the stronghold of the financial system (United States Agency for International Development, 2007:9, Bolnick *et al.*, 2007:15). However, the country is still witnessing a significant number of complex economic challenges which include its poor road and rail network, authoritarian shortfalls, fragmentary indigenization coercion, guidelines quandary, external arrears burden and unprescribed employment (African Development Bank, 2011:2). The tightening of Zimbabwe's economy has been functioning backwards due to a deteriorating industry and consequently causing harsh conditions along the value chain (United States Agency for International Development, 2007:43).

Zimbabwe's economic situation used to make headlines the world over, however, the situation has improved even though the challenges are still visible (Pelz, 2013:1). After the adoption of the multi-currency regime in 2009, the economy recorded positive growth rates of 5.7percent and 8.1percent in 2009 and 2010 respectively. The projected growth rate for 2011 was 9.3 percent (World Trade Organisation, 2011:8). Zimbabwe's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is estimated to grow by 5percent in 2013 and 12,8 percent in 2014, with the growth underpinned by mining and agriculture. The country has received positive developments since dollarization and huge opportunities are evident across the economy. The positive growth rate in GDP is largely a result of policy measures instituted subsequent to the development of the inclusive government in 2009 (World Trade Organisation, 2011:9).

The consistent implementation of these policies, which included acceptance of a multi-currency regime, cash budgeting as well as other relaxation considerations of price controls and quasi-fiscal processes led to the stabilization of the economy. However, the government's 2012 proposal of the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socioeconomic Transformation (Zim-Asset) policy document, which seeks to deepen its involvement in business, is likely to increase the running costs of existing organisations and will provide an enabling environment for economic empowerment (Robertson, 2014:4).

The current situation presents a viable business environment which can provide a good platform for organisations to consider carrying out corporate citizenship in their day to day operations.

2.4.1 Mining and agricultural sector developments

The international commodity prices for most precious minerals found in Zimbabwe have enhanced the feasibility of mining interests ended in the transformation of operations, mainly in the platinum and gold sub-sectors (Africa Development Bank, 2011:1). During the period between January and June 2011, gold deliveries, from the large and small scale producers reached over 4 thousand kilograms and the gold sub-sector continues to benefit from optimistic international gold prices (Africa Development Bank, 2011:1). Furthermore, Richardson (2013:11) posits that mining production between January and February 2013, was on the rise and in line with the expected targets for the 2013 budget's macroeconomic framework. Mining production remains positive between 2009 and 2010 but has slowed down from 2011 to date (Richardson, 2013:11).

However, relating to development in the agricultural sector, there are three central policy frameworks that have had an effect on agricultural performance in the country for the past two decades. Initially, between 1980 and 1990, a growth with a fairplay agenda was embarked upon by the government as it wanted to rectify the imposing heritage in favor of communal farmers; this was followed by the structural adjustment market-oriented reforms and the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) which was implemented in 1991 and, lastly, with the most superficial repercussions for the sector, was the year 2000 program for land movement and relocation which was still a work in advancement (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2009:2). In the same way, farming production improved in 2010 due to improved maize, cotton, sugar and tobacco production (Africa Development Bank, 2011:2). In regards to agriculture, maize output was projected to increase in 2011, but it failed to reach the annual state-run supplies of 1.8 million tonnes, resulting in the consequence of a maize insufficiency of 500 000 tonnes (Africa Development Bank, 2011:2).

However, one third of the communal land is productive and two-thirds of this communal land are fairly dry and suitable for livestock (Mutisi, 2009:4). It should be noted that the food available to feed the nation originates from three sources: household production, industrial imports or relief flows from donor countries and organisations (Moore & Stanford, 2010:438). Domestic food production relies on rain-fed crop growing and the unstable household per capita production is often directly linked to the fluctuating yearly trade in requirements (Barrett, 2001:335). The relationship between agriculture and economic growth has been re-examined in the literature, in recent years (Mapfumo, Mushenje & Chidoko, 2012:19). Economic growth is fundamental for sustainable development and poverty reduction and it is enhanced by strengthening the agricultural sector, encouraging the expansion of infrastructure, the improvement of the education and health services as well as environmental restoration (Saad & Kalakech, 2009:39). Agriculture is defined as the mainstay of Zimbabwe's economy (Zimbabwe Trade, 2013:2).

The performance of the economy is heavily influenced by how the agricultural sector is performing and the positive developments in agriculture filter through to the rest of the economy, and vice versa (World Food Program, 2009, Zimbabwe Trade, 2013:2). Most countries in Southern Africa depend on agriculture as their main source of food, employment and income (Government Accountability Office, 2003:30). According to Chiweta (2012:16), agriculture accounts for more than a reasonable percentage of GDP for low income countries of the Southern African region. These countries include Malawi, Lesotho, Mozambique, Zambia, DR Congo and Zimbabwe; moreover, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe were among the largest food aid recipients in the Southern African region on a per capita basis in 2003.

Agriculture continues to occupy an important position in the global economy and remains a key sector that contributes significantly to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Maiyaki, 2010: 4160, Mudzonga & Chigwada, 2009:1, Chiweta, 2012:15, Newitt, 2007:14, World Trade Organisation, 2011:9). Furthermore, agriculture is linked to other industries; namely, equipment manufacturers, feed suppliers, transportation, food retailers and other sectors in the economy (Makarfi & Dandago, 2005:221).

This is the main reason why agriculture excelled in terms of the economic performance of the country and any poor performance in this sector could have an effect on its foodstuff contribution and requirement, which might ultimately foster price hikes, retrenchment and trade reduction, which is likely to influence manufacturers that depend on the farming segment for raw material (Monke, 2006:9,50). The implication of the farming sector on the financial system of the country is that, crop growing is at the center of cost-cutting measures and is important for food self-adequacy (Mudzonga & Chigwada, 2009:11). However, husbandry plays a pivotal role in Zimbabwean wealth and has the potential to considerably reduce poverty, enhance economic growth and entrench economic stability (World Trade Organisation, 2011:9). According to Rukuni, Eicher, Munyuki-Hungwe, Tawonezvi and Matondi (2006:23), the sector provides employment and income, while it supplies raw materials needed by the industrialized segment and it contributes considerably to the total export earnings.

Agricultural production is constituted primarily of crop and livestock production; the major crops grown include maize, cotton, wheat, tobacco, sugar, horticultural products, small grains and oilseeds (Carmody & Taylor, 2003:54). The output declined dramatically over the past one and half decades, resulting in a reversal of the country's prestigious status as the largest net exporter of food in the Southern African region, to that of a net food importer (World Trade Organisation, 2011:10). According to Muchapondwa (2009:31), any hopes of reviving the economy should necessarily have to include the agricultural sector, since it is still of great importance to the country. Rukuni *et al.*, (2006:19) also reiterate that Zimbabwe has been dominated by agriculture, although it contributed only a quarter of the Gross National Product all this while. It also gives provides earnings to more than three quarters of the populace and, in most years, one hundred percent of all food and beverages have been produced locally. Furthermore, the performance of the farming sector is almost similar in all developing nations (Mapfumo *et al.*, 2012:19). Raftopoulos and Compagnon (2003:15) highlight that soon after the country attained sovereignty, the nation acquired the full power of a momentous sector of the state-run economy. Nevertheless, most organisations principally continue to be controlled by white Zimbabweans or by intercontinental organisations.

2.4.2 Fiscal policy

The African Economic Outlook (2012:6) proposes that with the cash financial code linked with the multi-currency regime, total expenditures remain pervasive in the obtainable supply cover approximated at USD 2.89 billion. However, enhanced income management, together with excellent macroeconomic outcomes, has endorsed taxes to continue to rise from USD 933.6 million in 2009 to USD 2.34 billion in 2010, and to USD 2.92 billion in 2011 (African Economic Outlook, 2012:6). Consequently, the country has comparatively sophisticated monetary frameworks and structures that are equivalent to those in the region and the results of this is the immobilization of rigorous efforts focussed on the revival of the economy and reinforcing the running of the financial sector (Saeednia & Abdollah, 2012:149). Continued contests over the functioning of the Global Political Agreement offer contradictory indications regarding financial managers and stifling efforts to re-open external lines of acknowledgment (Saeednia & Abdollah, 2012:149).

According to Zhou (2012:152), the fiscal liberty for revenue collection is severely strained in terms of funding key public services, expenditure control, public auditing, external borrowing and debt servicing (Zhou, 2012:152). The experienced manner in the income anthology sector recommends processes that are masked in privacy, elevating suspicion pertaining to the degree to which the entire civic revenues are directed into the Consolidated Revenue Fund (Saeednia & Abdollahi, 2012:150). The monetary plan is the backbone of fiscal management and moreover, it has power over government financial income (Shaw, 2005:11).

Zhou (2012:153) posits that investors, more often than not, insist on being circumvented from inflationary pressures, particularly in highly unstable socio-politico-economic environments, like this one, and particularly where the proceeds on their reserves are expected after a protracted period. The hyper-inflationary atmosphere that characterized the country between 2002 and 2008 presents a scenario of the technical hitches linked with household borrowing in highly inflationary and politically polarized backgrounds (Zhou, 2012:153).

2.4.3 Monetary policy

In 2009, Zimbabwe has espoused a multi-currency government, which revealed that the country has practically lost financial, strategic autonomy, thus making it complex for the state to interfere with suitable incentive packages and it no longer has control over monetary policy (African Economic Outlook 2012:7, Makochehanwa, 2009:3, Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2012:5). The consequential resurgence of the Zimbabwean economy is entirely dependent upon augmented monetary intermediation by the country's banking sector (Reserve Bank Zimbabwe 2012:6, Government of Zimbabwe, 2012:4, Zhou, 2012:3). There are no measures adopted so far to manage the salary bill, together with carrying out the results of the Payroll and Skills Audit, freezing of non-critical vacant posts and general establishment validation (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2012:5).

Against this background, there are serious developmental constraints imposed by persistent liquidity challenges. The Monetary Policy accords significance to strategic processes geared at encouraging economic division in order to make certain the well being and reliability of the depository system (Reserv Bank of Zimbabwe, 2012:7). Accordingly, the need to strengthen financial regulations and supervision in mitigating underlying risks that have accompanied the multiple currency system ranks high on the country's list of priorities. Significantly, 4 local financial institutions have signed agreements with Afreximbank on the modalities of the facility (Africa Development Bank, 2011:5). On the contrary, the January 2014 Monetary Policy Statement reflects unquestioning faith that Zim-Asset is a solid foundation on which Zimbabwe will build its recovery and the financial prospects remain clear if the country's export and growth prospects are open through the successful execution of policy procedures embodied in the Zim-Asset (Robertson, 2014:6).

2.4. 4 Trade policies and practices

2.4.4.1 Trade policy objectives

Zimbabwe went on board on a new trade scheme from 1990 as a result of adopting an Economic Structural Adjustment Policy with its three core pillars and objectives; namely, macro-economic policy reform, trade liberalization and deregulation (Hess, 2001:11, United Nations Conference for Trade and Development 2005:13). Under this new economic direction, Zimbabwe is in the process of developing an all-inclusive stand-alone National Trade Policy within the overall national development framework (World Trade Organisation, 2011:23). Subsequently, Zimbabwe's trade was directed by government blueprints such as the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (1981 to 1998), Zimbabwe Program for Economic and Social Transformation (1998-2000) and the National Trade Policy (Ministry of Industry and Commerce, 2012). A national trade policy encompasses things like import and export taxes, tariffs, inspection regulations, and quotas (Amadeo, 2012:17).

The trade policy is earmarked to endorse the private sector as the tool for expansion, maintaining the progressive liberalization of trade together with well-organized and global household industries, as well as smooth the progress of trade development, export endorsement and fulfillment with an intercontinental trade code of behaviour World Trade Organisation (World Trade Organisation, 2011:23). The inclusive National Trade Policy will influence the revised Industrial Development Policy to address challenges facing the manufacturing sector (Ministry of Industry and Commerce, 2012:2, World Trade Organisation, 2011:23).

Zimbabwe's policies in the independence era consisted of government control of import-licensing requirements, internal price controls, government control of agricultural marketing, and administrative setting of the exchange rate (Tekere, 2001:7). However, export taxes have the influence of plummeting the volume of exports (Piermartini, 2004:20). According to Solleder (2013), exports have been there for a while and have been part of trade policy, and they mitigate the economic crises (Solleder, 2013:3).

2.4.4.2 Import and tariff regime

According to the Government of Zimbabwe and World Trade Organisation (2011:23), imports are governed by the Open General Import License (OGIL) where imports and exports are exempted from licenses. Certain products, however, require import licenses which are managed by the Ministry of Trade and Commerce, through the Control of Goods Act. The tariff structure consists of nine (9) bands; that is, from 0-60 percent and these consist of specific duty and combination rates of duty on products such as clothing, footwear and travel bags (Government of Zimbabwe/World Trade Organisation, 2011:24). However, countries like Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia, Tanzania, Lesotho and Swaziland are likely to experience revenue loss, due to tariff liberalization brought about by the Free Trade Area (FTA) (Makochehanwa, 2012:215, Brenton, Saborowski, Staritz & Uexkull, 2009:235). The study revealed that customs unions make latent losses in revenue and welfare (Khorana, Kimbugwe & Perdikis, 2009:687).

Moreover, the trade effects of regional trade agreements, such as the FTA and customs union, are likely to negatively impact different actors within the country (Khorana *et al.* 2009:685). According to Waglé (2011:43), developing countries generally face serious revenue challenges after introducing trade liberalization because of the technical hitches faced in collecting domestic tax revenue.

2.4.4.3 Regional trading agreements

In 1996, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Member States developed and signed a Trade Protocol in order to deepen integration in the area of trade. Zimbabwe is an active participant in the integration agenda of the COMESA region, which is working on the transformation of the FTA into a Customs Union (Khorana *et al.* 2009:685). The COMESA Customs Union was launched in 2009 and was implemented in 2012 (African Economic Outlook, 2012:7). Zimbabwe is a member of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and SADC Free Trade Protocols in support of the regional integration agenda (Hess, 2001:23, Government of Zimbabwe, 2012:17).

The nation is also an affiliate of the African, Caribbean and Pacific-European Union (ACP-EU), Global System of Trade Preferences (GSTP) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in pursuit of the regional and multilateral trade integration agenda. The nation is also a constituent of the other global article of trade bodies such as the Common Fund for Commodities (CFC), International Coffee Organisation (ICO) and the International Sugar Organisation (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012:17). The FTA Protocols grant duty-free importation of goods from COMESA and SADC member states, on condition that such commodities meet the requirements of the rules of origin (Khorana *et al.* 2009:685, Hess, 2001:24). Although the profit of regional incorporation is not being questioned, the home industry capacity to face competition following the downward spiral experienced in the last few years has called for the levying of duties on selected strategic/sensitive products to nurture industries under stress (Hess, 2001:24).

The country is party to the Tripartite FTA initiative among the three Regional Economic Communitys (RECs), namely: Common Market for Sastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the East African Community (Tripartite Task Force, 2011:1). The Tripartite initiative aims to harmonize the trade regimes of the three RECs, establish gratis movement of business individuals within the three RECs, promote the joint functioning of regionalcommunications projects and programs and officially authorized and institutional activities for the regional support network that included the establishment of a series of common institutions at the tripartite level (Tripartite Task Force, 2011:2). As predetermined by the Cotonou Agreement, the European Union (EU) and African Carribean Pacific (ACP) countries decided to bargain and finalize the new Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs), which were attuned with the WTO by December 2007 (Laporte, 2007:24). Under the new agreement, trade involving the EU and ACP nations would be on a reciprocal basis. Zimbabwe is negotiating the EPAs under the pattern of the Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA) region (Hess, 2001:31). The ESA region comprises 11 countries that are also COMESA member states (European Commission, 2007:1).

In the latter part of 2007, it became apparent that it would be impossible for the ESA region and the EU to conclude the EPA negotiations within the stipulated deadline and this led to the conclusion of an Interim EPA (Laporte, 2007:26). Zimbabwe signed the Interim EPA in August 2009 but has not yet ratified the agreement. Zimbabwe will gradually liberalize 80 percent of its trade in from the EU within 15 years, after a moratorium of 5 years (World Trade Organisation, 2011:28).

2.4.4.4 Global System of Trade Preferences (GSTP)

Zimbabwe is a participating affiliate of the Global System of Trade Preferences (GSTP) arrangement which makes an offer for privileged excise concessions and other forms of cooperation aimed at opening up and increasing trade amongst developing countries, within the context of South-South Cooperation (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011:29). The opening of the country's overseas buying and selling regime, together with fiscal stabilization and domestic deregulation, has been a key pillar of the nation's inclusive financial enhancement program which was undertaken since 1991.

After several decades of import-substitution policies, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) Secretariat's report on Zimbabwe's trade policies and practices (GATT, 1994:2, Government of Zimbabwe, 2012:31). Zimbabwe is an original WTO Member, having been a GATT Contracting Party. Zimbabwe ratified the WTO Agreement on 5 March 1995 (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011:31). Zimbabwe is a participative affiliate of the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Group, the WTO African Group and the G-90. It is also a member of the G-33 and G-20 agricultural consortium of 3rd world countries (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011:31). With regards to the country's interest in the Doha Development Agenda (DDA), Zimbabwe is focused on agriculture, market access, special and differential treatment (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011:31). Zimbabwe will continue to actively participate in the Multilateral Trading System negotiations to advance the country's interests (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011:31).

2.5 POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

The division between the dictatorial country and neo-liberalism has seen political ramifications take root in Zimbabwe in the late 1990s (Sutcliffe, 2012:4). In addition, the investigation of the labor group has shaped violently contradictory viewpoints on whom and what constitutes the liberation struggle (Sutcliffe, 2012:4). The political implications of this continue to cause a split between urban and rural struggles, whilst generating the insight of two rival blocs in the country's politics and the general public (Ncube, 2010:77). At this juncture, neoliberalism emphasizes itself more clearly within the metropolitan labor coalition, in the form of a superior domination agenda. The topical political developments have further put Zimbabwe on the world map and have even compromised Zimbabwe's democratic standing, where political leaders defy the very laws that they put in place (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2008:635). The new 2013 Constitution did not help either and the Legislation alone cannot ensure people's participation in governance (Mapuva & Muyengwa-Mapuva, 2013:20).

According to Ranger (2004:218) and Raftopoulos (2009:213), the ruling party, in reaction to the menace of the opponent movement, captured the attention of the masses by utilizing the nationalistic history in order to strengthen its political dominance. It thus emphasized the ruling party's emancipation struggle testimonial and related the Fast Track Land Reform Program (FTLRP) to an incomplete fight against white colonial rule and its puppets, namely, the opposition parties and the civil society organisations. However, there is growing consent in the 2011-13 literature on Zimbabwe that even though the country has become noticeably stable since the previous ballot in 2008, the risk of internal conflict during the period surrounding the 2008 elections was high (Lucas, 2013:1). Although the country had numerous elections, however, those held in 2008 and 2013 stand out as the most significant due to the fact that these were closely contested (Mapuva & Muyengwa-Mapuva, 2013:16). The two elections were in stark contrast to each other in that while the 2008 elections were held amid pockets of violence yielding contested results, the 2013 elections were held in a peaceful environment, making it difficult for the losers to lodge legal battles against the results (Mapuva & Muyengwa-Mapuva, 2013:16).

The aftermath of the 2008 elections saw the establishment of a Government of National Unity (GNU). However, regrettably, in the Zimbabwean case, the term of the GNU was characterized by the supremacy of Zimbabwe National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU (PF)), paving the way for its electoral triumph in the July 2013 elections, a manifestation of the supposition of the preponderance of the incumbency (Mapuva, 2013:105).

2.6 SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

Consequently, the year 2010 was an important year in Zimbabwe in the sense that economic and comparative political permanence sanctioned some societal recovery in the sector, slowed the rapid decline in Millenium Development Goals indicators (MDG) and created a more favorable atmosphere for attaining women's and children's rights (United Nation Childre Fund, 2011:1). The situation remained subtle as capping machinery was relentlessly taxed over the past decade, thus forcing women and children to be extremely susceptible (United Nation Children Fund, 2011:1).

On the socio-cultural perspective, families which form the basic unit of the Zimbabwean social structure broke down as spouses separated to look for a means of survival (United Nation Children Fund, 2011:1). This led to widespread infidelity and prostitution in the country. In May 2005 government undertook an operation to destroy illegal structures in its urban areas. The operation was called code Operation Drive Out Rubbish/Restore Order (Murambatsvina) and, according to United Nations (2005) reports, the operation left an estimated 700 000 Zimbabweans homeless and without any livelihood (Vambe, 2008:72, United Nations, 2005). Mainstream Zimbabweans experience a number of transformations that have taken place in the country's economy which have gravely distressed their source of revenue and the repercussions for downstream industries and services have been dreadful, if not appalling (Vambe, 2008:72, Makumbe, 2009:5). Zimbabwe, prior to the year 2000, possesses an effervescent and well-organized social sector, with one of Africa's most remarkable learning methods as it ranked above 85 percent of the literacy rate (Makumbe, 2009:5).

The University of Zimbabwe's Medical School, as an example, has added significantly to the schooling of highly regarded and highly trained medical doctors for years (Makumbe, 2009:6). However, due to socioeconomic factors affecting the country, the education system is marred by inefficiency and incompetency. Zimbabwe had an estimated population of 12,754,378 people in 2011, of whom 54 percent were between the ages of 15 and 64 and the unemployment figure remained at over 70 percent in 2011 (Islam, 2013:2). Despite the fact that the rural-urban split existed in Zimbabwe, as in other African countries, a poor quality of life was more well-defined in the countryside than in metropolitan areas and an influx of the majority of school leavers frequently travel from the village to the city in search of employment (Makumbe, 2009:6).

2.6.1 The Infrastructural Development

The widely held view of the 1980s into the 1990s was that Zimbabwe had adequate infrastructure that was well maintained and that led to adequate infrastructure services to sustain industry sector investments and offer comparatively far more than the requirements of the society at large (Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce, 2009:8). The Government is a signatory to a number of SADC protocols that have implications for the design and implementation of infrastructure policy and programs within Zimbabwe (Africa Development Bank, 2011:17). The country continues to prioritize infrastructure development for economic growth (Shumba, 2001:18). This is complicated by the force to create a center of attention for foreign investment with tourism, agriculture and mining, which are compelled to be the viable sectors. In place of minimizing the unfavorable effects of infrastructural development on the environment, the government of Zimbabwe has established an Environmental Impact Assessment Policy and engraved in this policy is a section where all projects with potentially undesirable environmental effects are subject to environmental inspection (Shumba, 2001:18). Alternatively, Public-Private Partnerships are increasingly seen as a mechanism to develop infrastructure on a cost effective and sustainable basis (Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce, 2009:8).

According to the African Development Bank (2011:18), the amount and quality of a nation's economic infrastructure has a significant bearing on economic progression in both the medium- and longer-term. Empirical studies concerning the influence of infrastructure for growth and productivity reveals a positive impact on the relationship between infrastructure and output, growth, or productivity (Esfahani & Ramirez, 2003:443). Calderon (2008:18) builds synthetic indices that capture the stock of the different types of infrastructure assets and the quality of service in different infrastructure sectors. The results are less categorical when infrastructure spending flows are used as proxies for infrastructure. Straub (2008:54) asserts that positive consequences of infrastructure on growth is frequently attained when corporal pointers for infrastructure are used.

The analysis by Leipziger (2005:43) has pointed out that there is an undeviating correlation amid infrastructure amassing and growth, as measured by improvements in GDP per worker and growth in infrastructure stocks per worker. The status of infrastructure and services that serve the Zimbabwean economy stands at three main transport modes: roads, railways, and aviation (African Development Fund, 2011:20). However, the economic collapse of the past decade led to large declines in rail and aviation services and the weakening in the physical infrastructure has been accompanied by a lack of development in building institutional capacities for the management and regulation of the basic services related to these networks (African Development Bank, 2011:4)

2.7 TECHNOLOGY

The Zimbabwean government has progressively shown a deep gratitude for Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in view of the fact that the commencement of the Central Computing Services in 1972 had mandated to make available a central computer services to all government ministries and departments (Government of Zimbabwe, 2010:7). The country is set to remedy this developmental irregularity through the execution of the National ICT Policy Framework and the Strategic Plan spearheaded by the Ministry of ICTs (Government of Zimbabwe, 2010:3). The ICT is developed to offer a roadmap primarily to convert Zimbabwe into an ICT Centre with a vibrant, continual economic formation (Kundishora, 2010:4).

Over and above, the Strategic Plan will concentrate on the developmental hindrances coupled with the functioning of the National ICT Policy Framework (Kundishora, 2010:4). The government establish a second university or campus, and made some recommendations for the new university to have a bias towards science and technology (Hess, 2001:10, Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:10). In addition, more institutions which center their attention on science and technology have been recognized and these include the Chinhoyi University of Technology, the Harare Institute of Technology and the Scientific Industrial Research and Development Centre in Harare, while the polytechnics in Harare and Bulawayo produce various technicians (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:10).

Furthermore, the higher education institutions in Zimbabwe are pioneering short and medium term mechanisms of convalescing various Science and Technology (S & T) knowledge and skills, particularly in the IT sector (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:11, Kanyongo, 2005:65). The country has, of late amassed significant human resource capital for S &T because of its lofty state of literacy, approximated at more than 90 percent (World Bank, 2009:25). The country is also on course towards recognizing Zimbabwe's niche in the international S&T market given this vast intellectual, inspired potential (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:12). The science and technology policy was finally launched on the 5th June 2002 (Hove & Zinyama, 2012:285) and that led to the creation of the Ministry of Science and Technology Development in 2005.

The Science and Technology Policy underscored the importance of mainstream Science in all sectors of the economy and ensures that Zimbabweans benefit from the acquisition and utilization of available technology in improving the quality of their lives (Hove & Zinyama, 2012:285). Additionally, it has subdivided human reserve expansion where it upholds skills training and capacity-building at all points in the private and public sectors and in all education (Hove & Zinyama, 2012:285). According to Isaacs (2007:4), Zimbabwe has been under pressure with economic, social, and political turmoil over the past years, followed by an incapacitating consequence on its already-declining edification system. However, the approach towards science and technology is negatively affected by the brain drain and a framework that relies on government, economic possessions (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:12).

Science and technology are fundamental to a self-motivated trade background and a motivating power behind augmented output and competitiveness. The current technological setbacks are costly to Zimbabwean companies and make it difficult to motivate the Sales Force in Zimbabwe (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012:7).

2.8 SUMMARY

Business has a fundamental function to take part in the rebuilding of Zimbabwe and organisations need to rise to the challenges of exploiting the multiplier effect of their activities. Large organisations can motivate growth by creating linkages with, and investments in, small and medium enterprises, thereby developing the capacity of organisations to participate more profitably in the supply chain. Half of the healthcare in Zimbabwe is delivered directly by the private sector and private education is following the same trend to offer alternatives to poor quality services at state facilities, due to a lack of funding, mismanagement and skills shortages. The situation in Zimbabwe is not much different from various nations in Sub-Saharan Africa. The country is facing mounting disagreements and volatility subsequent to its growing arrears levels, and the preface of structural adjustment and domination conditionalities undermining the state-run economy tapers state aptitude and political options.

The economic and political factors in Zimbabwe have eroded the gains that were achieved in the first two decades of independence. All the sectors in Zimbabwe became underfunded due to the economic turmoil that followed the land redistribution program initiated by the ruling party. A host of economic problems initiated an economic collapse. The decision by professionals to leave the country has created a human capital shortage at all levels of sectors in the country. The brain drain was caused by the flight of professionals and left the economic system in a dilemma. However, the key factors that affect business in Zimbabwe have been highlighted as the accessibility and the outlay of razors; infrastructure, in particular, power scarcity and cost; economic policy volatility and lofty labor costs as well as inflexible labor laws. The country had its own economic challenges and it is evidently clear that struggling organisations are more perceptible in the country.

Unemployment has reached unprecedented levels as organisations were forced to lay staff off and, in extreme cases, close down due to the current ailing economic situation. Moreover, the economy still faces challenges which include infrastructure deficiencies, large external debt burden and limited formal employment. In a nutshell, economic growth is fundamental to sustainable development and poverty reduction. Having highlighted these aspects concerning the business environment in Zimbabwe, this study seeks to professionally advocate for CC as a way in which organisations can effectively assimilate social, environmental and economic conditions into their values, culture, decision making, policy and processes in an apparent and liable behaviour, thus releasing improved customs inside the organisation, and generating societal prosperity and advancement.

The following chapter, Chapter 3, presents the landscape of theories together with a proliferation of approaches and goals that formulate lasting profits by means of organisational power in a dependable manner. Moreover, it focusses on organisations' incorporation of social requirements and contributing to a better social order by undertaking what is morally acceptable.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORIES OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter, Chapter 2, witnessed the fiscal catastrophe in the country, supported and intensified by the mirror challenges of biased totalitarianism and neo-liberalism. Against this backdrop, these two challenges previously acted in concert, but towards the end of the 1990s they started to deviate. The chapter reveals the key factors that affect business in Zimbabwe as the accessibility and cost of capital, shortage of infrastructure, economic policy insecurity, high labor costs and inflexible labor laws. However, the economy still faces challenges; these include infrastructural deficiencies, a large external debt burden and limited formal employment.

However, this chapter presents a background of theories together with approaches of corporate citizenship (CC) (Garriga & Mele, 2004:51). The CC structure gives the impression of giving an account of this new reality. In the 1980s, 1990s and early 21st century, the term CC was established to refer to the correlation between an organisation and society primarily through practitioners; it has since become more and more popular in organisations (Altman & Vidaver-Cohen, 2000:145, Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:213). CC offers significant substantiation of the benefits of an organisation bringing resource expenditure together with economic conscientiousness in order to be profitable, in addition to employment formation, expertise transfer, road and rail network development, information distribution and the legal responsibility to abide by the laws of the respective society (African Development Bank, 2004, as cited in Visser, 2005:30, Fourie & Eloff, 2005:39, Visser, 2005a:29, Matten & Ceane, 2003:111).

3.1.1 Background of Corporate Citizenship (CC) theories

There various hypothetical frameworks set for the organisational decision to donate to more successful universal administration; for instance, the organisational sector provides hypothetical discernment on how to be communally and eco-friendly conscientious (Levy & Kaplan, 2008:433). This approach will foster the organisational sector in potentially constricting the dogmatic cleft at the global level (Levy & Kaplan, 2008:433). However, the social and environmental facets are the discretionary components of organisational responsibility. The other important responsibility is ethical and it mandates that organisations perform what is right, just and fair, even when the organisation is not obliged to do so by the lawful structure (Matten, Crane & Chapple, 2003:110). Furthermore, philanthropic responsibility falls into the category of being socially oriented, and it exemplifies those behaviours preferred by society, such as, contributing capital to diverse kinds of social, educational, entertainment or cultural purposes (Matten *et al.*, 2003:110).

The notion of CC, even though reflection on the concept is fairly new, has always meant a sense of being in the right place in terms of a community and, presumably, for this reason, it has been well accepted amongst managers that organisations desire to take into cognizance the communities in which they operate (Matten *et al.*, 2003:109, Wood & Logsdon, 2002:59). However, the concept cannot have the same meaning and application for everyone. In this regard, there are three distinct views of CC: limited view; a view of CC as equivalent to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and, lastly, an extended view (Matten *et al.*, 2003:59). In the limited view, CC is applied as fairly similar to organisational philanthropy, social savings or certain tasks directed towards the local society (Garriga & Mele, 2004:57). According to Carroll (1999:268), the perception of CC as equivalent to CSR is relatively ordinary and it is alleged that the concept offers a new and prolific role for organisations in society. Either way that it is defined, the concept overlaps with other premises in terms of the liability of the organisation in society (Carroll, 1999:268). Furthermore, in the extended view of CC, organisations penetrate the ground of nationality at the point of regime malfunction in safeguarding its citizens (Matten *et al.*, 2003:109).

According to Garriga & Mele (2004:55), this view arises from the fact that some organisations have progressively attempted to replace the powerful institution in the traditional concept of citizenship. According to Wood & Logsdon (2002), organisational citizenship cannot be considered the same as personage citizenship; instead, it is secondary to individual citizenship (Wood & Logsdon, 2002:86). Theories and approaches of CC tend to center on the human rights, responsibilities and possible partnerships of organisations in society (Garriga & Mele, 2004:55). According to Donaldson and Dunfee (1994:252 & 1999:414) and Dion (2001:118), theories of CC are based on social contract theory and, in spite of some noteworthy differences in CC theories, most authors commonly converge at a point that includes a strong sense of organisational responsibility towards the local community and building community-partnerships. This is a notable way of formalizing the willingness to improve the local community and for planning for the surroundings (Garriga & Mele, 2004:57, Andrioff, 2001a:200, Zadek, 2001:200).

The concern for local communities is now a global issue which has extended progressively owing to the exceptionally forceful disputes in opposition to globalization towards the end of the 1990s (Garriga & Mele, 2004:57). Subsequently, an organisation which is considered a global actor with local responsibilities which places emphasis on organisational responsibilities in a global context, has been measured as a key concern by some theorists (Wood & Lodgson, 2002:86). On a similar note, Ruggie (2004:499) elucidates on how the nation, private and civil society performers who seize biased dependability in a dynamic interplay, can help to set up large-scale markets within mutual communal values. Similarly, Moon (2002:424) maintains the theory that organisations have a role to play in creating sustainable development. The most important part is renewed interest in CSR and the fact that new options have been proposed in terms of CC and organisational sustainability (Garriga & Mele, 2004:51). This chapter tends to clarify the CC theories and related approaches.

3.2 THEORIES OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

The contemporary theories of CC affirm that organisations with good CC are maximizing their profits; that is, the materialization of CC as a well-recognized decision is strongly related to the emergent principle that an organisation performing CC is regarded as the best in terms of stakeholders (Bagnoli & Watts, 2003:419). Theories of CC basically address the ethical responsibilities of organisations and the values that should guide organisational engagement with society (Anderson, 2009:6). Subsequently, they offer a useful perspective with which to re-frame and reform foreign direct investment law (Anderson, 2009:6). However, CC also adopts the similar theories such as instrumental theories, in which the organisation is viewed as a mechanism for wealth creation only; this implies that its communal activities are only a means to achieve financial results. The political theories concern themselves with the supremacy of organisations in society and a responsible use of this power in the political arena (Garriga & Mele, 2004:51).

Further, the integrative theories focus on the amalgamation of public demands and include the following approaches: issues management, public responsibility, stakeholder management, and corporate social performance (Wood & Iodgson, 2002:59, Andriof & Macintosh, 2001:145, Matten & Crane 2005:166). The ethical theories, however, focus on the right thing necessary to achieve a good society (Freeman & Phillips, 2002:331, Garriga & Mele, 2004:51, Falkenberg, 2006:14). Furthermore, some theories combine different approaches and use the same terminology with different meanings. Carroll (1994:6) and Garriga & Mele (2004:52) posit that the map of the overall field is quite poor and some attempts have been made to address this deficit. However, Carroll (1999:268) has presented a chronological series of the most important progressions in a more systematic way in regards to how the responsibilities of organisations in society have been understood. Table 3.1 below depicts the CC theories and their related approaches.

TABLE 3.1 CC Theories and Related Approaches

Types of theories	Approaches	Short Description
Instrumental theories focusing on achieving economic objectives through social activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Maximization of shareholder value -Strategies for competitive advantage -Cause-related marketing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Long-term value maximization -Social investments in a competitive context - Strategies based on the natural resource view of the firm and the dynamic capabilities of the organisation -Strategies for the bottom of the economic pyramid -Altruistic activities socially recognized used as an instrument of marketing
Political theories Focusing on the responsible use of business power in the political arena	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Corporate constitutionalism -Integrative Social Contract Theory -Corporate (or business) citizenship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Social responsibilities of businesses arise from the amount of social power that they have -Assumes that a social contract between business and society exists -The organisation is understood as being like a citizen with a certain degree/type of involvement in the community -The organisation is understood as being like a citizen with positive participation in the society
Integrative theories Focusing on the integration of social demands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Issues management -Public responsibility -Stakeholder management -Corporate social performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Organisational processes of response to those social and political issues which may impact significantly upon it -The law and the existing public policy process are taken as a reference for social performance -Balances the interests of the stakeholders of the firm -Searches for social legitimacy and processes to give appropriate responses to social issues
Ethical theories Focusing on the right thing to achieve a good society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Stakeholder normative theory -Universal rights -Sustainable development -The common good 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Considers fiduciary duties towards stakeholders of the organisation. Its application requires reference to any moral theory (Kantian, Utilitarianism, theories of justice, etc.) -Frameworks based on human rights, labor rights and respect for the environment -Aimed at achieving human development considering present and future generations -Oriented towards the common good of society

Source: Garringa & Mele (2004:63-64)

3.2.1 Instrumental theories

According to Michalos and Poff (2012:71), Falkenberg, (2006:14) and Garriga & Mele, (2004:53), instrumental theories are a strategic instrument used to achieve financial objectives and, ultimately, wealth creation. Friedman (1970) is regarded as the main agent of the outlook which proposes that the only accountability that organisations have towards society is the maximization of profits to the shareholders within the permissible framework and the ethical practice of the country (Friedman, 1970:122, Jensen, 2000:37). Instrumental theories, according to Windsor (2001:226), have long enjoyed wide recognition in organisations and the proposition of prosperity accumulation have gradually governed the notion of dependability.

Moreover, in regards to profit maximization, instrumental theories do not prohibit taking into account the interests of all who have a stake in the organisation, which would in this case be the stakeholders (Garriga & Mele, 2004:43, Magill, Quincii & Rochet, 2013:5). The fulfillment of these interests can add to organisations taking full advantage of the shareholder value, even though inconvenient, are some symbols of a willingness to transform (Tirole, 2001:35, 2006:56). Allen, Carletti and Marquez (2009:19) affirm that shareholder value maximization is the primary responsibility of the management of an organisation. In addition, a satisfactory stage of investment in charity and collective action is also good enough for the sake of profits (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001:120).

According to Porter & Kramer (2002:56), Prahalad & Hammond (2002:6) and Hart & Christensen (2002:55), the instrumental theories can be identified as strategies for the competitive advantages approach which encompasses communal savings in a ready for action framework and policies for the foundation of the financial pyramid. Michalos & Poff (2012:71) identify the three most important groups of instrumental theories, depending on the cost-effective intent proposed. In the first group the objective is the maximization of shareholder value, considered by the share price (Jensen, 2000:37). This method normally deems significant shareholder maximization as the primary reference for organisational decision-making (Garriga & Mele, 2004:53, Magill, Quince & Rochet, 2013:5). This is what is termed enlightened value maximization (Jensen, 2000:38).

However, the theory specifies long-term value maximization or value on the lookout as organisations' focal objectives. In a similar manner, this intent is employed as a decisive factor for making requisite tradeoffs amongst shareholders (Michalos & Poffs, 2012:72, Garriga & Mele, 2004:53). Consequently, a momentary gain will weaken the long term prosperity of both (Porter & Kramer, 2006:7). It is interesting to note that there is an acknowledged scenario that shareholder value maximization is not unable to coexist with fulfilling certain interests of people with a stake in the organisation; in this case, this would refer the stakeholders (Jensen, 2000:37). According to Husted and Allen (2000:21), Michalos and Poffs (2012:73), the other group of theories focuses on the premeditated objective of accomplishing a competitive advantage which, during the extended period, will generate long-term profits.

3.2.2 Political theories

Political theories focus on the relations and acquaintances between organisations and society, the power and position of the organisation and its intrinsic conscientiousness (Garriga & Mele, 2004:55). Organisational constitutionalism, according to Corbett & Slender (2009:149), presupposes that there are values and ideas, which are useful when considering the legal regulation of organisational governance and decision-making in the public political life. However, the adjective 'organisational' signifies what is contained in the context of an organisation and these values and ideas are likely to have different formulations, applications and connotations in the broader political context of the organisation (Bottomley, 2007:115). The organisation is also much like a citizen in terms of its participation in the community (Wood & Lodgson, 2002:59, Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:213). According to Wood and Lodgson (2002:60), in the midst of these factors, the calamity of the Welfare State and the proliferation phenomenon, coupled with the deregulation line of action and diminishing expenditure with technical advancements, have meant that some outsized cosmopolitan organisations comprise better financial and collective influence than some governments.

3.2.3 Integrative theories

Integrative theories give the impression of how organisations put together social demands by arguing that organisations depend on the social order for their existence, stability and intensification (Falkenberg, 2006:14). Integrative theories basically focus on joint administration matters, municipal responsibility, stakeholder management and organisational community action (Ismail, 2009:203). In addition, Garriga & Mele (2004:58) postulate that the desires are commonly measured to be the method by which humanity acts with organisations and provides a particular legality and prestige. This implies that organisational leadership should consider collective expectations and assimilate them in a manner that fosters unity with social values. Similarly, Michalos and Poff (2012:78) support this notion by emphasizing that it all depends on the standards of the social order at that period, and appears through the organisation's purposeful tasks. The content of organisational accountability is limited to the space and time of each state of affairs; in a nutshell, it shows that there is no explicit accomplishment that supervision is accountable for performing all the way through time and in each trade (Garriga & Mele, 2004:58).

3.2.4 Ethical theories

The focal point of the ethical theories is the moral desires that fortify the rapport linking organisations and the general public (Garriga & Mele, 2004:55). In other words, these theories are based on the doctrine that articulates the precise thing to perform in order to realize a superior society. The other notable common good released in this regard is that organisations have been put under pressured by non-governmental organisations (NGOs), activists, communities, governments, media and other institutional forces to focus on an orientation towards the common good of the society (Alford & Naughton, 2002:27). According to Garriga and Mele (2004:59), other organisations establish an exchange of ideas with an extensive continuum of stakeholders in order to concentrate on their receptiveness to the commonly ambiguous signals received from the organisations' surroundings (Garriga & Mele, 2004:59). In addition, this dialogue increases the understanding of the predicament faced by organisations and it enhances an organisation's sensitivity to its environment (Kaptein & Van Tulder, 2003:208).

Further, organisational ethics are expected to provide theoretical guidance for CC and the political processes of new governance, in which organisations work together with all other stakeholders - that include state actors - work together to solve problems, especially on a global scale (Pies, Hielsche & Beckmann, 2007:5). In spite of some remarkable differences in CC theories, it shows that most authors focus on a physically powerful good judgment of organisational conscientiousness towards confined community-partnerships, which are regarded as the precise conduct of formalizing consideration for the environment and demonstrating commitment in improving the local community (Garriga & Mele, 2004:57).

The apprehension for general communities has extended widely to a universal eagerness which is, in greater part, appropriate to the very passionate opposition to globalization, mostly from the end of the 1990s (Garriga & Mele, 2004:57). Subsequently, organisations are well thought-out as a key issue by various researchers (Wood & Logsdon, 2002:59). Furthermore, CC theories and approaches, to some extent, center on the rights, responsibilities and probably partnerships of organisations in society, even though further advancement is also possible (Wood & Logsdon, 2002:59). Donaldson & Dunfee (1994:252, 1999:237; Dion, 2001:118, Browne, 2008:1) explain that some CC theories are based on a social contract theory which increases the likelihood that the necessity for community alignment and certain intrinsic limitations may supply the public with an ordinary foundation for morality.

3.3 SUPPORTING THEORIES OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

There are many theories which can be linked to the concept of CC but, for the sake of this study, the following three theories will be focussed on: rational choice theory; stakeholder theory and social contract theory. These theories will be introduced and explained in regards to how they can be implemented for CC.

3.3.1 Rational Choice theory

According to De Haan and Vos (2003:29), rational choice theory has its foundation in utilitarian moral philosophy, political and legal theory as well as economics.

Over the preceding decades, the theory has rapidly developed into a rational action theory which is a variety of action theories (Henry & Lucas, 2009:21). It is thus clear that the theory can be deemed important, according to whether a theory possess strong rationality requirements that focus on situational rather than procedural rationality and provide a general special theory of action (Henry & Lucas, 2009:21). According to Scott (2012:1), people are assumed to be motivated by money and profit; this has authorized the theory to erect official and repeatedly predictive representations of individual conduct.

However, Wandling (2011:34) the argument that rational choice theory is largely about the adaptation of the economic vision that an organisation focusses on and making the best possible choices through rational thought. Social phenomena is ultimately reduced to problems of social cooperation, for instance, because it is expected to receive an eventual benefit in return (Pelaprat & Brown, 2012:1). Social phenomena are often interpreted as an impasse between individual rationality and collective rationality; that is, acting in a way that may perhaps eventually yield a benefit (Pelaprat & Brown, 2012:11). Subsequently, in the economic model, rational choice theorists perceive of societal interface as a procedure of communal trade (Scott, 2012:4).

3.3.2 Stakeholder Theory

There is a hypothesis that ideal stakeholder theory is an essential and unequivocal part of undertaking excellent commerce (Freeman *et al.*, 2004:364). The theory requires management to clarify the shared sense of the value by focusing primarily on certain points in order to bring its mainstay stakeholders together. Furthermore, the theory sets in motion management's clarification of how they want to tackle the business and the kinds of relationships that they opt to construct with their stakeholders in order to put across their rationale (Freeman *et al.*, 2004:364).

Post, Preston & Sachs (2002:8) classify the stakeholders of an organisation as the citizenries that add value, either willingly or unwillingly, to its affluence, accumulation, aptitude and activities. In this regard, stakeholders comprise of creditors, employees, customers, suppliers, and communities at large (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007:5). More so, the theory emphasizes that organisations have a communal duty that requires that they regard the interests of all parties affected by organisational actions during decision making processes (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007:5). However, from the defined list of stakeholders, the complexity of bearing in mind the ordinary surroundings as stakeholders is real in the sense that the mainstream description of stakeholders habitually eliminates the natural environment because it is not an individual, group or community (Buchholz, 2004:130).

Phillips & Reichart (2000:185) dispute the idea of affording human status to the natural environment so that it would qualify for organisational stakeholders. However, if the interests of rightful stakeholders is a concern to the organisation, then the ordinary atmosphere has to be taken into account (Branco & Rodriguez, 2007:8, Rampling, 2012:14). Moreover, the interests of the environment and future generations should be taken cognisance of in decision-making structures, be it those of organisations or the general public (Rampling, 2012:24). Phillips & Reichart (2000:191) identify the challenge that only human beings are competent in creating the basic commitment for instituting stakeholder position and the required inclination in the approval of the benefits of a mutually valuable cooperative scheme.

3.3.3 Social Contract Theory

Social contract theory believes in impartiality as the result of an agreement which a person makes, for shared gains, to delineate the circumstances of the environment and governed by law (Nussbaum, 2004:5, Nbeta, 2012:268). It is a dominant theory of impartiality in the western practice of political philosophy and such theories has been significant in philosophy in relation to international fairness (Nussbaum, 2004:5). Social contract theory defines the general principles of justice that national persons would agree to, under ideal situations, rather than on an authoritative individual or supra-personal decision making process (Benham, 2008:4).

Unlike utilitarianism, the guiding idea behind the social contract theory is the notion of justice or fairness, thus usually considered a version of deontology/obligation which means that moral value is determined not by consequences, but by the applicability of appropriate moral rules or principles (Benham, 2008:5). Rousseau (2004:21), offers a dissimilar insight concerning the social contract, by elucidating that it does not work to forfeit autonomy to an administration with the intention of security, for the reason that a lot can be achieved by collaborating as a component of society. Investigating each of these philosophers' observations concerning social contract theory, it should be noted that it only inquires about the moral environment and the bond with influence (Browne, 2008:4).

Hobbes (2005:481) suggests that the key information around principles is the same as the law, simply because the activities are presided over by the law and not by conscience. This concept is described in the circumstances of an environment where no decree exists whilst the condition of the natural world is introverted and insensitive (Hobbes, 2005:481). Therefore, people are bound to obey the rules, make a pledge and preserve allegiance to it (Hume, 2000:184). The belief that individual personality significant to progress is also revealed in social sontract theory which campaigns that individuals would fluently work together as a component of humanity (Browne, 2008:4). On the contrary, Hume (2000:181) elucidates that individuals are unsurprisingly incited to bear with the set of laws of the general public and uphold its ethical obligations since exclusive of them, the world would disintegrate (Browne, 2008:5). However, it should be considered that the responsibility and duties are multifaceted by natural history and can be warranted in an integer of traditions; the social contract theory may well be just one of them (Browne, 2008:5).

3.4 THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

It is prominent that organisations will adopt a CC strategy in order to achieve a desired goal (Mandimika, Taderera, Nyikahadzoi & Matamande, 2008:3). The adaptation of the strategy will be prejudiced by one of two hypothetical perspectives, namely: the classical economic perspective or the socioeconomic point of view (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:3).

3.4.1. The Classical Economic Approach

The earliest authority to talk about the classical approach was Adam Smith (Kreitner, 2000:307). In addition, Mandimika *et al.*, (2008:3) show that the approach advocates that the responsibility of an organisation is to maximize the shareholder's wealth. Evidently, social responsibility entails the full service of the shareholders' interests and, once an organisation makes profits, it automatically turns out to be collectively answerable in the course of reimbursement of levy and improving the standard of living of its employees, thereby alleviating poverty in the process (Smit & de Cronje, 2004:122, Donaldson, Werhane & Cording, 2002:456, Porter & Kramer, 2002:57). Contrary to this analysis, effectiveness is usually negotiated when managers employ themselves in public errands and are diverted from their core objective of maximization of investor capital (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:5). Various intellectuals support this thought, thus influencing the approval of fewer CC programs. A contemporary explanation pertaining to the nature of the classical approach is that it is unfavorable to the general public (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:5). In addition, the approach can be equally expensive and devastating for the organisation's future continued existence as indicated in Waddock, Bodwell & Graves (2002:132) and Crane & Matten (2010:614).

3.4.2 The Socio Economic Approach

The socio economic method is trendy and is commonly practiced in organisations (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:5). An equally significant point to note is that the organisation has to take good care of its society beyond the provision of commodities and services (Smit & de Cronje, 2004:122). Organisations are held responsible for the environmental and societal expenditure consequent of their behaviour and, as a result, organisations have to act in response to society's struggle, despite the fact that they might not be openly answerable (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:5). Considering the theory, organisations have to take into cognizance the community response analysis of stakeholder theory that has an inclination to manipulate, or the power to impinge on, an organisation's pronouncement and conduct (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:5).

However, by the same token, managers are required to evaluate and balance the interests of stakeholders and shareholders (Donaldson *et al.*, 2002:456). In addition, applying the socioeconomic approach there exists the possibility of designing more constructive programs which promoting the organisation and society at large (Mandimika *et al.*, 2008:5).

3.5 SUMMARY

The chapter concluded that most CC theories draw attention to the main aspects of meeting objectives that generate long-term profits, by using organisational power responsibly, assimilating all shared wishes and providing to a better person through ethical means. However, there are lay-people connecting organisations in the logic that they characterize general humanity seeking to pressurize policy-making exclusive of being part of the regime or powerfully connected to the manufacturing sector. Accordingly, organisations perform an educational role, in collaboration with the government, through informing consumers and policymakers. The following chapter, Chapter 4, will examine the essence of the modern perspectives of CC and position them within the existing body of enquiries dealing with organisation-society relations.

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3, theories of CC were discussed together with the values that should guide corporations' engagement with society. It has been concluded that most CC theories focus on meeting goals that generate long-term benefits, as well as using and assimilating societal expectations that contribute to a better society by acting responsibly. However, the shared aims between these organisations represent civil society seeking to impact policy-making without any significant attachment to the industrial organized sector. Organisations are taking responsibility for educating consumers and other sectors in working together with the state. The global village is increasingly welcoming CC as a set of organisational practices appropriate for society and the organisations. However, this chapter examines the content of existing inclinations towards CC and places them in the existing structure of investigation into organisational practice with organisational-society relations.

4.2 THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

Apart from focusing on fulfilling their economic and legal obligation, organisations have some responsibility to society as well (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85, Sarbutts, 2003:340). CC is a structure of an organisation in which self-regulation is incorporated into an organisational model (Lam, 2009:137, Maxfield, 2008:367, Torres-Baumgarten & Yucetepe, 2009:217). CC is defined as an organisation engaged in activities that develop a common plan beyond what is expected by regulation (Siegel & Vitaliano, 2007:773). Emphasis has been placed on the incorporation of CC into an organisation's policy in order to make sales and gain profits (Siegel & Vitaliano (2007:773). However, organisations participate in a social context for accountable patrons by unambiguously connecting their collective input with artifact sales (Baron, 2001:7).

However, a variety of subject matters restarting the affiliation involving the organisation and the general public as well as the innate milieu has since been developed (Martí-Ballester, Rovira-Val & Drescher, 2013:2). Alongside the expansion of diverse subject matter and terms, organisations inspect their community and natural undertakings; consequently, divergent advancement in these proceedings have thrived as well (Porter & Kramer, 2006:78, Garriga & Melé, 2004:51). CC and the role of organisations in society have been discussed for centuries by various organisations (Locke, 2003:2). Although articles are published on, and awards given to, upcoming organisations pertaining to CC, there is no agreed-upon definition of CC (Locke, 2003:2).

In the literature, the commonly used term for socially aligned organisations is Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), followed by various optional ideas and terms such as Social Responsibility (SR), Corporate Citizenship (CC), Corporate Sustainability (CS) and Corporate Social Performance (CSP), Business Ethics (BE) and Stakeholder Management (Montiel, 2008:245; Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85). However, this study focusses on corporate citizenship (CC). Friedman (1962:10) asserts that the community accountability of organisations is to amplify its returns. Furthermore, Harribey (2011:23) is of the opinion that it is a significant risk for an organisation not to take CC on board since it has now become convention to integrate a framework of sustainable development into business practice. The World Business Council on Sustainable Development (WBCSD) is in support of this notion; it cites that organisations cannot linger on one side, since they form a fundamental component of the society and cannot go on with the production of affluence if the adjoining world is disintegrating (World Business Council on Sustainable Development, 2001:16).

Subsequently, more contributions tend to lobby organisational commitment in order to move beyond the legal sphere and to focus on improving the welfare of society (Sethi, 1975:1758). The literature on CC has acknowledged four expressions of CC: economic face, legal fees, ethical face, and philanthropic face. These are similar to the dimensions of CSR (Carroll, 1997:46, Özdemir & Dinçer, 2013:321). CC embraces all the facets of corporate social responsibility, responsiveness and performance (Carrol & Buchholtz, 2008:60).

It is proposed that CC can be applied to remedy the decline of CSR by launching the regularizing agenda essential for the discretionary parameter (Whitehouse, 2003:312). In both social-political deliberations, it is accepted that managerial practice in the organisation has to change its approach to business (Habisch, 2004:335). According to Whitehouse (2003:312), the increased attentiveness of social, political and economic supremacy inside an organisation has not been harmonized by enhancing the methods to make such influence legitimate. An organisation, according to the philanthropic responsibility, is likely to be a fine organisational inhabitant where, in this case, it should give monetary and individual assistance to society as a way of improving its quality of life (Özdemir & Dinçer, 2013:322).

4.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

Although popular since the 1990s, CC is not a new theory. It came into existence as an outstanding phrase in management literature and was first used by practitioners and people working in organisations to refer to the social role of an organisation (Altman & Vidaver-Cohen, 2000:1, Matten & Crane, 2003:2, Crane, Matten & Moon, 2003:109). The motivations for the growth of CC are often considered to be: legislation, globalization, stakeholder demands and systematization; although these are not the only aspects to have influenced the CC program, they are however among the most significant and are often considered drivers for transformation (McIntosh *et al.*, 2003:67; World Economic Forum 2008:10, Leipziger 2003:19).

CC is to a great extent about helping countries build a better economic environment and it is the result of a sequence of growth that started three decades ago (Shkolnikov & Sullivan, 2004:1, Johnstone, 2008:11). Moreover, in the literature, CC materializes with various undertones and approaches, and frequently without a clear-cut definition (Grit, 2004:97, Verschoor, 2006:2). The expression is often used interchangeably with other ideas such as organisational social responsibility, organisational social responsiveness and organisational social performance (Küskü & Zarkada-Fraser, 2004:57, Rondinelly & Berry, 2000:73, Pinkston & Carroll, 1994:157).

However, it is important to note that these terms have also been addressed as components of each other and, in most cases, they are applied as exclusive of and distinguishable from each other; this maintains that CC is a peculiar and empirically researchable construct (Küskü & Zarkada-Fraser, 2004:59). Furthermore, CC can be elucidated from a logical extension of the legal set of guidelines of organisational personality, for instance, the degree to which organisations convene the discretionary, economic, ethical and legal tasks forced on them by their stakeholders (Whitehouse, 2003:304, Maignan & Ferrell, 2000:284, 2001:457). However, this is basically identical to Carroll's (1991:39) definition of CSR, even though it has a minor diversion in that it prioritises the direction of the meeting of tasks in contrast to the responsibilities themselves. Thus, CC is by all intents and purposes a performance focussed re-conceptualization of CSR, possibly showing the eminence of CC in expert dialogue (Davenport, 2000:210).

Birch (2001) elaborates further by affirming that CSR is further concerned with social responsibility as an outer concern, whereas CC is viewed as a modernization to the CSR theory in that CC influences the organisation's perception of itself as a component of the municipal tradition (Birch, 2001:53). From this perspective, CC is an annex to a distinct outlook on CSR, as epitomized particularly from an Indian viewpoint and in the German language literature (Sundar, 2000:11, Ulrich, 2000:26). CSR has received a lot of condemnation that led to the development of the notions of organisational accountability, organisational social responsiveness and organisational societal performance (Sison, 2009:238). However, it is proposed that CC be used to remedy the shortfalls of CSR by instituting the normative structures essential for obligatory regulation (Whitehouse, 2003:312).

It was formerly intended to emphasize, expand and readdress the magnitude of CSR and, as such, was adopted by the academy (Sison, 2009:241). Evidently, CC is purely used to rename and reactivate existing notions regarding organisation-society relations, possibly to make them more reachable and attractive to the organisation's stakeholders. Furthermore, CC is customarily understood as an organisation's membership in society and, at the same time, the notion of CC may possibly be used as a logical means to comprehend the civil liberties and obligations pertaining to diverse stakeholders of the organisational polity (Sison, 2009:236).

Citizenship, in the noninterventionist tradition, is understood as a status of personage privileges (Faulks, 2000:55). Carroll (1998:1) defines CC in precisely the same manner as CSR was delineated two decades ago; that is, as an expansion to a lineage of occupation in conceptualizing the responsibility of organisations in society in the organisational literature, this is a lineage most remarkably subjugated by the opinion of CSR (Carroll, 1979:497, Pinkston & Carroll, 1994:157). The approach has been taken up by a handful of authors using slightly different phrasing (Ulrich, 2000:26). Similarly, Andriof & McIntosh (2001) explore organizational, societal responsibility by using it synonymously with CSR which, in this case, does not predominantly further the explicit understanding of CC (Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:13). However, the concepts of CSR, CC and their inconsequential modifications have come into view as different compartments of the connection between the organisation and broader society (Sison, 2009:235). According to Matten & Crane (2005:156), next to governments' suggests that organisations also govern governments.

In the 1990s, CC penetrated a new segment of organisational strategy and performance since there was nothing happening in sustainability and the environment, and it is still perceived to be lagging behind (Johstone, 2008:5&13). The turning point for CC has been recorded in 2005 and it was noted that two of the country's prevalent organisations publicized their guiding principles for using CC as the advancement of their bottom line (Johnstone, 2008:13). In the same period, an increasing body of intellectual exertion devoted to CC issues has been developed and there is now a devoted Journal of CC and a number of study centers framed unequivocally around CC have also emerged, these include Boston College in the USA, Warwick University in the UK; Deakin University in Australia and Eichstätt University in Germany (Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:13). Furthermore, a mounting number of administrative units and consultancies dedicated to CC have also emerged, such as the US Chamber of Commerce, Centre for CC, the African Institute for CC, The Copenhagen Centre and London based CC organisations (Matten & Crane 2003:5). Despite continued globalization, the CC of organisations, particularly those operating outside their domestic markets, has received specific attention (Pinkston & Carroll, 1994:158).

Multinational organisations are under intense pressure to show evidence of good CC in the country in which they operate and are more in the limelight than in their home country (Pinkston & Carroll, 1994:158). Nevertheless, the concept shows that the performance of organisations within certain parameters of society could, at some point, be looked at through the lens of citizenship (Sison, 2009:241). CC therefore makes use of the approach of political theory, which is a discipline in which the concept of citizenship is native, hoping to shed light on the stature and dynamics of organisations as community institutions (Sison, 2009:241). Some organisations have captured the Global Compact as an example that will guide them in the execution of and required administration of CC; this has been welcomed and willingly adopted by some renowned transnational organisations worldwide (Matten, Crane & Chapple, 2003:109, Sharma, 2004:116).

Further, Matten *et al.* (2003:113) speculate on one of the challenges associated with conceptualizing CC by citing that there are so many theories presented by various authors in the deliberation of organisational and societal relations. CC has primarily been concentrated on the higher echelons of the organisation for analysis purposes, in terms of looking at how individual employees develop attitudes and behaviours and how they perceive it (Peterson, 2004:296, Ackfeldt & Wong, 2006:727). The behaviour and attitudes of employees influence the quality of service, consumer contentment as well as individual and organisational performance (Koys, 2001:101, Sergeant & Frenkel, 2000:18, Allen & Meyer, 2000:285). Overall, being good corporate citizens means taking care of the short-term profits, taking into consideration the desires and anxieties of diverse stakeholders, pressing forward principled standards and encouraging superior organisational surroundings (Shkolnikov & Sullivan, 2004:3). Investing in sustainability can be a consideration of a good investment strategy. Throughout the world, most organisational leaders adopted CC as a key priority for their organisations and aligned staff functions responsible for CC so that they factor it into their line of business (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:3). These leaders also strive to create a market for citizenship by way of offering products and services that encompass both making money and creating an enhanced world (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:3).

4.3.1 Stages of Global Corporate Citizenship (CC)

Table 4.1, below, shows the five stages of CC, which includes seven different dimensions thereof (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:105-107).

Table 4.1: Stages of Corporate Citizenship (CC)

Posture	Stage 1 Elementary	Stage 2 Engaged	Stage 3 Innovative	Stage 4 Integrated	Stage 5 Transforming
Citizen Concept	Jobs, Profits and Taxes	Waking up	Stakeholder involvement	Sustainability or Triple Bottom Line	Change the game
Strategic Intent	Legal Compliance	License to operate	Accountability/ Responsibility	Integration in core business values	Market creation and social change
Leadership	Indifference of top management	Supportive	Management driven	Champion, in front	Visionary, ahead of the pack
Structure	Marginal integration	Some integration	Integration of expertise and know-how	Integration from top to bottom	Extensive Cooperation
Issues Management	Defensive	Reactive	Responsive	Proactive	Defining
Stakeholder Relationships	Unilateral	Interactive	Mutual Influence	Partnership	Multi organisational Alliances
Transparency	Defensive protection	Public relations	Public reporting	Assurance	Full disclosure

Source: Mirvis & Googins (2006:108)

Stages of CC are a developmental transformational process, linking innovative attitudes, routines, policies, agenda and relations (Carroll, 2000:187). Mirvis & Googins (2006:105), of the Center for Global Citizenship, proposed a five stage model of global CC and each stage is illustrated by divergent patterns of citizenship content, strategic intent, leadership, structure, issues management, stakeholder relationships and transparency. The stages present a hypothesis about how the CC of organisations came into being, according to a prototype of diverse phases and dimensions (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:105).

The developmental stage of CC, related to where the organisation is, decides the CC performance of the organisation (Hallback, 2011:13). Furthermore, the organisation is seen as a citizen of the society which is involved in taking responsibility for the society (Garriga & Mele, 2004:63). There is an argument that about 10 percent of management at organisations operate with a limited view of CC (Hallback, 2011:13). It is alleged that if the management level of an organisation can understand what stage of CC their organisation is currently in, this can assist them in guiding the organisation in a favorable direction (Hallback, 2011:13). This can help to identify the strategic choices, support in putting together a point of reference and objectives and, conceivably, increase the pace and process of the way forward (Laudal, 2011:234).

In the same way, the organisation's nationality is formed by socioeconomic, ecological and institutional factors. In order for an organisation to respond to market forces, it depends on the purpose of its management, how they invent their plan of citizenship, and the organisation-specific education (Hallback, 2011:13). This means that some organisations can be conscience of the existence of CC and its contribution (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:104-105). Stated differently, good organisational citizens usually become profitable, in that they ferry their own load through fulfilling their financial obligations, obeying the law, fulfilling their legal obligations, promoting moral behaviour, giving back to society and engaging in organisational contributions (Carroll, 1998: 1-2).

In a manner corresponding to Waddock (2004:5), CC is patent in the policies and functional customs an organisation grows in commissioning its associations with stakeholders and the natural environment. Stakeholder theory, in the intervening period, has concentrated on the question of which assemblage in society or organisations is to be held accountable (Freeman 1984:53, Donaldson & Preston 1995:65); this is in accordance with the study conducted by Crane *et al.*, (2003:2). Moreover, in order to quantify the influence of CC, it is imperative to evaluate the workforce's view of whether they deem their organisation to be a virtuous organisational citizen (Özdemir & Dinçer, 2013:325, Glavas, 2009:31).

4.4 ORGANISATIONS AS CITIZENS

CC stands for a claim by organisations for recognition that they also possess civil liberties, that they execute municipal duties, are philanthropic and that they are moral driving forces in one way or another; hence, to be recognized as citizenry (Thompson, 2008a:17). Admittedly, the new found partiality of these organisations, this idea of citizenship, works alongside the care for natural resources and performing responsibly. It also implies working with governments and NGOs in meeting the UNs Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), or appealing to other community activities that are separate entities with nothing directly to do with their own organisational activities (World Economic Forum, 2008:21).

However, the term has turned out to be progressively more proverbial within socio-political deliberations, and the precise implication and manner by which to execute it remains subtle (Whitehouse, 2003:302). Furthermore, the verdict on the legitimacy, potential, and connotations of organisation presupposes the identity of good citizens. In the academic literature these are viewed as being in progress and contested (Whitehouse, 2003:302; Matten & Crane, 2005:6). Even though sizeable parts of the early conference use CC more often as a new label for instituting the philosophy of CSR or sustainability; thus, growing attention can be witnessed and can be positioned in the opinionated natural world of the organisation in the midst of those who make use of the logical lens of citizenship (Matten & Crane, 2005:6).

Despite the fact that there are conceivable anxieties around organisations officially being attributed the authorized status of citizens, a theory at the outset intended for usual persons, the citizen-like character of an organisation be made more apparent if considered in regards to their role in partaking in community governance next to other citizens and their legislative body (Norman & Néron, 2008:1 Scherer & Palazzo, 2008:413). In developing a comprehensive view of CC, it has been disputed that organisational participation in the national arena has frequently been far more comparable to that of administrations and, to a certain extent, citizens (Matten & Crane, 2005:6).

In fact, the relevance of nationality, in regards to the organisation, is far more difficult than focusing exclusively on whether organisations should be accorded residency status, particularly if the self-motivated personality of the citizenship concept is taken into account, as examined in the political science literature (Crane, Matten & Moon, 2008:373). However, to a certain extent, rather than having an opinion of nation states as the classic arena of citizenship, the modern-day philosophy of belonging, rights, and responsibilities between persons has a propensity to focus on citizenship distinctiveness or cosmopolitan communities (Crane *et al.*, 2008:373). Consequently, not all of these standpoints recommend a fresh way of appreciating the political nature of the organisation but, at this point in time, organisations have also played a crucial political role in determining the dynamics of citizenship (Crane *et al.*, 2008:374).

Over the last twenty years, access to basic commodities traditionally considered part of the social rights of citizens and most industrial democracies have largely been privatized and are now governed, to some extent, by private organisations (Crane & Matten, 2007a:9). However, most of the initiatives focused on by many organisations under the auspices of CC, are feeding homeless people, helping underprivileged communities (David, 2000:4). Furthermore, citizenship may mean that organisations have made inroads into governmental functions in terms of the agenda of open-minded citizenship (Hettne, 2000:35).

In addition, the central performer within the noninterventionist vision of citizenship is the country or the law-making establishment of the country (Hettne, 2000:35). Remarkably, this responsibility of organisations is an undeviating effect of the neo-liberal upheaval of the 1980s, was resolutely slushed and the regime folded most of its monetary purpose for the sake of facilitating an array and moderation of civil liberties (Matten & Crane, 2003:10). However, some of the activities are intended to focus on defending constitutional rights which would initially have been the duty of government (Matten & Crane, 2003:11). The following section outlines the emerging perspectives of CC.

4.5 THE EMERGING PERSPECTIVES ON CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

Matten and Crane (2005:166) highlight the views of CC; namely, the limited, equivalent, and extended views. These views describe the categories of CC, particularly how it is considered and identified (Moon, Crane & Matten, 2011:206, Sexty, 2011:156). These three views are summarized in Table 4.2, below, which is followed by an explanation of these perspectives.

Table 4.2: Perspectives of Corporate Citizenship (CC)

LIMITED VIEW	EQUIVALENT VIEW	EXTENDED VIEW
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Focusing on philanthropic responsibility.• Believing in giving to the society.• Progressive self-interest.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Defined according to expectations of the society.• Stresses sustainability, task of organisation and stakeholder management.• Renaming or re-introduction of the same concepts pertaining to organisation–society affairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Focus on civil liberties.• Individual liberties, for instance, the right to education.• Civil rights, for example, the right to own property.• Political rights beyond the protection of the individual, for example, the rights to hold office and to vote.

Source: Matten & Crane (2005:168–170).

The initial perspective is the limited view, which perceives of CC as what might otherwise be called philanthropy; that is, discretionary activities to put something back into the community (Carroll, 1991:42). The equivalent view refers to CC as a wider concept of organisational social responsibility, organisational sustainability or stakeholder management and it goes beyond existing conceptions of CSR (Matten & Crane, 2003:3). The final view is the extended view of CC which recognizes the political realm that many organisations get involved in, by contributing to global governance (Néron & Norman, 2008:1, Logsdon & Wood, 2002:155).

However, from a political science perspective, the equivalent view has considered the suitability or unsuitability of the usage of citizenship to describe or conceptualize corporate behaviour (Gerencser, 2005:625, Thompson, 2006:17). The extended perspective of CC is rendering the component of citizenship and conceptualizes it as the management of a collection of civil liberties, conservatively offered and cosseted by governments (Matten & Crane, 2003:3).

4.5.1 The Limited view

Under this concept, CC is acknowledged as altruistic contributions and other aspects of organisational generosity embarked on in society (Matten & Crane, 2003:3). The strategic focus of the limited view has a propensity to display the explicit new contribution of CC to the discussions on organisations' compassion activities (Matten & Crane, 2003:8). This approach, in due course, views the emergence of CC in organisation-society associations, in its financial disposition, as a way to long-term maximization of self-interest through organisational assets in the practice and systems of the organisation's community setting. This is viewed as a new form of organisational philanthropy (Smith, 1994:104, Seitz, 2002:61).

4.5.2 The Equivalent View

Based on the equivalent view, CC is equivalent to the wider concepts of organisational social responsibility, organisational sustainability or stakeholder management. In the equivalent view, CC is principally about either rebounding CSR or turning CSR into Corporate Social Performance (Matten & Crane, 2003:4). The equivalent view of CC seems to be a serious manifestation of citizenship and its prospective for coming out with a new meaning (Matten & Crane, 2005:169). Birch (2001:53) and McIntosh, Thomas, Leipziger & Coleman, 2003:93) regard CC as a modernization of CSR in that CC causes organisations to perceive of themselves as forming part of civic and intellectual activities, while CSR is more concerned with societal accountability as an outer phenomenon.

4.5.3 The Extended view

The extended view of CC recognizes the political territory that many organisations come into in terms of contributing to an international domination or the responsibility of organisations in political processes such as lobbying (Logsdon & Wood, 2002:155, Neron & Norman, 2008:1). Others, from a political science perspective, have considered the appropriateness or incompatibility of the usage of citizenship to depict or conceptualize organisational behaviour (Gerencser, 2005:625, Thompson, 2006:366). The analysis, which relates organisations and citizenship to governance in general, can be situated in this extended context. Furthermore, the extended view of CC is believed to go beyond these conceptions rooted in CSR (Crane *et al.*, 2003:113). This persists despite the fact that there has been a significant deliberation of this perspective openly, in regards to CC, which has been alluded to in quite a number of articles such as those by Van Luijk (2001:9), Windsor (2001b:39), Wood & Logsdon (2001:83) and Logsdon & Wood (2002:155).

The common understanding of CC in this stage is an extended view that goes the extra mile towards the active formation of CSR (Crane, Matten & Moon, 2008b:36). The widespread perception of CC is more common in purview and is, to all intents and purposes, a combination of CC with prevailing notions of CSR, in the absence of endeavoring to classify any new function for the organisation (Crane *et al.*, 2008:36). A considerable number of CC publications use the theory to emphasize a range of characteristics of CSR, such as sustainability, the governance responsibility of the organisations or depicting theoretical boundaries towards the stakeholder approach (Marsden, 2000:9, Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:13, Davenport, 2000:210). Thus, CC is just operating as a modern method of presenting existing concepts in application to various, or perhaps a different set, of ideas.

4.6 FUNDAMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS AND COMPONENTS OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

The core characteristics of CC are features of the concept that tend to place CC in the limelight. CC does not have a clear definition and the term is often used interchangeably with other concepts, previously mentioned, and these have also been addressed as components of each other without being precisely defined and distinguished from one another (Grit, 2004:97, Sharma, 2004:116 and Verschoor, 2006:21).

4.6.1 Core characteristics of CC

The following are some of the core characteristics of CC and various researchers concur this notion (Waddock, 2004:5, Küskü & Zarkada-Fraser, 2004:59):

- **Voluntary.** Logsdon and Wood's (2002:156) key definition of corporate citizenship places emphasis on offering services to the community. The activities of the organisational citizenship go beyond financial commitment (Margolis & Walsh, 2001:13, McWilliams & Siegel, 2001:120). Citizenship activities encompass activities such as savings, philanthropy, rendering educational and health support as well as guarding the environment (Wood, 1991:691). According Gardberg & Fombrun (2006:329), the organisation normally does good for its own sake and, possibly, for financial benefit. Empirical research shows that certain organisations are more likely to sponsor citizenship than others (McWilliams & Siegel, 2000:603).
- **Internalizing or managing externalities.** The term CC risks being all things to all people. The essential point is to comprehend the organisation as a component of society, contributing to the well-being of society (Ward, 2003:1). As a political term, citizenship is all about commitment, responsibility and striving to make the society a better place (Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:14).

Birch (2001:59), however, argues that there is a prominent connection between organisations and citizenship where organisations perceive themselves as part of the public culture. According to Matten *et al.*, (2003:110), organisations progressively govern the citizenship rights of their workforce and their relatives; further, they argue that customers, investors and other interested parties rely solely on the activities of organisations to make certain that their fundamental civil rights and essential services are safeguarded.

- **Multiple stakeholder orientation.** According to Greenley, Hooley & Rudd (2005:1483), managers have to consider the needs of other stakeholders when formulating choices and it is described as a more inclusive and sensible approach rather than a limited or bizarre point of reference. For instance, primary stakeholders are indispensable to the survival of the organisation, while secondary stakeholders are not necessarily essential for survival (Homburg & Pflesser, 2000:449). A multi-stakeholder orientation leads to better organisational performance which includes the maximization of organisational wealth and collective benefits of all stakeholders (Greenley *et al.*, 2005:1483, Freeman, 1994:409, Kirca, Jayachandran & Bearden, 2005:24). Furthermore, competitive advantage and organisational performance depends solely on how the organisation addresses the interests of the key stakeholder groups as a whole (Luk, Yau, Tse, Sin & Chow 2005:89, Ellis, 2006:1089), Shin, Collier & Wilson (2000:317) suggest that stakeholder orientation are the main components likely to have a synergy effect, with a positive influence on organisational performance, and allow an organisation to outperform its rivals.
- **Alignment of social and economic responsibilities.** D'Amato *et al.*, (2009:8) assert that organisations worldwide are finding it costly to cope with the new role which demands they meet the needs of the present generation exclusive of finding the middle ground so that future generations are able to take care of their own expectations.

Organisations are expected to be solely accountable for the way in which they conduct their business in society and the environment. Furthermore, organisations are expected to relate to sustainability principles in regards to the manner in which they carry out their pursuits; that signifies the enclosure of community and biodegradable interests in organisational performance and in communication with stakeholders (Marrewijk, 2003:95). Organisations have formulated a variety of strategies for operating with this kind of interaction between community requirements, the state of the environment and related organisational imperatives (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:8)

- **Practices and values.** During the first industrial era, it was the organisational duty to construct value, and it was the duty of the states to standardize the trade and guarantee for smooth functioning (McIntosh *et al.*, 2003:16). Organisations have to defy the social order by approaching dependability in the legislative field (McIntosh *et al.*, 2003:16). They are fashioned by the general public and draw their legality from the social order in which they function and they are required to be proficient in order to articulate their objectives as well as identify with their packed societal and ecological impacts and undertakings (McIntosh *et al.*, 2003:16). However, Logsdon & Wood (2002:156) claim that the shift contains philosophical transformation in normative understandings of how organisations should act with respect to stakeholders.

- **Beyond philanthropy.** According to Mirvis and Googins (2006:104), all over the world, management is now making CC a main concern for their organisations, by forming citizenship steering committees, updating policies, revising programs and issuing public reports. However, by virtue of the role that organisations play in the society, they are indeed a stakeholder in the community. This role has progressed and, for that reason, organisations have developed owing to community transformation (Dubouloy & Eberhard-Harribey, 2008:50).

In leading organisations, CC is moving beyond the boundaries of legal compliance and long-established patronage to become a more central factor in shaping organisational success and legitimacy, with implications for organisational strategy, governance and risk management (Nelson, 2004:2). Growing recognition of this is visible in the fact that global organisational citizenship is more concerned with how these organisations make their profits, rather than what they do with the proceeds later (Nelson, 2004:2).

4.6.2 Components of CC

4.6.2.1 Economic Responsibilities

According Carroll (1991:39), the economic responsibility of an organisation is an honorable responsibility, ordinarily performed by organisations, because without it the others become disruptive considerations (Carroll, 1991:39). This indicates that organisations, regardless of when they function, are lawfully anticipated to donate cost-effectively to humanity (Trevino & Nelson, 2011:48). In order to meet the stakeholder demands, commodities and kindness are two vital tasks that the entire organisation is anticipated to produce; this will enable organisations to contribute to economic development (Carroll, 1991:29, Trevino & Nelson, 2011:48, Merham, Theunissen & Peart, 2009:46, Tench & Yeomans, 2009:481-497). It is a known factor that the majority of 3rd world countries undergo acute deficiency in foreign direct investment (FDI) in addition to which they suffer from high joblessness and pervasive poverty.

Zimbabwe is no exception to this; it needs organisations to come to its rescue by taking over some of its obligations (Visser, 2008:489). According to Harribey (2011:35), in terms of monetary coherency, communal prosperity and perpetuation of the surroundings, stakeholder theory puts CC interests in a pluralistic appearance where recitation is no longer determined by the shareholders only. However, the idea of domination includes a great deal of economic pointers and is currently focusing on large-scale accomplishments, interpreted as a blend of economic, social and environmental performance (Reynaud, 2003:1, Capron & Quairel-Lannoizele, 2005:1, Baret, 2006:264).

Besides serving the main purpose of enhancing the responsibility of organisations in the managerial process, CC has turned out to be a mainstay of the organisational approach to dealing with physical as well as communal and opinionated requirements (Harribey, 2011:36). The government and its communities prize the economic contribution of organisations in developing countries and this should not be perceived in a pessimistic way but, to a certain extent, as a development-oriented approach to CC that focusses on the permissive environment for accountable organisation in 3rd world countries that brings financially viable and fairness facets of sustainable development to the forefront of the list of items (Visser, 2005:29, Fox (2004:29). This approach is identical to the way in which organisations in Europe regard economic responsibility, in disparity to the supplementary contracted edge on productivity in the USA (Crane & Matten, 2007a:63). Hence, in 3rd world countries, CC tends to emphasize the magnitude of economic multipliers, including the support, expertise, transfer, building materials and institutional infrastructure able to generate investment and income, together with the creation of jobs, establishing local organisation linkages, investing in human capital, produce safe products and services as well as spreading international business standards (Nelson, 2003:4).

In support of this, organisations that operate in the 3rd world countries have increasingly reported on their economic responsibilities by putting forward economic value added statements (Visser, 2006:29). It is important to reiterate that economic responsibility has two faces: economic dependence and economic contribution (Visser, 2006:30). Despite the fact that societies become excessively reliant on multinational organisations for their financial well-being, there is the hazard of their administration jeopardizing ethical, social, or environmental standards in order to preserve their investment, or suffering a societal disturbance if those organisations withdraw, just like Anglo American did in Zambia (Visser, 2006:30). In Zimbabwe, large organisations refused to close down their operations and used CSR as a defense for their continued presence in the country; they all cited that their presence supports the employment of a significant number of employees, as well as health and education and other community development initiatives to the extent that their departure would impoverish more locals (Besada, 2010:216).

However, CSR did not use a stick to beat multinationals in Zimbabwe in the way that it has been used in other pariah states to push them to di-invest on moral and reputational grounds, for example, in apartheid South Africa the Sullivan principles of corporate governance coerced organisations to either disinvest or risk themselves becoming pariahs by associating with the apartheid regime (Schoenberger, 2000:49). In the case of Zimbabwe, it was a black government, let by a liberation hero. The disinvestment discussion was muted until 2008 when the much publicized violence that characterized both the March elections increased pressure on European multinationals to pull out of Zimbabwe.

4.6.2.2 Philanthropic Responsibilities

Organisational philanthropy can help organisations meet consumers' rising expectations of the organisation's role in society (Bonini & Chênevert, 2007:1). Philanthropy programs are known to address social and political issues relevant to the organisation, to be collaborative, and to meet any organisational goals that the organisation has for them (Bonini & Chênevert, 2007:2). Furthermore, they go beyond enhancing organisational reputation by addressing concrete organisational goals, such as learning about potential new markets (Bonini & Chênevert, 2007:2). Philanthropic responsibility is the least important responsibility (De George, 2011:54).

It is often seen in conditions of professional or optional actions and might not be necessary to be integrated in the guiding principles, aspirations and establishment configurations of organisations (Diener & Seligman, 2004:1). Philanthropy is appropriate in terms of identity creation, stakeholder management, building partnerships, reputational reflection and the promotion of commodities (Diener & Seligman, 2004:1). Philanthropic responsibility refers to the organisation's voluntary participation in a few significant performances of the general public and forms part of the public scrutiny (Carroll, 1991:42). In other words, the organisation is prepared to systematize its activities to sponsor individual well-being and benevolence to society (Carroll, 1991:42).

According to Rahim, Jalaludin and Tajuddin (2011:119), the strength of character of a charitable organisation, is not to directly achieve the financially viable return, but it can facilitate the construction and building up of the character of the organisation and improving the organisation's long-term spirited advantage in the market. It also helps to enhance workers' trustworthiness and that of the consumer. This suggests that appealing to philanthropic performance will generate a win-win situation for both the organisational sector and the social order around them. According to Heikkurinen, (2011:123), organisational identity is a strategic issue for any organisation in the sense that organisations' interaction with their stakeholders are prejudiced by their distinctiveness and representation.

On the contrary, Moir (2001:20) avows that Transnational Corporations (TNCs), particularly those aligned with the neo-classical point of view, believe that the only social responsibilities to be approved by organisations are the prerequisites of paying taxes and employing locals; aside from these, they do not see any reason why they should take part in community development. Philanthropy in organisations has been on the increase in several countries in recent years and organisations normally engage in cash contributions, grants, donations, including salary-sacrifice programs as well as the philanthropic offering of products, services, and investments (Schwabs, 2008:113).

Furthermore, philanthropic activities and accessibility factors, such as roads and bridges, to mention just a few, are essential humanitarian gestures (Kim & Reber, 2008:337, Tench & Yeomans, 2009:46). Many United States (US) banks have a project of disbursement of lower income communities to improve their economic conditions, and these loans are subject to community banking provisions. In Europe, and amongst rich capitalists in the United States, organized philanthropy becomes a requirement by the use of the lawful structure rather than optional acts of well-established organisations (Crane & Matten, 2007a:143, Schwabs 2008:113). In favor of this notion, 3rd world countries have to align more with the American model, even though generosity usually gets an even higher precedence as a demonstration of CC and this is an outcome of strong native customs of patronage in 3rd world nations (Arora & Puranik, 2004:93, Ahmad, 2006:115, Amaeshi, Adi, Ogbechie & Olufemi, 2006:86, Weyzig, 2006:69).

However, the socioeconomic requirements of underdeveloped nations in which organisations function is so immense that charity is an automatic measure and that it is a well thought-out noble act for an organisation to venture into (Visser, 2006:30).

Alternatively, community investing is an exceptional form of organisational benevolence; in this scenario, an organisation invests in programs with a wide societal approach for things of value (Schwabs, 2008:114). Many organisations, after realizing that they cannot perform well in ailing societies, have decided to venture into philanthropic activities as a direct way of improving the prospects of the communities in which their organisations operate (Visser, 2006:30).

4.6.2.3 Legal Responsibilities

Legal responsibility is a cumbersome process in the sense that the law cannot encompass everything, particularly issues pertaining to society and organisational aspects (Mersham *et al.*, 2009:46, Seeger & Hipfel, 2007:155). Visser (2006:31) asserts that in 3rd world nations, legal responsibilities are generally less prioritised in comparison to 1st world nations. This is mainly because organisations are left to operate within certain laws and there is no law compelling CC or for organisations to be involved in social responsibility activities in Zimbabwe. This implies that organisations operating in Zimbabwe traditionally suggest that their primary responsibility is to their owners, although they are aware that they cannot act separately from the society and the location in which they do business.

The agenda of CC is said to have an under-explored economic pillar comprised of the basic principles of fair dealing. As an example, one can turn to the controversy over organisation, taxation and transfer pricing, as well as the amplification of organisational governance regulation post-Enron (Ward, 2003:34). Legal responsibility means that the organisation acts in accordance with regulations, whilst making an organisational judgment (Carroll, 1991:42). The rationale of legal responsibility is to make certain that the presentation of the organisation is good enough for its stakeholders (Siwar & Harizan, 2012:3). Furthermore, legal responsibility takes account of environmental, employment, consumer and product laws (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85).

As can be expected, consumers, who are one of the stakeholders are hoping that the organisation meets the legal prerequisites for each item; that is, consumption safety, accurate merchandise information and product quality. However, failing to abide by these, organisational performance will be negatively affected (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85). Organisations in 3rd world nations usually contradict their assertion of excellent behaviour by avoiding tax, which is an example of irresponsible organisational behaviour (Christensen & Murphy, 2004:37). In order to improve environmental and social performance, the changing legal baseline for CC around the world generates a new set of business incentives (Ward, 2003:34). In general, Zimbabwe is one of the developing countries trailing behind the urbanized world in terms of integrating civil liberties and other matters applicable to CC into their legislation (Mwaura, 2004:189). Consequently, there are outstanding cases in some developing countries that have witnessed the momentous advancement in underpinning the community and environmental facets of their legislation; the 2002 King II Report of South Africa (Visser, 2005b:18, King II 2002:12).

4.6.2.4 Ethical Responsibilities

Ethical responsibility refers to the organisation creating factual resolutions and keeping an eye on the rules within and outside the organisation (Carroll, 1991:42). Since the 1970s, US. and European organisations have addressed ethical issues in various ways that include the introduction of compliance programs, board-level committees, codes of conduct and a variety of training programs (Hurst, 2004:6). However, these failed to prevent organisations from these superpowers from engaging in unethical behaviour that has been recorded as organisational scandal (Hurst, 2004:7). The culprits in the environmental degradation around the Niger Delta in Nigeria have been oil and gas industries which have ironically been recorded as being in the forefront of championing good organisational governance (Frynas & Wood, 2001:587). History has revealed that European based organisations benefit from a great deal of precedence in Europe than in the United States, citing that their U.S. counterparts are ahead of them in implementing CC and sustainability practices, but both have to deal with the shrouded definition of what it means for an organisation to be ethically upright (Reed, 2002:223, Hurst, 2004:7).

There is an increase of ethical training going on in organisations; this is sometimes spearheaded by government regulation and the attempt to improve the way employees handle and make decisions so as to avoid damaging the organisation's reputation or breaching a set rules or moral norms (Grace & Cohen, 2005:200). Some organisations are reaping good results by seeing an increased loyalty and pride within (Thilmany, 2007:105). According to Tench & Yeomans (2009), participating in economic development, cultivating a sense within an organisation's employees of how to conduct business responsibly, as well as addressing environmental and social aspects are noted as ethical duties that are right, just and fair for an organisation to engage in. In support of this notion, Ismail (2009:199) posits that organisations have adopted a new paradigm by implementing new social responsibility strategies of sustainable community development and reform which they perceive as ethical and beneficial to community development and as society friendly.

Crane & Matten (2007a:63) suggest that moral responsibilities, in developing nations, seem to have the least power on the CC agenda, mainly because ethics in these nations have been unaffected by the international drift in the direction of improved domination (Reed, 2002:223). According to Carroll & Shabana (2010:85), ethical responsibility bestows an organized voluntary action to accomplish societal goals beyond one's legal responsibility. Importantly, it embraces those opportunities that are associated with what shareholders, employees, consumers and the community considers logical and reliable or, to some extent, to guard the stakeholders' ethical rights (Carroll, 1991:42). Creyer and Ross (1997:421) initiates that customers are eager to shell out top prices for commodities from principled organisations as it generates truthful stakeholders.

However, contemporary organisations are required to press past the perception of moral values as essential for upholding their standing and, by this means, evade bad media coverage, or as meager conformity with an artificial system (Matten *et al.*, 2003:110). It aims at instilling logic within an organisation's employee population in terms of how to conduct business responsibly (Hurst, 2004:6). One prospect of this is that we can look forward to institutes which are watchful to the potential of moral standards in shaping the future (Brimmer, 2007:3).

Furthermore, Brimmer (2007:3) designates that legal or moral responsibility, as well as ethics, should necessarily be converted into a managerial priority in relation to the exceedingly competitive world. In South Africa, organisations are on the move in terms of being focused on managing ethics and the recommendations of the 1994 King I and 2002 King II reporting on the organisational authority which stipulated the institutionalisation and management of ethics as a primary focus of good governance (Van Vuuren & Eiselen, 2005:22). This development is positively encouraged, although it is still an exceptional case, to a certain extent, rather than that of regulation; for instance, according to Transparency International's annual Corruption Perception Index and Global Corruption Barometer, developing nations typically make up the volume of the poorest category states (Visser, 2006:31). Furthermore, it is generally agreed that corruption still affects organisations in developing countries to a larger extent than elsewhere (Visser, 2008:491, Smith & Hallward-Driemeier, 2005:40). An effort to deal with dishonesty in 3rd world nations has been taken up by the UK-led Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI).

The aim of this organisation is to increase lucidity over costs by organisations to states and other linked establishments, together with exercising precision over taxes of the host nation's administration (Visser, 2008:491). In Nigeria, for example, women threatened to strip naked in protest of Shell Oil company's illicit and unethical organisational practice (Ekine, 2008:67). In Zimbabwe, in 1985, the country began the anti-corruption drive after realizing the need to curb corruption and passed the Prevention of Corruption Act (Chapter 9:16); there is however a need for reforms in the current legislation to assert its independence and impartiality (Mukonza, 2013:47, Government Gazette, 2004:3). This is marked as a noble approach, however, Angola has a record of turning down the offer to take part. This reveals that a lot has to be done in terms of entrenching ethical responsibilities in 3rd world nations (Visser, 2006:31). The following section focusses on the CC drivers which can be divided into internal and external drivers.

4.7 THE DRIVERS FOR CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

According to various authors such as Mirvins & Googins (2006:119), Hopkins (2002) as well as Oskarsson & von Malmborg (2005), one organisation might be behind at some stage of CC and ahead of others in some other dimensions and this can be described by divergent features which have an effect on various proportions of the progress. Such aspects can be separated into internal drivers and external drivers. According to Ward (2000:2) and DeSimone & Popoff (2000:47), in Europe and North America, external expectations of organisations are changing rapidly and consumers are reportedly adding up demands concerning how the commodities that they procure were manufactured; this has the propensity to turn into hasty procedures which are less likely to be of assistance to progress in the vicinity of sustainability.

The external forces that influence an organisation include the socioeconomic and socio-political factors (Mirvins & Googins, 2006:119). The external drivers have an inclination towards large-scale foundations and refer to forces from outside the nation, while the internal drivers point to forces emanating from within the state (Mirvins & Googins, 2006:119, Visser, 2008:481). These drivers consist of international standardization; crisis response stakeholder activism; investment incentives and supply chain. Additional internal forces include risk management and fortification of organisational renown, as well as improvements in economic values (Lantos, 2001:595).

Fukukawa & Moon (2004:45) indicate that, of late, the stimulus shifted from internal apprehension to more global and external ones. Furthermore, ethical investors are eager to be acquainted with how their economic profits have been attained, and stakeholders are demanding organisations to reveal their human rights records at Annual General Meetings (Ward, Borregaard & Kapelus, 2002:2). Mirvis and Googins (2006:123) reiterate that consumers and customers have the potential to influence the development by putting pressure on organisations to reveal how they manufacture the commodities they buy; at the same time, they possess the power to choose which services or products are manufactured. One of the main drivers in large organisations has been ethical leadership (Szekely & Knirsch, 2005:628).

Table 4.3 Drivers for Corporate Citizenship (CC)

Internal Motivators	External Pressure
Traditions and Values	Customer and Consumers
Reputation and Image	Expected in the Community
Strategy and competitiveness	Laws and Political pressures
Founding purpose and time	NGOs and stakeholder pressure

Source: Mirvins & Googins (2006:123)

4.7.1 Internal Drivers

4.7.1.1 Traditions and values

According to Mirvis (2000:63), some organisations, such as Johnson & Johnson, Herman Miller, and Timberland, regardless of changing economic, social and ecological pressures, give the impression that they obtain a citizenship DNA which maintains that their ideals are constant. However, as an example, Johnson & Johnson (J&J), relies on its organisational doctrine that ensures its organisations and citizens are stimulated as an alternative to an overindulgence of commissions to support citizenship labors in the entire organisation (Mirvis, 2000:63). Furthermore, tradition can wield a motion on citizenship activities simply because some of the top management might create a barrier to citizenship in their organisations, a typical example of this is Exxon's foot-dragging in reaction to the Valdez tanker spill as well as Shell's *mea culpa* in reply to its double misfortune in Nigeria and the North Sea (Mirvis, 2000:63).

Exxon, by juxtaposition, took an aggressive stance (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:104). Finally, management is a crucial factor in the citizenship agenda which is centred on it being more conversant and immersed in every stage of growth, from responsibility as promoter, to organiser, to coordinator, and imaginative at the shifting phase (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:104).

Interestingly, Waddock (2002) posits that top management has a handful of things to do with how far and how fast citizenship development progresses in their organisations, particularly in regards to the stage of social, emotional, and moral development (Waddock, 2002:43).

4.7.1.2 Reputation and Image

A license to operate is usually associated with a good reputation and positive image given to organisations (Genest, 2005:315). According to Sexty (2011:1540), reputation management refers to an organisational reputation which is formulated and upheld by satisfying the prospect of various stakeholders. Studies by Lewis (2003:356), Lichtentein, Drumwright & Braig, (2004:16) and Nielsen & Thomson (2009:176) suggested that “society values, new business opportunities, reduced regulatory interventions, customer satisfaction, firms’ reputation, and better stakeholder relationship are acting as different driving forces that are motivating organisations for the implementation of CSR initiatives”. Organisational reputation is decisive to an organisation’s success and is built and upheld by an organisation’s relative achievement in rewarding the expectations of multiple stakeholders (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:2, Sutcliffe 2001:9). In order to manage risk and maintain a constructive reputation, a range of publications have confirmed a relationship involving the character and economic presentation of organisations (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:2).

However, having a range of stakeholder organisations should be in a position to understand their prospects and this action is regarded as crucial for any organisation to undertake (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:2). Evidently, a superior organisational standing increases the span of time that an organisation spends earning above average monetary profits and reduces the duration of time in which an organisation uses less than its economic proceeds; this analysis was based on America’s most popular organisations listed in Fortune magazine (Dowling 2001:11). Alternatively, Smith (2003:52) observes that a minority of organisations embrace a stringently ethical obligation to citizenship by frequently taking into account reputational jeopardy and benefits, and an organisational case for their efforts.

4.7.1.3 Strategy and Competitiveness

It should be noted that most organisations are failing to be competitive, simply because they operate in markets tainted by the nonexistence of property rights, the incompetence of permitted systems, large subversive financial systems, and the frail discharge of procedures (Shkolnikov & Sullivan, 2004:11). Accordingly, organisations unquestionably cannot endure in communities that are shambled by civil liberties' violations and barriers to entrepreneurship (Shkolnikov Sullivan, 2004:11). Strategic and competitive forces unquestionably provide an indication of citizenship in the organisation; this shows a potential procession of investigation that may perhaps be of assistance in elucidating a number of divergences in citizenship, as established in organisations in dissimilar manufacturing and economical perspectives (Vogel, 2005:2, Mirvis & Googins, 2006:104). Initially, investors have traditionally been depicted as possessing a diminutive interest in the non-financial part of organisational management.

This has changed recently due to the relationship between good quality CC and excellent economic performance, and now only a few shareholders can meet the expense of ignoring this notion of organisational performance while the majority have their eyes on this aspect (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:4). Collins & Porras (2000:219) identified that a significant characteristic in distinguishing visionary organisations from their peers was having an underlying principle ahead of making money. Visionary organisations attain much better long-term monetary presentation than their peers; this idea reinforces the view that organisations that acquire a premeditated approach to CC are expected to be fine in general (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:104).

4.7.1.4 Founding Purpose and time

An organisation can omit a number of phases of expansion if it is initially established with the ideologies of CC; this means that established rationale and period can be a significant issue in this scenario (Hallback, 2011:13).

Such organisations, for example, are called cause organisations, which is derived from the moment of the green movement, when patrons were fascinated with commodities that are environmentally responsive (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:119-120). The following are the external drivers of CC.

4.7.2 External Drivers

According to Mirvis & Googins (2006), there are quite a lot of socioeconomic and constitutional phases that, to a certain extent, manipulate where organisations move forward in creating citizenship and where they may hold-up (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:104-105). Visser (2008:482) asserts that CC in 3rd world nations is fashioned by the socioeconomic situation in which organisations function and their progress is primarily concerned with this development. In Zimbabwe and Nigeria, for example, those organisations that embrace the concept of CC intended concentrating on their socioeconomic expansion in defiance of the nation (Amaeshi *et al.* 2006:83, Masuku & Moyo, 2013:114). The following are some of the external factors that influence CC (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:123).

4.7.2.1 Consumers

Stakeholder Relationship is a dimension of citizenship that refers to an organisation's relationship with its stakeholders (Hallback, 2011:13). In order to meet all the requisite responsibilities, the premise of CC is that all sectors of society are obligated to work jointly in a communally advantageous manner and make certain that administrations can boost financial engagement and enhance public results (Carroll, 1991:39, Maignan & Ferrell, 2001:37, Altman & Vidaver-Cohen, 2000:1-7). In other words, CC is edged with the rapport that an organisation expand with its stakeholders (Waddock & Smith, 2000:48). However, organisations with undeviating associations with consumers are working considerably to certify their contractors by demonstrating high values of CC (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:7).

The perceptions that stakeholders possess regarding an organisation's CC performance can drastically impinge on the organisation's license to operate (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:8). Similarly, organisations with a meagre status in this part can discover themselves persistently responding to condemnation of their move towards an array of ecological and communal concerns (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:8).

4.7.2.2 Expectations of the community

An external force is regarded as one of the prospects of the center of population and politics in the world of business; for instance, organisations that mine minerals are closely scrutinized by a number of stakeholders and other interested parties such as NGOs and civil society groups. They therefore find themselves more open to criticism of their environmental performance (Hallback, 2011:13). Risk management as a decisive factor logically dictates that they give superior contemplation to environmental safeguard (Hallback, 2011:13).

Furthermore, there is no exception that organisations which work in the general public, through a social contract, need to take up its ethical responsibilities, such as offering community services to the society and its economic responsibilities (Reynolds & Yuthas, 2008:47).

4.7.2.3 Laws and political pressures

Laws and regulations also influence the development of citizenship in organisations. In addition to laws and regulations, the national origin of an organisation has an effect on them developing CC through environmental laws (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:120). Further, consumers and customers have a significant influence on the development of CC because they can put immense pressure on how organisations generate the commodities they buy (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:123). CC in developing nations cannot be separated from the socio-political reform process, which regularly compels organisational conduct in the direction of assimilating social and ethical issues (Visser, 2008:482).

Subsequently, De Oliveira (2006) posits that the opinionated and connected communal and monetary alteration in Latin America since the 1980s, for example, includes privatization, liberalization and democratization; these have reallocated the tasks of organizing towards inspiring superior accountability for societal and green concerns (De Oliveira, 2006:17).

4.8 GLOBAL CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP

The existing global CC settings call forward international viewpoints on the major description of CC across constituencies and zones as the concept is both a global and local phenomenon (Kinnicutt & Mirvis, 2008:7). However, multinational organisations are a driving force behind CC worldwide, but their inspiration for undertaking it and influencing other players shows discrepancies depending on particular regional contexts (Zadek, 2001:28). All over the world, organisational management is under intense pressure to reconstruct community trust, cope with the latest and unusual risks, act in response to rising community prospects and stay commercial and spirited in an international financial system (Nelson, 2003:3). This shows that the organisations have a lot of demands to deal with in order to remain afloat.

Besides being the world's leading countries in every respect, the United States and European countries are also meeting domestic and international disputes that have become too onerous for the states to address (Nelson, 2004:3). According to Schwabs (2008:107), global corporate citizenship articulates the opinion that organisations, since they are stakeholders themselves, together with governments and civil society are urged towards sustainable development and to address dominant global challenges, including climate change; this is because global citizenship is in an organisation's enlightened self-interest and can be ideal for the society. According to Googins (2003:8), the term global corporate citizenship is used as if it were a clear and widely understood concept, yet the understanding of the term has shifted in accordance with globalisation, rapid progresses in technology, the receding role of government and a rise in the number and eminence of activist groups. This makes it even more difficult to comprehend the actual meaning of the concept.

However, in the USA, the concept seldom appeared despite the fact that these organisations are among the most prominent players in the global economy. The United Kingdom has a long history of engaging in CC and has been quite innovative on the topic. While in many other countries consumers and employees are still somewhat behind the curve, and despite its setbacks, CC is unlikely to stall in the United Kingdom (Kinnicutt, Carapinha & Mirvis, 2009:35). The term is however manifest in the efforts of large multinationals to globalize organisational philanthropy rather than implement an inclusive global citizenship approach (Googins, 2003:8). The world's best-led organisations aimed at protecting the existing organisational value and creating new organisational value, and which are rigorously backed, are becoming a defining feature of values-driven performance (Nelson, 2004:3).

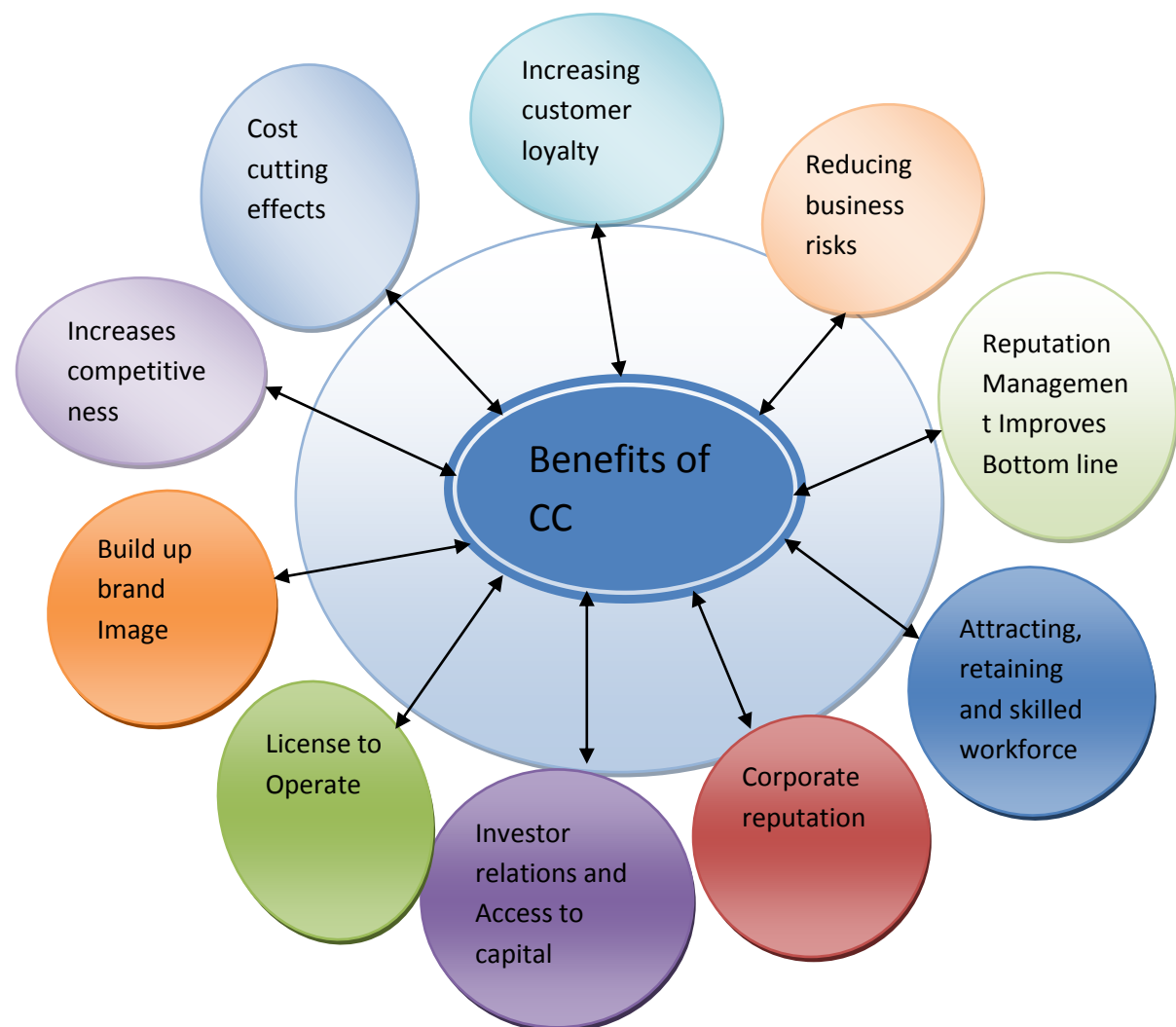
However, other nations such as South Africa have highlighted a spell of new laws around CC, predominantly on matters related to the country's Black Economic Empowerment initiative, and organisations have adopted CC as a way to operate and as a way to compete globally (Kinnicutt *et al.*, 2009:32). The United Nations Global Compact stands as the biggest CC and sustainability program in the world, with more than 5100 of the organisation's participants and stakeholders stemming from more than 130 countries (UN Global Compact, 2009:34-36). Increase in Global Compact membership is actually stronger in developing nations, particularly in Latin America than it is in many developed markets (Sustainability & United Nations Environmental Programs, 2001:44).

4.9 BENEFITS OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

The business case and CC have become joint in current deliberations pertaining to the changing function of organisations in society (Zadek, 2001:18). CC is becoming increasingly imperative to organisational sustainability and, at the same time, offers payback that in the form of both tangible and intangible aspects of the economy (Johnstone, 2008:6). Examples of benefits from CC for an organisation may include the capacity to name the price of a premium for its product, and to present and maintain a good organisational image (Lin, Lyau, Tsai, Chen & Chiu, 2010:357).

During the economic downturn, organisations spend less, on average, and a valuable strategy can save organisations money; cost-cutting is thus the most universal motivation for CC. Hart (2005:665) discovered that organisations which run considerable sustainability programs are a small detachment of organisations, in all probability five percent, because innovators are in the minority. In addition, proactive organisations propose that people, planet and profit can go hand in hand and take a sophisticated approach to resolving community and ecological disputes in a manner that makes it worthwhile to the organisation to see the logic therein (Johnstone, 2008:12). Correspondingly, people, planet and profit represent society, the economy, and the environment (Wulfson, 2001:135).

Figure 4.1- Benefits of Corporate Citizenship (CC)



Source: Own construct

Shkolnikov & Sullivan (2004:1) states that the benefits of CC are real by citing that organisations that have a lively CC policy are capable of developing access to capital, building up a product image and organisational reputation, increasing customer loyalty, diminishing organisational risk, giving organisations a license to operate and, most importantly, managing their reputation, all of which improves the bottom line. Customers clearly want organisations to perform as well organized citizens with public interest (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:7). There is a growing sense that looking after people and the community as well as the environment are all relevant to long-term organisational survival (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:5). CC objectives can encourage creativity and innovation that leads to bottom-line benefits, in addition to focusing on CC goals that can lead to direct improvements in an organisation's bottom line (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:7).

Noting the nature of this evidence, accepting triple bottom line concepts also makes available prospects in the course of improvement, imaginative philosophy, improved associations with main stakeholders and the opening of new products and markets (Wulfson, 2001:135, Placet, Anderson & Fowler, 2005:32, Hohnen, 2007:11). The health of the economy represents the ultimate bottom line and, in this scenario, the society depends on the economy and the economy depends on the global ecosystem (Das & Patnaik, 2012:144). Proponents also suggested that increasing returns and market share, amplified worker retention and augmented society support are the top three advantages to adopting a triple bottom line approach and, in addition to these major ones, an increased community support is another advantage to the triple bottom line (Quinn & Baltes, 2007:7).

However, socially responsible organisations have the ability to attract superior talent by sending out a significant gesture to prospective employees (Greening & Turban, 2000:243). In contrast, organisations with tainted reputations can face a momentous recruitment problem which eventually affects its attractiveness as a potential employer (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:4). Furthermore, organisations that are perceived to have a strong CC commitment often have an increased ability to attract and retain employees, which leads to reduced turnover recruitment and training costs (Backhaus, Stone & Heiner, 2002:292, Logsdon & Wood, 2002:365, Orlitzky, Schmidt & Rynes, 2003:403).

Employees, too, often evaluate their organisation's performance to determine if their personal values conflict with those of the organisations at which they work (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006:111). Furthermore, increased sales and customer loyalty are other reasons why engaging in CC is fruitful, primarily because CC concerned customers normally buy products produced by reputable organisations with industrialized amenities in developing countries, rather than buying a no-name brand (Mandl & Dorr, 2007:49, Longo, Mura & Bonoli, 2005:28).

Further, Bronn and Vrioni (2011) posit that it is universally acknowledged that cause-related marketing is a road and rail network contrivance for escalating consumer devotion and building character (Bronn & Vrioni, 2011:207). It is universally known that when employees feel empowered by their organisations in an optimistic way, they become predisposed to being strong advocates of the organisation in everyday life. Evidently, the Trust Barometer presented by Edelman (2004) shows that the most plausible information source is colleagues in the organisation, which means employees can market their organisation to potential customers or clients wherever they go (Edelman, 2004:45). On the contrary, when employees feel dissatisfied, defrauded, unacknowledged or condemned by an organisation's politics and actions, they develop into more severe and powerful critics of the organisation (Smaiziene & Jucevicius, 2009:95). CC is not just good business, but it is a high-quality strategy in the global economy in which organisations need to administer reputational risk and organisational ethics and, in this case, organisational reputation allows organisations to attract customers repeatedly and promote customer trust in a merchant while increasing its commitment to the consumer (Davies, Chun, Da Silva & Roper, 2003:66, Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky & Treadway, 2003:214).

Organisational character depends exclusively on the trade name that carries the organisational image and on an organisation's brand portfolio; investments should be made on brands that have the potential to make a positive impact on the organisation's growth, profitability, and reputation (Lin, Li & Huang, 2003:249, Varadarajan, DeFanti & Busch, 2006:195). In reference to Ettenson & Knowles (2008:18), a trademark is customer centric and is about relevance and differentiation while organisational reputation is organisation centric and is about legitimacy.

Reputation is built and maintained by an organisation's relative success in fulfilling the expectations of multiple stakeholders and is crucial to managing risks to the organisation, thereby preserving a positive reputation (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:2). The competitive benefits of positive reputation include: attracting of new customers; enhancing the bargaining power in trade channels; attracting new organisational partners; promoting greater loyalty from consumers; diminishing vagueness and taking into consideration product quality (Dalton & Croft, 2003:103; Fombrum, 1996:80, Helm, 2007:23, Dowling, 2001:12). Furthermore, these benefits include the ability to: reduce the insecurity of current and prospective employees with regard to organisational characteristics, help to reinforce affiliation with suppliers and distributors and other direct stakeholders, facilitate an establishment of good relationships with investors, and organisations with excellent character are professed to be less uncertain than organisations with corresponding economic performance, but with a less well-established standing (Dalton & Croft, 2003:103, Fombrum, 1996:80, Helm, 2007:23, Dowling, 2001:12).

It should be noted that an approach via the stakeholder way is likely to facilitate ethical governance by promoting a new form of rational contract whereby managers and employees share the more practical vision of the user's expectation (Simmons, 2004:601). It is eminent that when an organisation is responsible for CC, it must automatically be more apparent in its social contract with its stakeholders (Harribey, 2011:34). Subsequently, the notion of governance has passed the tendency of being just financial indicators and is now moving forward to include the notion of global performance, which encompasses economic, social and environmental performances (Reynaud, 2003:1, Capron & Quairel-Lanoizelé, 2005:1, Baret, 2006:24). This ultimately led to organisations sincerely conceding and acclimatizing to a new approach to stakeholder engagement, marked by open dialogue and understanding between organisations and stakeholders. Conversely, those with an excellent reputation for CC are more likely to be given a second chance in the event of problems (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:7). One of the best examples of this phenomenon was a major pharmaceutical organisation, with an outstanding background of being a good organisation, which experienced an incident in which one of its bestselling products was tampered with; during this incident, the organisation responded instantly by taking the products off the shelves (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:8).

Due to this incident, the shares of the organisation dropped, but no significant damage to the organisation's reputation or financial performance was recorded due to its positive standing record (Roberts *et al.*, 2002:9). In most cases, customers prefer to do business with socially active organisations than those which are socially irresponsible (Asongu, 2007:7). Significantly, this is a potential benefit for organisations and, for that reason, it augments their license to operate, improve their prospects to be sustained over a longer term by the society and improves their ability to be more sustainable (Galbraith, Bradshaw & Rutherford, 2007:27). In order to internalize society's requirements, anticipations and state of affairs into their organisational views and decision-making, organisations can use stakeholder engagement (Asemah, Okpanachi & Edogoh, 2013:51). In this context, the bigger the private sector, the greater its societal expectations and responsibilities (British Council, 2004:8).

According to the British Council (2004), an organisation's operations can also benefit from improved financial performance and better human resources (British Council, 2004:8). In this case, organisations and investment communities require significant deliberation as to whether there is a positive correlation between socially responsible organisational practices and better financial performance (Barnett, 2007:794). There is no doubt that CC may be beneficial for organisations adhering to it (Barnett & Salomon, 2006:1101-1122, Margolis & Walsh, 2003:268). Additionally, Harribey (2011:34) hypothesizes that involving staff members from an organisation in a CC project based around shared values, could help lessen the social risk along with creating a progressive active force. As an example, in a model tested on a sample of 347 employees in North America, Glavas & Piderit (2009) set up three achievable effects of CC on employees that include high value connections, workforce commitment and inventive participation (Glavas & Piderit, 2009:51). Over and above these, organisational principles are consequently a result of the internalization of the values of the main stakeholders and this alliance develops internal value and, in turn, has a propensity to make the organisation more attractive (Thomsen, 2004:29, Willard, 2005:13).

In addition, the remuneration of principled organisational customs, the indivisibility of organisation and community, and the growing complexity of the socioeconomic settings in which organisations operate, are pointers of a new epoch in CC (Shkolnikov & Sullivan, 2004:1). However, the reality remains that CC policy, when it is verified by facts, warrants a better perceived value for the brand, hence enhancing the organisational image (Harribey, 2011:36). However, there are notable reasons why it pays for organisations big or small to remain socially responsible and conscious, with reference to the interest of their key holders. Organisations are now acquainted with the reality that dealing with environmental and societal matters provides organisational profit, particularly when reputation threat is high and sustainable competitiveness and development turn out to be a key plan (British Council, 2004:8, Orlitzky *et al.*, 2003:403, British Council, 2004:8). Having considered the benefits of CC, it is also reasonable to look at the critique levelled against CC; the following section covers this aspect of CC.

4.10 CHALLENGES OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

Criticisms of existing representations of CC propose that the charitable demonstration of CC is purely a greenwash (Christian Aid, 2004). The reason for this is that such critics scrutinize CC as a marketing instrument that legitimizes the organisation (Hamann, Acutt & Kapelus, 2003:258-259, Masuku & Moyo, 2013:114). Thus, CC is seen as counterproductive and viewed as undermining a rigorous discussion and the manifestations of CC generate the opinion that organisations are already dynamic in dealing with the subject of their responsibility in the social order (Rivett-Carnac, 2004:4). The consequence is that many existing CC behaviours additionally establish patterns of poverty, unfairness and dreadful environmental dreadful, to a certain extent, rather than alleviating and eradicating these patterns (Rivett-Carnac, 2004:4). Coleman (2002:18-19), in dealing with this point, recommends that CC deliberation and resultant activities be more logical rather than theoretically extensive and that the dialogue should query its power, diversity, legality and subversion.

Furthermore, a proposal was made for a CC theory to be more complex, hypothetical and ultimately intended (Coleman, 2002:23-24), on condition that greater consideration is afforded poverty in their efforts to attain global sustainability, security, and peace; it is believed that only then may the impact on the CC field be substantiated (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:115). Generally, poverty enlarges the scope of CC, which has costs for both theory and practice. However, the intricacy of poverty as a problem expands the fundamental tensions surrounding the limits of CC (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:115). Activists leading the attack on organisational power and influence have, in the main, remained ingrained in their negative critique, encouraged in part by the lack of serious conventional deliberations (Edwards, 2000:2). A small number have mapped out a convincing option for generating and distributing adequate economic wealth to make available a decent quality of life for a growing world population (Zadek, 2001:7).

Similarly, among those who advocate CC as a means of squaring the circle of unfettered trade liberalization, few have seriously faced up to the challenge of whether CC can deliver sufficient social and environmental gains to reverse the basic pattern of mounting poverty, inequality, and environmental apprehensiveness (Zadek, 2001:7). The minority contained in this community have acknowledged the potential economic malfunction of an approach that fails to meet this challenge (Zadek, 2001:7). Despite the fact that poverty reduction has traditionally been measured as the responsibility of the government and NGO/NPO sectors, expectations are escalating in favor of private-sector participation (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:115).

Increased organisational responsibility calls into question the usual institutional allotment of responsibility, and entails that organisations may possibly, or ought to, become more like governments. The topical theoretical work in the field addressing this issue reveals what is behind the mask or the true face of CC (Matten *et al.* 2003:109, Matten & Crane, 2005:165). Matten *et al.*, (2003:109) depicts an extended view of CC that emphasises the citizenship concept, rooting their explanation in political theory and sociology.

These theorists do not feel that organisations are citizens or have citizenship, but they feel that organisations are active in citizenship and exhibit citizenship

behaviours (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:116). That is, organisations are concerned with the administration of social, civil and political rights and this has transpired because governments are smaller and less powerful (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:116). In the event that organisations are taking over vital functions of government, one could argue that they ought to presume exactly the type of accountability that modern societies insist on (Matten & Crane 2005: 165). However, accountability is difficult if not impossible, since CC activities are voluntary, discretionary and dispersed across various nation states (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:116).

While the market may punish an organisation for careless behaviour, such a response is slow and usually linked to ethical misdemeanors rather than failures in the midst of social initiatives (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:116). Nonetheless, organisations are not likely to accept accountability for administering social, civil and political rights; CC extension is not in the best interests of either the organisation or the general public (Boyle & Boguslaw, 2007:116). However, organisations declare that the term citizen does not mean that they are citizens; it could be regarded as a form of window-dressing which distracts from more fundamental abuses of power through the fabrication of a comfortable consent (Néron & Norman, 2008:2).

Accordingly, the analysis could propose that organisations are discriminatory in regards to the concept of citizenship, moderating the basics of obligation and responsibility as well as managing the elements of harmony and neighborliness (Moon *et al.*, 2011:206). Even though the term CC has acquired considerable status in academic circles, as evidenced in academic books and articles, journals, and research and teaching centers which bear the name, one of the challenges of the academic application of citizenship to organisations is that there is no established meaning of the term (Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:13, Néron & Norman, 2008:2). It is true that the term and its usage have been subject to academic argument, nevertheless, this has long been true of the term citizenship as applied to humans (Moon, Crane & Matten, 2005:427, Néron & Norman, 2008:1, Moon *et al.*, 2011:207). The UN Global Compact unambiguously focused on its signatories as citizens and the World Economic Forum (WEF) has an extensive list of CC programs.

Moreover, countries that are adopting this language to describe themselves, maintain that their nations' foreign guiding principle would be led by the code of superior global citizenship. However, there is a correlation between the implementation of the language of citizenship and that of constitutionalism. This advocates that there is a shadowy, quasi-constitutionalization of the intercontinental structure in progress for which the expression of global CC is an important element (Schwabs 2008:107, World Economic Forum, 2008:21, Rudd 2007:88, Joerges, Sand & Teubner, 2004:45, Schepel 2005:37).

Consequently, this is linked to the global issues, where new or invigorated laws are progressively increasing and are brought into play as instrumental in deciding difference of opinion or organizing governance (Thompson, 2009:15). The main point of using CC language is that it reveals an indispensable vulnerability that organisations distinguish in terms of their general organisational position (Thompson, 2009:16). Consequently, there are developments in the international financial system which increases threats to organisations (Thompson, 2009:16). These threats, however, could not spare even the very largest organisations since they are always in submission to the standard order of stock market discipline, concerning the market for organisational control or the prospect that new and ground-breaking competitors will arise with an innovation that can quickly destabilize even the most cautiously created organisational models (Thompson, 2009:16).

4.11 SUMMARY

Organisations have an accountability to the general public apart from simply satisfying their financial and officially authorized obligations. Organisations, as it were, are undeniably stakeholders in society by merit of the responsibilities they have. However, any organisation which is not a component of what has now become the conventional, by integrating a structure of sustainable development and social accountability, attracts significant risk. Organisational management worldwide is crafting CC as a priority for their organisations, by constantly modernizing strategies and modifying programs.

The organisation is expected to cover the wide spectrum of society, in view of the fact that they are a fundamental component of the general public and cannot persist in generating riches if the social order adjoining it is deteriorating. The deliberations progress through a range of waves of intensity, habitually exasperated by the revelation of organisational scandals aggravated by various organisations. However, the following chapter, Chapter 5, focusses on the creation of an enabling environment for CC.

CHAPTER FIVE

CREATING AN ENABLING ENVIRONMENT FOR CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) BEHAVIOUR

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 highlighted that an organisation which is not part of what has now become conventional, by integrating a system of sustainable development and CC, is operating at a serious risk. It has been revealed that organisations are an essential part of society and cannot persist in generating assets if the world surrounding it is deteriorating. Organisations are expected to comply with the law because the law is society's systematization of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. Accordingly, organisations are assumed to be good citizens through altruistic responsibility, by this measure, the organisation is expected to contribute substantively in terms of monetary and human capital to the society as a way of improving their quality of life. The innovative site takes a broader look at the impact of organisations on society. In turn, organisations are taking giant strides to shift citizenship from the boundaries of the mainstream of their strategic and operational plans.

Despite the fact that the implementation of CC is expected to differ across nations and organisations, the paradigms contained by the sphere of influence for execution ought to continue unfailingly across diverse contexts, both locally and globally (Fall & Zahran, 2010:11). The environment of doing business has fundamentally changed due to the increasing diversity and complex nature of social and economic experience worldwide (Appels & Van Duin, 2006:4). Furthermore, there is evidence of the realignment of organisations and society whereby organisations are facing new demands which include environmental issues as well as issues between organisations and society. Thus, organisations are obliged to take care of the societal demands from within as well as those from outside. In response to these changes, the concept of CC has become progressively more prominent in management thinking and practice (Appels & Van Duin, 2006:4).

Similarly, community commitment is now a fundamental element of the field of management, in the sense that the organisational resources ought to be utilized in a manner that reduces organisational hazards and generates market prospects linked to competitive advantage, while concurrently creating community benefits (Crittenden, Crittenden, Ferrell, Ferrell & Pinney, 2011:71). According to Moon *et al.*, (2005:434), CC is not just an issue for individual organisations to deliberate upon, but it has drawn attention from governments, organisational associations, organisational consultants, NGOs, shareholders, employees and consumers who have all shown partiality in endeavoring to classify CC as they inquire about how to endorse, promote or condemn it.

Even though an array of studies recommends that CC may be an outstanding planned tool, pragmatic assessment of the benefits resulting from CC remain extremely inadequate (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001:459). The tool must be able to capture the different degrees of the organisational embeddedness of CC and reveal whether organisational structures and procedures are indeed designed in ways that enable an organisation to systematically realize CC (Scherer, Palazzo & Baumann, 2006:505, Scherer, Palazzo & Matten, 2009:327). Against this background, this chapter focuses on the formation and role players of an enabling setting for CC behaviour.

5.2 DEFINITION OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC)

The abovementioned ideas have prompted the authors to define CC as an accountable actor in its local surroundings by emphasising voluntarism and charity as well as the organisation's constitutional rights and obligations in and for society (Logsdon & Wood 2002:156). According to Zara (2009:3), CC is the total sum of how an organisation indulges every entity that depends upon it, and upon which it is dependent; that is, its suppliers, employees, customers, the larger environment it shares with the whole planet, the government(s) liable for both regulating and assisting it and the communities in which it conducts its organisational activities.

The Economist Intelligence Unit (2006:6), however, defines CC as surpassing generosity and compliance, and as concentrating on how organisations control their communal and environmental forces as well as their financial contribution. Therefore CC is generally being seen as fuel by issues of self interest, including the insight that a stable social, environmental, and political environment ensures profitable business (Windsor, 2001:39, Wood & Logsdon, 2001:691). For the purpose of this study, CC is defined as the total sum of how an organisation indulges every entity that depends upon it, and upon which it is dependent, that is, its suppliers, employees, customers, the larger environment it shares with the whole planet, the government(s) liable for both regulating and assisting it and the communities in which it conducts its organisational activities.

5.3 IMPORTANCE OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) IMPLEMENTATION

In reviewing the literature on citizenship in political science, one of the most demonstrable potential possibilities for growth emerges to be Stokes's (2002) classification of citizenship and democracy, whereby the agenda shows potential for a number of motives (Stokes, 2002: 44). Initially, it acquires a wide range of analysis of citizenship to distinguish that it is not only in relation to status, but also about responsibility, contribution and authenticity (Stokes, 2002:44). This acknowledges a great deal of citizenship responsibility in CC literature in particular (Wood & Logsdon, 2001:83, Wood & Logsdon, 2002:155).

Above all, CC programs may promote employees' exhibition of organisational citizenship (Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006:329). The publications on societal execution tend to validate these actions either from a philanthropic viewpoint, i.e. doing good for its own sake, or from an influential standpoint, i.e. doing good for its possible financial benefit to organisations (Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006:329). Consequently, in only a few studies have investigators observed the content of an organisation's citizenship activity beyond monetary obligation (Margolis & Walsh, 2001:35, McWilliams & Siegel, 2001:117, Maignan & Ferrell, 2000:283). Additionally, CC can also contribute to an organisation's stock of elusive resources and economic performance, for its continued existence (Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006:331).

Strategic philanthropy, as an example, produces long-term rewards for organisations by enhancing the institutional framework in which they operate and by generating elusive assets (Fombrun, Gardberg, & Barnett, 2000:1-5, Godfrey, 2005:777, Porter & Kramer, 2002:56). Pelozo & Falkenberg (2009:95) uphold that, unless management comprehends how to implement CC, the idea is bound to continue as a peripheral action to a certain extent rather than a significant factor of the organisation's main plan. However, the execution of organisational tactics remains a foundation of concern for several organisations (Pelozo & Falkenberg, 2009:95, Johnson, 2004:3, Kaplan & Norton, 2005:72). On the contrary, implementation is tremendously understudied in management research and practice (Crittenden *et al.*, 2011:450). There exists a suggestion that meager strategy implementation directs to delicate policy formulation, generating an endless formulation, implementation, performance sequence whereby it turns out to be too complex to determine the perfect approach from scanty policy and fine performances from deplorable practice (Crittenden & Crittenden, 2008:301).

However, from a CC point of view, a lack of consideration in regards to implementation dictates that both organisations and the general public will continue to utilize a shotgun strategy for CC, thereby failing to comprehend the constructive performance related conclusion (Crittenden *et al.*, 2011:450). Noting the nature of this evidence, accommodating triple bottom line ideas presents prospects through transformation, improved associations with key stakeholders, creative thinking, and introduces modern commodities and markets (Wulfson, 2001:135, Placet *et al.*, 2005:32, Hohnen, 2007:11). Generally, the general public relies on the economy, and the financial system relies on the international environment, whose wellbeing symbolizes the significant bottom line (Das & Patnaik, 2012:144, Johnstone, 2008:4). Proponents have also suggested that the top three rewards for embracing a triple bottom line approach are enhanced community support, augmented worker retention, as well as improved returns and market share (Quinn & Baltes, 2007:7). In actual fact, management viewed improved societal support as an additional benefit to the triple bottom line (Quinn & Baltes, 2007:7). These ideas sustain Willard's (2002) study, documenting the sustainability benefits, which alleges that the triple bottom line contributes to increased revenue (Quinn & Baltes, 2007:8).

An equally significant aspect is that investors are more enthusiastic and are prepared to pay more for organisations with sound organisational customs such as good organisational governance, ethics and practices (British Council, 2004:9). However, an organisation which is considered collectively accountable can also gain from its standing within the organisational center of the population by increasing its aptitude to draw wealth and trading partners (Orlitzky & Benjamin, 2001:369). Accordingly, augmented capacity to draw and maintain a quality workforce also benefits organisations in the sense that a dedicated and trained workforce is very important to organisational achievement; there is support for the suggestion that a strong track record of social accountability can be of assistance in this regard (British Council, 2004:9). This can be the undeviating result of pride in the organisation's commodities and practices, such as family-friendly strategies (Hohnen, 2007:11).

In theory, when organisations do that, their chances of winning the goodwill of community members are high, and they attract the wrath of community members if they fail to cope (Asemah *et al.*, 2013:50). However, this approach not only improves an organisation's reputation, but also provides new organisational opportunities through the revision of practices and strategies (Das & Patnaik, 2012:144, British Council, 2004:9). A good organisational reputation increases the chances of the organisation to earn above average financial returns (Robert *et al.* 2002:3). Furthermore, an organisation considered as communally liable can also gain from its standing within the organisational center of population by increasing its ability to draw wealth and trading partners (Orlitzky & Benjamin, 2001:369).

According to Hohnen (2007:11), organisations that execute CC well can build their reputation, while those that perform poorly can damage their brand and organisational worth when exposed. CC was, in several cases, initially used to classify the charitable task and responsibilities which organisations voluntarily embark on in the confined community, such as openhanded contributions (Crane *et al.*, 2008:28). Accordingly, Carroll (1991:42) positions CC at the apex of the CSR pyramid, signifying that it is an optional action past that which is anticipated of an organisation.

This limited view has a tendency to present a distinctly novel role of CC to the deliberation of organisational compassion as its premeditated center of attention (Crane *et al.*, 2008:29). In place of organisations engaging in charity work, just for the sake of it, CC presents the issue of a calculating patronage (Crane *et al.*, 2008:29). Consequently, CC is generally perceived as being engineered by concerns of self-interest, as well as the possibility that a constant social, conservation and political atmosphere ensure a profitable organisation (Windsor, 2001:39, Wood & Logsdon, 2001:83). In spite of the organisations to construct societal impact, Corporate Community Involvement (CCI) ought not to be restricted to run society interactions through responsibilities oriented to optional activities, but be required to emphasize building social affairs and the local community's aptitude to engage significantly in societal governance (Carroll, 1998:1).

This strategy eventually perceives the innovative giving of CC to the deliberations on organisation-society affairs in its financial outlook, as a strategy to long-term maximization of self-interest through organisational procedures and set of laws of the organisation's societal settings (Seitz, 2002:61). Societal commitment represents the way in which an organisation may endeavor to function over and above accumulating riches for owners/shareholders, and paying levies, successively sustaining local schools and other community projects (Crittenden *et al.*, 2011:450). Similarly, a stakeholder commitment agenda should be required to be more than an intermittent activity and, consequently, it is required to be a primary component of the organisation's management scheme in order to be a bona fide value to the organisation (Peloza & Falkenberg, 2009:95).

Considering the working atmosphere is not an effortless task, in view of the fact that it is absorbed into many issues varying from conservatory gases to child labor (Crittenden *et al.*, 2011:450). Organisations are essentially supposed to recognize global suffering such as hunger, HIV/AIDS, corruption, terrorism; moreover, it should scrutinize these challenges within the framework of the organisation's key stakeholders (Crittenden *et al.*, 2011:450). According to the World Economic Forum (2010:11), the certificate to function in the worldwide market necessitates an organisational commitment in society.

Conversely, there is little in conventional organisations management theory and practice that provides for the organisation's interaction with the working atmosphere in which CC is the standard rather than the exception, and organisational management articulates ambiguity and aggravation regarding which agendas to implement. However, Pinney (2013:13) suggests that there are four key domains to be considered when integrating CC into organisational strategy and management practices: these include, products and service/market strategy, operations, community engagement and governance. Furthermore, the domains have a distinct set of premeditated CC issues associated with them that have the potential to significantly impact on the organisation in terms of business risk or opportunities (Pinney, 2013:13).

Some organisations, for example, have set up designated CC departments while others believe that all line managers should, in principle, be in charge of the CC performance management system and culture of the organisation (Baumann & Scherer (2010:17). In addition, CC is driven by a fundamental shift in the operating environment and competitive context for the organisation; for CC to be integrated into the organisation, managers need to understand the concept as a value added approach to managing a successful organisation (Pinney, 2013:12). In other words, CC is a work in progress, a journey not a destination, which can be introduced slowly into the main veins of the organisation in order to be a success.

The popular rankings and surveys in the field are usually based on a set of indicators, which are intuitively relevant for measuring the state and progress of the implementation of CC, but were not systematically derived from a theoretical framework and a clearly defined CC concept such as Matten & Crane's (2005:166) extended view of CC or Scherer & Palazzo's (2007:1096) political conception of CC. Matten *et al.*, (2003:268) developed a specific perspective of CC, based on the observation that global authority referring to rule-making and rule implementation on a global level is no longer an undertaking administered by the state alone. Instead, Multinational Corporations (MNCs) as well as the general cultural assembly contribute to the creation and application of rules in public policy areas that were once largely the responsibility of the state (Scherer *et al.*, 2006:505).

In its current form, organisations would be responsible to provide citizenship rights everywhere and for everybody; this is however not feasible for organisations whose primary role is an economic one (Baumann & Scherer, 2010:17). Empirical studies on the implementation of CC are in short supply and a methodical review of good practice examples does not exist (Baumann & Scherer, 2010:17). Moreover, practical guidelines are missing, and most organisations are still experimenting with the design of organisational structures and procedures that are supposed to promote CC in daily operations (Baumann & Scherer, 2010:17). The theoretical models of CC do not express a comprehensible set of steps for accepting and amalgamating CC into core management practices (Crittenden *et al.*, 2011:71).

The study by Berger, Cunningham, & Drumwright (2007:132) asserts that in order to succeed and prosper, organisations must advocate for an organisation-based plan for the administration and enactment of global CC. The endeavor is to support the self-motivated demands of the organisation and social environment through the recognition and management of stakeholder anticipations (Dawson, 2003:41). This approach necessitates that managers identify with and are actively aware of their contexts and expectations; in addition, they should recognize that any changes they put into practice will also have consequences for the environment figure out the environment in return (Mittleton-Kelly, 2003:23). It is anticipated that the alignment of CC to government policy ideals would help to endorse the development and integration of CC into organisational management and practice (Kinnicutt *et al.*, 2009:19).

Khoo and Tan (2002:196) suggest that a recurring process, from preparation of transformation and implementation of results, can propose little in terms of meticulous guidelines. The majority of the organisations centers on outside communiqué and disregard in-house messages with their own workforce (Kan, 2012:13). In the course of focussing internally, organisations are competent to revolutionize the interior configuration of the organisation and its organisational characteristics in particular (Kan, 2012:14). However, it is of the essence to take employees on board to certify that everyone in an organisation is on the same page and has the same outlook (Kan, 2012:14).

Accordingly, the functions and tasks of administration are being specified and the margins between organisations and regimes happen to be less apparent; the literature demonstrates that organisational management is in front of a discouraging collection of texts (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:17). Moreover, Campbell (2007:946) views organisations' intensity of community dependability as being prejudiced by aspects such as the economic circumstances of the organisation, wellbeing of the financial system, and the well-enforced laws of the country. Jackson & Nelson (2004:29) take more of a how-to approach, by presenting a principle-based agenda for mastering what has been described as the latest regulation of the game. These ideologies include, for example, obligatory modernization for the municipal moral, placing individuals at the core, together with distribution financial prospects (Jackson & Nelson, 2004:29).

5.4 THE ROLE OF STAKEHOLDERS IN CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) MANAGEMENT

In the midst of those who advocate for CC as a means of aligning the circle of independent trade liberalization, the minority seriously defies the notions that CC promotes inequality and environmental insecurity (Zadek, 2001:7). In the direction of avoiding menaces to their reputation, organisations are required to identify with contributor apprehension both in relation to matters under their control, such as occupation policies, as well as matters related to organisational impact rather than control, such as the environmental and social influence of their supply chains (Roberts, Bogg, Walton, Chernyshenko & Stark, 2004:3164).

The community has been preoccupied with the ethics of economic performance increase in view of the fact that the market economy began to materialize more than 750 years ago and organisations have constantly had to contemplate responsibility matters in their relations with the surrounding society (Vogel 1991:101). Andersen & Skjoett-Larsen (2009) define multi-stakeholders as a combination of partners that include shareholders, employees, government, NGOs, as well as international organisations and the media (Andersen & Skjoett-Larsen, 2009:75). The resources and proficiencies of each of these groups is strategically combined to resolve key challenges as a means of sustainable development; this is instituted on principles of shared risk, cost and mutual benefit (Andersen & Skjoett-Larsen, 2009:75).

A stakeholder can have a remarkable authority on profitability; it is therefore of paramount importance for the organisation's bottom line to combine the prospects of these groups. The linguistic shift from CSR to CC surrounds a philosophical adjustment in normative considerations of how institutes are supposed to perform with respect to stakeholders (Logsdon & Wood, 2002:156). Branco & Rodrigues (2007:5) portray the stakeholder as having a set vision of organisational responsibility held by all groups with a relationship to the organisation. However, in the normative model, the organisation accepts these views as long as they do not impede on the organisation. According to Shumate & O'Conner (2010:577), the stakeholder perspective falls short of acknowledging the intricacy of network relations that can transpire in cross-sector partnerships. It reduces in importance the announcement to a preservation function, comparable to the substitute perspective. Enhanced national and stakeholder considerations of an organisation and its goals and performance can transform into enhanced stakeholder affairs (Hohnen, 2007:11).

Organisations progressively implement socially responsible customs and, for this reason, the public, employees and shareholders have high expectations in terms of the standards and behaviour of production (Carroll, 1999:268). However, this can have an undesirable result intended for an organisation that does not satisfy customer expectations (Austin, Leonard, Reficco & Wei-Skillern, 2006:169). According to Ismail (2009:202), the stakeholder approach has been created as part of the plan to ameliorate the supervision of the organisation; it is a technique to identify with certainty in order to cope in a social context of responsible organisational behaviour. Furthermore, the stakeholder strategy believes an organisation to be a unified network of diverse matters where self-establishment and community creation take place interdependently, and individuals perform philanthropically (Ismail, 2009:202). Moreover, Garriga & Mele's (2004:51) analysis of the stakeholder approach is both contained by the integrative and ethical theories, where the former emphasizes the amalgamation of social requirements and the latter anchors on the accurate items to attain an advanced society.

Hohnen (2007:11) mentions that if an organisation has the aptitude to pursue developments through normal stakeholder discourse, it is in an improved place to predict and act in response to possible regulatory, economic, communal and environmental adjustments.

5.4.1 Shareholders

Regardless of the tenacity of the reflection of shareholders as narrow-minded profit maximizers who stipulate that managers pay no attention to calls for the broader social responsibility of an organisation, shareholders have become some of the most important allies of gallant citizens (Glac, 2010:5). Shareholders are commonly considered the owners of an organisation and, in shareholding, the ownership's constitutional rights are to some extent limited compared to the ownership rights one has over a house or any other type of tangible asset (Marens 2002:365). Furthermore, they hold shares for inclusion in the organisation's yearly meeting proxy materials (Loss & Seligman 2004:5-46). Shareholders can, in the long run, contribute to and be directly involved in changing norms for organisational behaviour by compelling organisations to implement environmental administration systems and institute a standard that such structure is a must-have for organisations (Sjöström, 2009:177).

Shareholders may pressurize organisations to produce annual sustainability information with particular categories of content, thus, instituting an announcement of customs. They may perhaps need their portfolio organisations to execute principled systems of conduct for their purveyors, in this manner, altering customs for supplier-producer interaction and accountability (Sjöström, 2009:177). More broadly, Sparkes & Cowton (2004:45) are excited concerning the responsibility of shareholder activism, and they profess that with a communally accountable venture strategy being implemented by an escalating quantity of organisational shareholders, the forecast of persuading organisations to take community and ecological liability has significantly increased. Investors are also probing for improved fiscal achievement that assimilates societal and natural considerations, both in terms of hazards and benefits.

However, organisations have an array of stakeholders who deem it critically important to control hazards to the organisation and uphold an optimistic status (Roberts, 2001:1). Beechler & Woodward (2009:273) and Porter & Kramer (2006:78), in an overwhelming statement received from the executives, stipulate that organisations ought to balance shareholder needs while at the same time making contributions that promote a society such as providing work, investing in funds, procuring supplies and undertaking buying and selling every day.

Porter & Kramer (2006:78) highlight that the most important thing an organisation can contribute to society and the community is to contribute to a thriving economy. This assertion, however, marks the essence of the study about the management perception regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. Considering the subject from a lawful point of view, and with a precise focus on human rights, Engle (2006:63) is also skeptical of the efficiency of shareholder suggestions in determining organisational policy. This is principally based on the details that declaration is void, but also the procedure control makes it intricate to effectively pass the declaration (Sjöström, 2009:177). However, there are other options for shareholder manipulation that could provide evidence of effectiveness, this includes: a variety of proceedings and shareholders' constitutional rights to scrutinize organisational records, which can be scrutinized to unearth and expose human rights exploitation (Sjöström, 2009:177).

O'Rourke (2003) shows that one of the most important characteristics of shareholder activism is the chance to unlock the discussions on social organisation and environmental dependability with a wider audience, constituted by both internal and external organisations (O'Rourke, 2003:227). Furthermore, shareholder activism is pricey and resource intensive, and could possibly lead to pessimism within the organisation. On a more constructive note, Neubaum & Zahra (2006:108) discover support for the premise that long-term investment tenure is positively associated with organisational social performance; this affiliation becomes stronger as activism, such as exchange of ideas and municipal demonstrations, rises.

Additionally, in an editorial that demonstrates the outlay specialists' commitment practices, Southwood (2003:223) concludes that the approach is most likely to be valuable in profitably following a communal program through depositor applications related to the proposal for long-term shareholders. This is a more successful support of organizational adjustment than enforcement through power struggles with the organisation (Sjöström, 2009:177). Finally, McCabe (2000:101) concentrates on the positive effects of shareholder suggestions only indirectly, but maintains that shareholder advocates which are devoid of comprehensive practices and professional knowledge of organisational policies are unlikely to go beyond a decree that is customized to the organisation's capabilities, consequently risking rejection.

5.4.2 Employees

According to Dicke, Holwerda & Kontakos (2007:5), the promise of profits beyond the organisation's expectations is achieved through employee engagement. In support of this notion, the workers' rendezvous is the number one estimate of an organisation's health (Vance, 2006). The workforce, too, frequently assesses their organisation's approach to decide if their individual ethics are inconsistent with those of the organisation for which they work (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006:111). Employees are increasingly demanding that their workplaces support their local communities, and are ethical and safe while making their staff available during family-friendly hours (Zappala, 2004:13).

When a workforce is conscious of the accountable tradition and altruistic performance of their organisation, it can create an estimate of self-importance in the organisation and lead to improved employee allegiance to the organisation (Austin *et al.*, 2006:169). The workforce needs to be presented opportunities for community involvement in order to provide the community with volunteer/service actions in an endeavor to be of assistance by resolving societal concerns regarding a variety of issues, including the environment, education, health and growth (Saul, 2011:230). However, by the same token, employees making efforts to be drawn in on social conscientiousness activities in their place of work, through volunteering for societal development endeavours, are prone to practically understanding an improved judiciousness of implication in their lives (Visser, Matten, Pohl & Tolhurst 2008:404).

In addition, employees should be encouraged to get drawn in to leveraging the basic accomplishments of the organisation by creating organisational worth and constructive social behaviours. However, this approach can be accomplished in various ways, together with generating admittance to more collectively responsible goods and services or reducing overheads (Saul, 2011:233). As part of organisational identification theory (Jones, 2010:858), the construct of volunteerism concerns the degree to which employers value the organisation's voluntary programs. Employees who value volunteer programs feel more pride about their organisation and their affiliation with it; this, in turn, increases their organisational identification and promotes the associated response, such as staff retention (Jones, 2010:858). According to Jones (2010:860), the touted benefits of volunteer programs are that they increase employee pride in their organisational membership. Volunteering generally provides the possibility of helping the workforce augment their leadership, by offering problem solving and mentoring skills at a low cost for the organisation, while connecting with the rest of the community (Scott, 2012).

Employee engagement is believed to be associated with feelings of choice, appropriate recognition, reward and control with a sustainable workload, supportive work community, fairness, justice, as well as meaningful and cherished labor (Saks, 2006:600). Comparably, an investigation performed in thirty-two nations, by Walker Information, reveals that most aspects persuade employees is fairness and concern for them (Frank, Finnegan & Taylor, 2004:12). The consideration is that if an organisation cares for its employees well, they will support the organisation as much or more in terms of both material and expressive obligation (Insightlink, 2005:137). Consequently, the workforce appointment, in due course, draws down at an employee's yearning and eagerness to bestow optional labors in their jobs (Frank *et al.*, 2004:12). Institutes that aspire to improve the pinnacles of a member of staff's appointment can anchor on aggregating and reinforcing the employees' view of support they get from the institute (Saks, 2006:600). According to various proponents of CC, active employee engagement is an important issue in performance enhancement for both the individual and the organisation (Glavas & Piderit, 2009:51; Mirvis, 2012:93).

According to Gebauer (2008:175), an engagement gap in the workforce can affect an organisation's top and bottom-line. Related to this is the recommendation that employee commitment speaks about being confident with ostensibly relentless optional citizenship or performances targeted toward benefiting society (Lin, 2010:517, Rego, Leal, Cunha, Faria & Pinho, 2010:107). However, being competent to further comprehend and manipulate the importance of the workforce in regards to institutes that promote humankind is becoming crucial. Organisations can no longer function exclusively for the advantage of proprietors or investors; employees, especially the youthful age band, expects institutions to do good for humanity (Knight, 2006:352).

In more specific monetary terms, the research displays a sturdy rapport involving workforce rendezvous and organisations' stock price, income growth and, by and large, economic achievement; this performance's variance is estimated to add an increase in market value (Mirvis, 2012:93, Bonini, Koller, & Mirvis, 2009:11). Quite a lot of studies have associated CC with key institutional achievement dynamics in corporate performance and earnings (Maxfield, 2008:367, Shen & Chang, 2008:133). Additionally, studies on the potential workforce have established that CC is professed optimism by the community; this will call for an excellent reputation which in turn assists the institute to be a focus for superior ability (Turker, 2009:189).

Clearly, there are several famous stories in which workforces were connived by their managers to disregard laid down ethical regulations in order to achieve higher takings (Asemah *et al.*, 2013:50). Undoubtedly, these approaches generate a society of panic in the work place and destroy the employees' trust, devotion and loyalty to the organisation (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006:111, Maxfield, 2008:367). Employees are however not only the front-line foundation of information for enhanced performance, but are advocates of an organisation for which they are proud to work (Hohnen, 2007:11).

5.4.3 Consumers

According to Quinn & Baltes (2007:7) and Grewal (2012:695), getting permit from key stakeholders is considered one of the main benefits of the organisation in the sense that, in the midst of the augmented influence of an organisation and the extent of public ownership, the organisation attains much improved accountability for financially viable development. Admittedly, local society can have significant power over an organisation's license to operate, simply for the reason that an organisation fits into place societal matters and presents the organisation as a good organisational citizen and partner (Quinn & Baltes, 2007:7, Robert *et al.*, 2002:8). In addition, stakeholder commitment and partnerships engage in sustaining and unlocking communication, being ready to shape valuable joint ventures and signifying truthfulness through quantifying, narrating and shrouding exercises (Asemah *et al.*, 2013:51).

The relationship between the organisation and the community in which it operates is thus likely to be more realistic and trustworthy (Asemah *et al.*, 2013:51). Significantly, this is a potentially important advantage for organisations for the reason that it augments their estimates to be propped up in excess of a longer period of the society and develops their ability to be more supportable (Galbraith *et al.*, 2007:27). Organisations can employ stakeholder commitment to internalize society's needs, hopes and state of affairs into their organisational vision and decision-making (Asemah *et al.* 2013:51). Furthermore, customers prefer to do business with socially active organisations rather than those that are socially irresponsible (Asongu, 2007:7).

Consumers expect goods and services to reflect socially and environmentally responsible organisational behaviour at competitive prices (Hohnen, 2007:3). Since consumers now have much more knowledge available at their fingertips, they can be more perceptive of the organisation whose products they purchase (Merrifield, 2003:2). A study by Min, Al, Choo, Wah & Yang (2012:2) reveals that if an organisation has a positive image and reputation, it has a propensity to create customer loyalty and commitment in the direction of the organisation which, in turn, leads to profit maximization.

Further, Bronn & Vrioni, (2011) posits that it is universally conventional that cause-related marketing is a communications tool for increasing customer loyalty and building reputation (Bronn & Vrioni, 2011:207). Overall, these studies offer supporting evidence to suggest that in any social context accountable organisations are possible to concede more favors from customers than those that are less socially responsible (Trang, 2011:21). Echoing the same sentiments, Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard & Hogg (2006:317) define the term as the study of the procedure concerned when persons or crowd selection, purchase, use or disposal of products, services, ideas, or familiarity in order to gratify desires and wishes. A survey of consumer attitudes towards CC in the UK, for example, found that more consumers form an impression of an organisation based on its CC rather than brand reputation or financial factors (Robert *et al.*, 2002:7).

The respondents cited labor practices, organisational ethics, and accountability to the society at large as well as the environmental impact in their responses (Robert *et al.* 2002:7). Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill (2006:46) establish that if the social initiative of the organisation is not aligned with other organisational goals, it will have a negative impact. Mohr, Webb & Harris (2001:45) and Groza, Pronschinske & Walker (2011:639) also emphasise the importance of reaching the consumer. Wieland & Handfield (2013:22) recommend that organisations need to include social responsibility in their reviews of constituent quality and have been drawing attention to the fact that the use of technology in improving visibility across the supply chain should also be included.

5.4.4 Government

Organisations are recommended to watch the existing regime in order to be measured as publicly accountable; this has at all times been a key principle of former models of CC (Carroll, 1998:17). Despite the fact that CC has conventionally been measured as an action that organisations willingly fit into place, the intensification and manipulation of CC progress has led to mounting calls for governments in a number of nations to control the shared activities of an organisation (Zappala, 2003:7).

Governments have, by now, various governmental instruments that legalize organisational behaviour in areas that are a component of CC programs, such as the health and safety, consumer affairs, competition and organizer supremacy (Zappala, 2003:14). CC is regarded as a significant method by which governments can augment trade and industry competitiveness and, at the same time, certify good quality community and environmental conclusions (Zadek, Sabapathy, Dossing & Swift, 2003:46). In brief, CC is attractive to government because it can replace, harmonize and/or legitimize government effort and policies (Moon, 2002:385). It is noteworthy that when the government is completely responsive an organisation, or all organisations, are alive to their responsibilities (Asemah *et al.*, 2013:51). Indeed, government regulations may have a negative effect on the organisation, but when organisations take responsibility for the fact that they have a social obligation to the community in which they operate, there may be no need for government intervention in terms of regulation.

Frederick (1998, cited in Asemah *et al.*, 2013:51) maintains that an organisation can, from its own socially responsible behaviour, discourage new government restrictions as long as it accomplishes a public good as well as its own private good. Governments, consumer organisations and other NGOs are crucial to encouraging, supporting and facilitating more responsible organisations (Freeman, 2011:5). The government's role in such inventiveness is to act as a catalyst and enabler rather than the more traditional position of the proprietor of the prize series (Zappala, 2003:14). However, from a societal point of view and market competition perspective, the government is expected to play a key role in encouraging the financial, societal and ecological state of affairs that favors more all-encompassing and sustainable development (Freeman, 2011:10).

In much of the developing world, governments and organisations appreciate that their respective competitive positions, and access to capital, progressively depends on being seen to respect the highest global principles (Hohnen, 2007:11). Furthermore, from a financially viable point of view, the monetary predicament has left a profound burden on administrative and financial planning as well as economic equilibrium around the world (Freeman, 2011:10).

However, this is pushing policy-makers to classify methods of meeting the challenge of societal and ecological progression through concerted efforts with the organisational sector (Freeman, 2011:10). Moreover, the regime may see their consideration in accomplishing enhanced ecological administration in a less conflicting approach, with less expenditure and a greater impact on employment formation, while at the same time improving the countrywide reflection on economic situation in reference to buying and selling and, eventually, constructing cost-effective and public achievements (Mazurkiewicz, 2004:10). Governments, too, are becoming conscious of the nationalized economic reward to be gained from a dependable organisation segment (Hohne, 2007:11). The principal manufacturing associations, such as the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), have also recommended that nations as well as organisations might achieve economic benefits from being communally accountable (Hohnen, 2007:11).

5.4.5 Non- Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

The communal and environmental challenges experienced by the general public are too immeasurable to be successfully dealt with by the states alone, hence the involvement of NGOs (Zappala, 2003:14). The role that NGOs may play within CC allows for a joint venture with organisations, making certain that organisations act in accordance with legislation as well as ranking organisations' performance alongside societal, moral and ecological score cards (Johns, 2003:13). NGOs and other civil society organisations are increasingly vital drivers of change (Warhurst, 2001:64). As a result of collaborating with NGOs or government, organisations can make available some public good; for example, an organisational, societal participation agenda in the region of learning and poverty alleviation, while at the same time gaining an organisational sense that includes reputation, employee motivation and skills (Porter & Kramer, 2002:56). According to Saul (2011:24), organisations have in the past been influenced by non-traditional stakeholders such as international NGOs, academics, consultants and environmental experts. These include standard-setting bodies like the Global Reporting Initiative, the UN Global Compact, Business Social Responsibility, Accountability and CERES (Saul, 2011:24).

Subsequently, organisations promulgate ethics and reporting guidelines which are influenced to define social responsibility and engage with organisational associations in order to identify and disseminate organisational best practices (Saul, 2011:24, Arenas, Lozano & Albareda, 2009:175). Similarly, NGOs encourage organisations to form joint ventures so as to encourage collective and ecological actions to adopt sustainable organisational practices, offer technical assistance, elaborate on commonly agreed certification schemes and arrange conferences (Saul, 2011:25, Arenas *et al.*, 2009:176). Alternatively, NGOs brought to light the fact that organisations do not display fair trading through their supply chains (Young 2002:38). In addition, organisations altered several of their procedures and approaches, partially because of community and opinionated demands related to certain NGOs or NGOs' connections (Bendell, 2004:53).

However, these new forms of partnership between organisations and NGOs are a sign of broader amendments in the overall domination of the environment; they simultaneously contribute to the reconstitution of the large-scale civic sphere of influence in which organisations carry out their actions (Ruggie, 2004: 499). NGOs can manipulate the media and public opinion, as well as mobilize the populace in the streets to stage a demo with the intention of exerting pressure on the organisational sector (Sayer, 2005:259). NGOs have diverse responsibilities at various intervals; moreover, they use different strategies ranging from hostility to group effort to make their messages clear (Argenti 2004:95). These tactics are as follows: the promotion of societal accounting and autonomous substantiation schemes; the filing of the declaration of the shareholders; the exchange of ideas to uphold the implementation of charitable codes of conduct; citations of ethical disgrace and abuses; calls for boycotts of products of an organisation and divestment of stocks; sponsorship of selective procurement laws and government-imposed principles as well as lawsuits in quest of corrective damages (Winston 2002:77).

NGOs, more often than not, identify the subjects that need measurement, supervision and reporting which further need to combine forces with organisations without losing their consistency and integrity, make available profits to individuals in the society, to spread out the support of the people as well as increase their numbers and financing (Smith 2005:64).

NGOs have come into view as primary global performers over the last few years and they have had to connect with influential institutions, with the aim of promoting social change; they have certain organisations which are most likely to be targeted (Arenas *et al.*, 2009:179; Hendry, 2006:47). This approach leaves most people with questions as they begin doubting the trustworthiness of an NGO when the NGO has an affiliation with an organisation (Argenti 2004:92). Consequently, to forward their interests, inferior stakeholders such as NGOs institute different types of interactions with organisations, which range from mutual to conflictual actions, such as protests, boycotts and civil unrest. Given the disregard for or disapproval of these events and their consequences; there are strong motivations for organisations to transform their policies to meet the demands of this type of stakeholder (Eesley & Lenox, 2006:765).

Regarding the status of NGOs in relation to organisations, some authors propose that they be viewed as stake-seekers, alleging to have a stake in the organisation's decision making (Holzer, 2008:50). Forfeiting attention to such factions can carry risks, as acknowledged in the case of Shell and the Ogoni in Nigeria (Wheeler, Fabig & Boele, 2002:297). NGO approaches towards the organisational sector are increasingly scrutinized as indispensable associates in civilizing society (Arenas *et al.*, 2009:180). At the same time, prospects on the subject of the organisation's obligation to collective growth are also advancing. Similarly, the general stance towards the non-profit sector has also altered and its significance to society's well-being has been recognized (Vernis, Iglesias, Sanz & Saz-Carranza, 2006:24-25). However, notwithstanding the increasing worldwide connectivity and curiosity in international issues, NGO influence the association with organisations also depend profoundly on state-run and provincial background (Doh & Guay, 2006:47). NGOs and civil-society groups are seen as vigorous watchdogs of both organisations and state, with the capacity to employ in crucial collaboration, but with an increasing prerequisite to express responsibility to stakeholder constituency (Waddock, 2002:132).

5.4.6 International organisations

According to Arenas *et al.* (2009:179) and Ebrahim (2003:813), the multiplicity of organisations is clustered under umbrella terms such as NGOs, nonprofit organisations, civil society organisations or the third sector or non-membership organisations. On a global level, pressures increase on Multi-National Companies (MNCs) as transnational organisations come into play, such as the Global Compact and the International Organisation for Standardization (ISO) 26000 (Bansal, 2005:197). According to Saul (2011:23), in previous years, organisations would be influenced by experts such as the international NGOs, academics, consultants and environmental experts; these include standard setting bodies like Global Reporting Initiatives and the UN Global Compact.

The Global Compact is an international program promoted by the United Nations (UN) and concerned with human rights, labor, environment and anti-corruption (Jacqueminet & Durand, 2013:7) and the ISO 26000 is an international standard structured around seven axes: governance, customer-related questions, environment, social involvement, human rights, working conditions and relationships (Jacqueminet & Durand, 2013:7). The UN Global Compact (UNGC), for example, is the largest CC initiative in the world. Approximately 5000 organisations have signed the initiative to implement the Compact's principles; they have voluntarily committed themselves to adhere to ten principles in the areas of human rights, labor rights, the environment and anti-corruption (Baumann & Scherer, 2010:17). In the context of the United Nations Global Compact (UNGC), the delineating concept is the so-called sphere of influence and, within their sphere of influence, organisations are expected to apply the UNGC principles (Baumann & Scherer, 2010:17).

Indeed, most organisations have formally adopted a Code of Conduct and/or become a participant of a CC-initiative in order to highlight their commitment to the new political role of organisations in emerging global governance structures (Detomasi, 2007:321). The goal of the CC-initiative is to promote responsible organisational conduct and, with over 5000 organisational participants, the UNGC has over the course of the last several years become the largest global initiative of its kind (UN Global Compact, 2009, cited in Fall & Zahran, 2010:11).

It is also argued that the ten principles are too vague and thus difficult to implement (Deva, 2006:107). Subsequently, responsible companies, particularly large ones with an international presence, cannot just sit on the sidelines; they have to implement CC (Lehrer & Delaunay, 2009:126). The sub-entity level, an MNC subsidiary, also faces an institutional duality, for instance, institutional pressures from their host country as well as from their parent company (Kostova & Roth, 2002:215, Hillman & Wan, 2005:322). Therefore, multinational organisations must respond to the rising demands regarding their triple bottom line by increasing economic, environmental and social benefits, while minimizing environmental and social impacts (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams & Ganapathi, 2007:836).

In particular, Delmas & Toffel (2008:1045) distinguish between receptivity to market and non-market pressures. However, the authors find that receptivity to market pressure positively moderates the impact of market pressures on ISO 14001 implementation and positively moderates the impact of non-market pressures on the implementation of volunteer programs (Delmas & Toffel, 2008:1045). The local external pressures foster similarity amongst members of the field (Rao *et al.* 2001:592). This is most likely due to the fact that the two available practices, ISO 14001 and voluntary governmental programs, are alternatives rather than complementary. The facilities in their study can implement ISO 14001 when the market pressures for implementation and the receptivity to these market pressures are high, or voluntary governmental programs when the non-market pressures for implementation and the receptivity to these non-market pressures are high (Jacqueminet & Durand, 2013:9).

The idea behind these organisations is to promulgate ethics and reporting guidelines for organisations and have, in turn, deeply influenced how organisations define social responsibility success (Saul, 2011:23). Other influences include thought-leaders like business for Social Responsibility, Accountability and CERES. These groups encourage organisations to adopt sustainable organisational practices, provide technical assistance and convene conferences. In recent years, some of these codes have developed a superior reputation over others (McIntosh *et al.*, 2003:6).

According to Zappala (2003:15), the quasi-legal forms of guidelines consist of the multitude of national agreements, conventions, directives, regional and international codes as well as principles that survive to show the organisational philosophy and tradition in CC. Indeed, according to an Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) assessment, there were approximately 250 charitable codes of conduct with significance to CC. Furthermore, this array may possibly offer a degree of preference and suppleness for organisations.

In addition, strengthened efforts are made by administrations to put an active accord into operation, such as the OECD Guidelines for Multinationals and the ILO Tripartite Declaration of Principles with reference to Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy augmented obligations to the establishment of UN principles for human rights tasks for conglomerate organisations as well as dynamic government support for home-country liability for activities conducted overseas and amplified worldwide obligation to dominance capacity-building, chiefly in 3rd world nations (Waddock, 2003a:42).

5.4.7 Media

It is important to be on familiar terms with the responsibilities of organisations to their stakeholders and shareholders through the press, Television (TV) channels and web sites (Pendleton, 2004:79). At the forefront of organisational concerns is their status and focus on customer demands for societal accountability issues rather than followers (Pendleton 2004:79). Moreover, it is very complicated to monitor, take charge of and report on the practices of organisations; for example, Shell emphasised the fact that it endeavors to be a good neighbor in Nigeria but displayed a nonchalant attitude in taking care of the oil spills quickly to avoid ruining local villages (Henderson, 2000:374). Coca-Cola stresses that it uses natural resources responsibly, but it runs down village wells in an area where water is scarce in India (Pendleton, 2004:77). BP, Shell, Nike, Reebok, and Disney have all been criticized by human rights groups and labor unions in the past few years (Manokha, 2004: 57).

The most likely reason for the unconstructive reflection on big organisations is the frequent incidence of definite high profile events which are considered by many as scandalous (Manokha, 2004:57). These actions have implicated some of the major and, previously, most highly viewed organisations in the world (O'Higgins, 2005:141). Their tainted images have frequently been fuelled by an awareness of the media and other stakeholders (Oxfam/VSO/Save the Children 2002, Clark 2000:363, Brammer, Brooks & Pavelin 2004:704).

There are quite a number of aspects that influence how the public and organisations interpret and respond to information; these include activities such as message content, perceived motivation of the organisation, industry of the organisation's business, nature of their organisation, brand reputation and information source (Scarlett, 2011:10). The news media are available to report the organisational trends and development of the organisation to the public, but it is the organisation's responsibility to enlighten the community about the good things that it does (Scarlett, 2011:13). Internet exchanges put forward prospects to appoint and share information with vast audiences (Scarlett, 2011:16). Through advocacy advertising, an organisation presents a supply to a reason or altruistic institute and its participation is shared through channels that focus on the cause or philanthropic endeavour or organisation rather than on the organisation (Menon & Kahn, 2003:325).

Menon & Kahn (2003:325) emphasise that when an organisation does not announce this news in a way that shows how the organisation itself benefits, it generates more intricate processing by the message receiver in understanding the real purpose of the organisation. The foundation resulting from which an individual receives information can have an effect on how that information is construed and regarded (Yoon, Gurhan-Canli & Schwarz, 2006:377, Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006:162). Furthermore, information about the organisation can be made available through advertising, press releases or the organisation's website (Scarlett, 2011:17). Another possibility is that advertisements are also potentially precarious because they draw attention to funds that the organisation could be spending on the cause (Scarlett, 2011:10).

Subsequently, Simmons & Becker-Olsen's (2006) study demonstrates that the public responded more favorably to sponsorships when the information source was the nonprofit or cause organisation rather than the organisation (Simmons & Becker-Olsen's, 2006:162).

5.4.8 The Workplace

It is no longer adequate for an organisation to experience economic affluence in seclusion from those agents impacted by its actions; organisations are expected to take responsibility for the societies in which they operate (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:8). An organisation has to focus its attention on both escalating its bottom line and being an excellent organisational citizen (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:8). A study by Ubius (2009:22) lends confidence to the organisation in exercising the innovation climate. This approach gives employees the opportunity to take the initiative and investigate innovative approaches as a degree of support and encouragement that an organisation can offer and that organisations together with individual innovation will help to achieve organisational objectives (Martins & Terblanche 2003:65, Smith, 2000:236, Unsworth & Parker 2003:175).

Significantly, employing innovative behaviour depends greatly on their interaction with others in the workplace and the climate for innovation is a direct result of top management's personal and positional characteristics (Anderson, Aronsson & Wikström, 2004:147, Zhou & Shalley, 2003:165, Damanpour & Schneider (2006:215). Indeed, meta-analytic substantiation reveals constructive outcomes resulting from perceptions of justice, such as organisational commitment, job performance, enhanced job satisfaction and organisational citizenship (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001:425). That is, the functioning of an organisation professed as just in its dealings with the larger shared settings gratifies the individual requirements for consequential continuation (Folger, Cropanzano & Goldman, 2005:215). Indeed, workforce controlled institutes are held responsible for their behaviour as they need to know that they are connected with a unit that does the right thing, with honor (Folger *et al.* 2005:215). Here, the focal point is on what others observe as morally suitable (Rupp, Ganapathy, Aguilera & Williams, 2006:538).

A proposal was made that organisations might improve to administer employees' moral judgment and employment attitudes with various strategies; this is an approach sanctioned in the moral code of conduct (Valentine & Fleischman, 2008:159). As a matter-of-fact, these principles are fashioned by the disposition and background of the organisation, its market point as well as its broader organisational objectives (McGaw, 2005:35).

5.4.9 Community

According to Kechiche & Soparnot (2012:97), the new knowledge encouraged organisations to put into practice the values of their organisation and to take into account the outlook of all its stakeholders; namely, the local community, environmental associations, suppliers, clients, consumers and employees. According to Ketvirtis (2012:6), CC is one device that organisations can utilize to retain a pool of talented workers. In particular, in the midst of the ferocious struggle for a gifted workforce and the rising obligation to CC, there is mounting confirmation that organisations' CC activities are a legitimate, persuasive and progressively more essential technique to appoint (Bhattacharya, Sen & Korschun, 2008:37).

In order for organisations to be successful, there is a need to embrace stakeholder management and sustainable management practices (Smith, 2011:30). Whilst revenue may perhaps be the end goal for any organisation, responsible organisations have managed to create a center of attention for more shareholders, abridged their perils and concentrated on stakeholder concerns (Fenn, 2013:20). According to Colford (2005:3), it is abundantly clear that expectations of organisations have developed rapidly over recent years and are expected to dissipate in the wake of more sustainable surroundings that they establish as well as taking the management of the general public to collaborate in addressing the main challenges facing humankind. According to Golinelli & Vagnani (2003:163), the beginning spread of markets is marked by oversupply; organisations have to deal with the global element of business, for which the organisation is structured as a network of performance results which are assessed through multiple indicators, where intangible organisational assets and intangible product assets lie alongside tangible organisational elements.

In general, an organisation, in as far as economic understandings is concerned, can increase profitability by either positively raising its revenues or reducing its costs (Bena, 2013:24). CC can have a positive impact on cost reduction, particularly, with its emphasis on efficiency, resource conservation and waste reduction (Epstein & Roy, 2001:585). However, effective communication of such achievements, through stakeholders, principally employees, can contribute to a good corporate image which can, in turn, boost sales while reducing costs, thus impacting financial performance (Bena, 2013:24). Alternatively, corporations might decide to improve the competitive context in their direct communities through their philanthropy, which brings social and economic objectives into alignment and improve the organisation's prospects (Porter & Kramer, 2002:57). Moreover, this form of CC presents a possibility for considering the generosity as conflicting with the notion of contributions for the sake of it (Matten & Crane, 2003:110).

Ditkoff & Colby (2009:108) argue that the development of a philanthropic strategy is an iterative process involving internal discipline to rigorously define the targeted outcome, hence success criteria, and the requirements to obtain this success and the long-term sustainability of this success. However, Bena (2013:27) suggests that such moves make a philanthropic engagement less random and more focussed on set objectives. This can be achieved by channelling more strategically towards societal issues of relevance to the philanthropist line of business, the organisation's interests and cause become clear; this, in turn, justifies its contribution and can ultimately result in the enhancement of its competitive position over time, while creating shared value benefitting society (Bena, 2013:27). As noted by Anderson, Bond & Pagano (2009:4), organisations need to build their philanthropic programs around their strategy. It follows that if they aim to demonstrate their good CC behaviour to stakeholders, there are no quick-hit tricks. It has been argued (Porter & Kramer, 2002:12) that no organisation can solve all of society's problems, or bear the cost of doing so alone. To achieve major social impact, collaboration and systemic change funding are required (Anderson *et al.*, 2009:4).

5.5 SUMMARY

In summary, creating an enabling environment for CC and its implementation requires that management understands and becomes enthusiastically aware of both the framework and expectations, but also recognizing that any changes they implement, will also nurture the environment. When implementing CC policies and values in an organisation, employees engage in the recreation of an exceptionally important role in regards to whether the implementation will be a triumph or failure. Organisations are usually on familiar terms with the belief that they should be generally accountable to their stakeholders and take a significant step in practicing CC, and embrace a number of benefits.

Although organisations endeavor to take on CC with their stakeholders, they are simultaneously struggling due to internal and external factors and, during the time of execution, the workforce might not have the same opinion regarding the values or may perhaps have misunderstood. However, in general, socially responsible organisations have very high employee satisfaction rates and motivation levels that reduce the cost to the organisation in the long run. Furthermore, it has been revealed that organisations that show evidence of CC have a better reputation, which means that there is a constructive illustration of the organisation in the public eye, which translates into consumer loyalty. The next chapter, Chapter 6, focusses on a model for management perceptions of CC.

CHAPTER SIX

A HYPOTHETICAL MODEL OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) BEHAVIOUR IN THE ORGANISATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

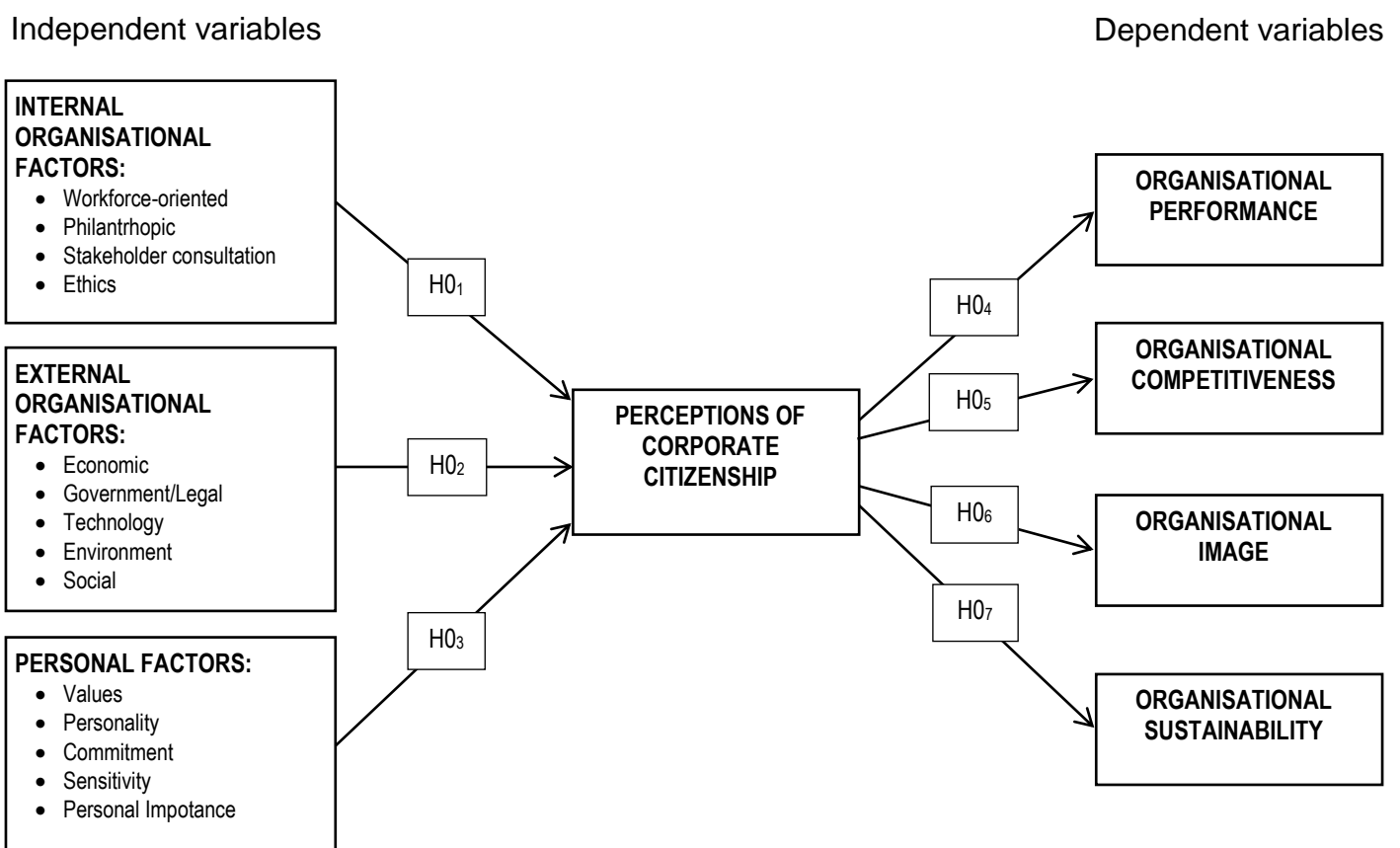
The previous chapter, Chapter 5, discussed about the creation of an enabling environment for CC and the implementation required to realize and actively respond to both the context and expectations as well as recognizing the changes likely to happen during the implementation process. It has been discovered that by creating an enabling environment for all stakeholders is crucial for the success of CC implementation. It has been noted that organisations that recognize the fact that they are socially responsible to their stakeholders and go an extra mile in practicing CC gain a lot of rewards that take account of high employee contentment and inspiration that lowers the expenditure to organisations in the long run.

Furthermore, it has been revealed that organisations that exhibit CC have an improved reputation, which means that there is an optimistic image of the organisation in the public eye that converts into customer loyalty. More so, organisations that engage in CC attract a distinctive number of investors, thereby increasing organisational access to capital. In addition, Razak (2004:19) posits that CC improves financial performance, enhances brand image and increases the ability to attract and retain the best workforce, thus contributing to the market value of the organisation. However, this chapter focusses on a model for management perceptions of CC and seeks to examine how the independent variables play their roles in terms of internal, external and personal factors as well as the mediating variable of perceptions regarding the CC strategic plan and CC organisational plan, and their effects on organisational performance and sustainability as dependent variables.

6.2 THE MODELLED INFLUENCES OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP(CC) BEHAVIOUR IN THE ORGANISATION

The hypothesized model is represented in Figure 6.1, which demonstrates the relationship between independent and mediating variables of the study. This indicates that a brief analysis of the influences and outcomes of CC is modelled for the purpose of this study in Figure 6.1. Consequently, the research variables are operationalized and the hypotheses are formulated. Figure 6.1, below, shows the influences of CC which are modelled as: organisational social responsibility, personal importance, personal characteristics, environmental involvement and market oriented impact of CC behaviour on performance and sustainability.

Figure 6.1: The modelled influences and outcomes of Corporate Citizenship(CC) behaviour in the organisation



Source: Own construction

6.2.1 Internal Organisational Factors

In this study, the independent variables comprise both internal and external, as well as organisational, factors and personal activities; these are discussed in the subsequent sub-sections. Internal organisational factors comprise of workforce oriented, philanthropic, stakeholder consultation, ethics and market oriented activities in this study.

6.2.1.1 Workforce-oriented Activities

An organisation's approach to justice and consideration regularly sways how the workforce fares with reference to the organisations, as well as how they perform at the same time as carrying out their duties (Heslin & Ochoa, 2008:129). Similarly, affirmative societal giving can be a dominant basis for the preservation of industrious employees (Falk & He, 2012:25). In this study, the term 'workforce-oriented' denotes aspects that an organisation can propose as a package with the objective of attracting talented employees; this includes the provision of a work/life balance, workplace safety, as well as promotion and compensation practices. Against this backdrop, CC can be a factor that attracts an excellent workforce for the organisation, builds goodwill and better relations with stakeholders and improves the environment in which the organisation operates (Jordan, 2008:12). Fonteneau (2003:1) claims that the only way to legitimize and lock-in the confidence of citizens in organisations is to regard employees' constitutional rights and wishes in the first place.

An organisation is expected to be in an enhanced position to produce a higher eminence of service, elevate the intensity of consumer contentment and CC activities that may possibly have an added affirmative effect on the organisation (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003:1177, Albinger & Freeman, 2000:242, Blackhaus, Stone & Heiner, 2002:292, Greening & Turban, 2000:292, Peterson, 2004:269). Overall, the existing research provides one with an idea about an organisation and its social responsibility actions that are substantially directed towards its workforce (Albinger & Freeman, 2000:245, Backhaus *et al.*, 2002:292).

Branco & Rodrigues (2006:111) give account for the fact that organisations professed to contain a societal dependability reflection cover an amplified capacity to draw superior job seekers, hold on to the high-road and preserve worker morale. A number of organisations in up-and-coming financial systems, workforce is inadequately remunerated and made to work unreasonable hours in perilous operational circumstances (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007:1). The institutional environment of Zimbabwe is small in the sense that there are no established institutions to monitor how organisations conduct business. Furthermore, studies such as those of Collins & Porras (1994:32-33) show undeniable evidence that when the workforce and organisation's ideals are aligned, organisation turnover increases well above the market and their peers (Glavas, 2009:45).

Graves & Waddock (2000:397) and Collins & Porras (1994) study one stage more and divulge that organisations are not barely organisational citizens, but their concern for their main stakeholders is linked directly to improved profits. The workforce holds standards above and beyond being workers and in this manner they can contribute in increasing revenue when they labor for an organisation that exhibits an attitude of caring for key stakeholders (Glavas, 2009:45). The most probable reason why profitability increases in such organisations is that the workforce finds significance in such work. Csikszentmihalyi (2003:46) suggests that when individuals are employed, they are more engaged, creative, and productive, thus leading to superior quality results in the organisation.

Willard (2002:336) further maintains that organisations that are considered to have good organisational citizens offer important jobs that call for the best employees, enhances the retention of top talent, and increases productivity. Zappala (2004:185) reassesses a range of analyses and creative writing that builds the link between CC and workers' behaviour; this includes motivation, morale, and dedication. The findings of these surveys reveal that employees who worked for large organisations normally feel advanced stimulus and loyalty towards their employment and organisations; they, in turn, become more socially responsible (Zappala, 2004: 188).

The relationship between CC and its results on workers, particularly behavioural results, was additionally considered by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), World Business Council for Sustainable Development, 2005) which published an inclusive testimony of various inspections and case studies which made the dispute that organisations that are viewed as excellent organized citizens have a workforce who are extra encouraged, dedicated and novel (WBCSD),World Business Council for Sustainable Development, 2005:13).

Erstwhile authors such as Gardner, Csikszentmihalyi, & Damon (2001:64) and Willard (2002:336) have found similar relationships. Sisodia, Wolfe, & Sheth (2007:12-13) found that individuals seek for elevated significance and when they engage in important work, they tend to be more stimulating and dedicated to the organisation. Evidence in support of this position can be found in the study conducted by Peterson (2004:260) who examined the association between social performance and work attitudes; in this study, the researcher used the organisational obligation as a measure of employees' work attitudes. In addition, a study of customer behaviour found that there are very few customers that are switching after being turned away by an employee's unconcerned mind-set (Melcrum, 2008:3).

Research reveals that each disappointed consumer tells at least eight individuals regarding their experience with such employees (Melcrum, 2008:3). However, it can be seen from the above analysis that a strong employer brand name aligned with workers' principles and concerns is becoming recognized as one of the best ways to make employees proud to work for an organisation that is highly regarded. In contrast, workforce earnings can result in augmented operational expenses, loss of business to competitors and abridged purchaser service standards (Thornton, 2008a:12).

6.2.1.2 Philanthropy

In this study, philanthropy is understood as voluntary contributions given by individuals and organisations in the form of money, goods and expertise.

Philanthropy emerged in the late 1800s, and is frequently understood as an outcome of prosperous persons' pensions from the organisational field, which are used to set up foundations and trusts to lend a hand to social causes (Windsor, 2001:225, Carroll, 2008:19). In China, the accounting organisational model can be traced as far back as 2500 years ago to the deterministic entrepreneurs who followed proceeds with truthfulness and dedication to the society's affluence (Huang, 2008:264). Similarly, one study validates that an opinion of remorse supports contributions and demonstrate that the result of guilt prompted them to engage in philanthropic activities (Basil, Ridgway & Basil, 2006:61).

However, willing to contribute in the form of a proportion of pre-tax earnings, presents a substantial measure of the social effort of organisational management (Bronn & Vrioni, 2001:207). More so, Porter & Kramer (2002:56) argue that devotion to charitable performances may be the only approach to advance the framework of the spiritual reward of an organisation and normally generates better societal value than individual donors or the state can (Porter & Kramer, 2002:59). In addition, philanthropy is common among people of nobility, as there is a new enthusiasm for giving away money among the rich and famous (The Economist, 2006:846). Yet, before this trend among the very wealthy, the vast majority of ordinary people made charitable contributions (Andreoni & Petrie, 2004:1605, Vesterlund, 2006:568). However, the organisation has the facts, assets and improved thoughts of how to get to the foundation of exertion associated with its behaviour (Porter & Kramer (2002:62). Additionally, studies of intellectuals' researching belief have always established an unconstructive relationship between the size of worshippers and secular donations (Hungerman, 2005:2245, Stonebraker, 2003:48).

Despite the fact that the benefactor frequently contradicts the level of societal pressure, surveys have found that donations are rather strongly related to measures of social pressure (Polonsky, Shelley & Voola, 2002:67, Bekkers & Schuyt, 2008:74, Smith & McSweeney, 2007:363). Furthermore, the results by Clotfelter (2003:109) affirm that those who still relate to previous alumni have a tendency to grant more to undisclosed institutions and institutions of higher education may be enhanced by their reputation.

Charitable responsibilities are the element of responsibility that assists organisations to be recognized as well-intentioned and humanitarian citizens in the social order (Yelkikalan & Kose, 2012:294). Consequently, charitable tasks are positioned in the top echelon of the pyramid of societal accountability and in association with the responsibilities in the lower levels; the fulfillment of these obligations is not considered a prerequisite by the general public (Yelkikalan & Kose, 2012:296). The number of organisations that fulfil these responsibilities is limited and they are usually large-scale organisations (Yelkikalan & Kose, 2012:296). Some have measured the aspect of handing funds to charities as an expression of dynamic citizenship and others even regard it as an institutionalized part of any particular society (Vogel, 2006:635. Corneo, 2007:831).

Similarly, Hernegger (2006:167) dedicates exceptional interest to these appropriate factors, pointing out that the splitting of classified and unrestricted fields of accountability holds opposing views linking opinionated systems and the structural conditions/economy, the officially authorized system as well as the levy system/cultural understanding which also shapes giving. A review of the purpose for making a contribution to intercontinental aid associations also discloses a constructive consequence of necessity to many organisations; moreover, a survey on contributions to pan handlers reveals that the professed need is optimistically interrelated to contributions (Cheung & Chan, 2000:241, Lee & Farrell, 2003:299). The compelling evidence is that studies, predominantly those carried out by sociologists and marketing scientists, reveal that individuals who have philanthropic principles have pro-social values, are less worldly in general and support post-materialistic ambitions in politics (Bekkers & Schuyt, 2008:439, Farmer & Fedor, 2001:191, Sargeant, Ford & West, 2000:318).

Furthermore, the value being devoured by individuals approves an ethical standard of care, social order, compromise and social justice in the general public; they also believe in communal accountability for the donor association and the public which results in more giving since they are encouraged to formulate an improved place for humankind (Weerts & Ronca, 2007:20, Schuyt, Smit, & Bekkers, 2010:121, Schervish & Havens, 2002:47, Wilhelm & Bekkers, 2010:1).

Accordingly, this places focus on the meso level. Breman's (2006:16) findings reveal that there is an insignificant effect of public funding in social services, but a comparatively considerable one in environmental, cultural and interest organisations. Other pragmatic studies reveal how higher excise can lead to a down turn in philanthropy in total figures but, through the reduction of the tax preparation incentive, individuals will give more (Okten & Weisbrod, 2000:255, Rushton, 2008:293).

6.2.1.3 Stakeholder Consultation

In this study, stakeholder consultation sustains productive external interactions over time. Organisations that commence the procedure earlier and obtain a long-term, calculated examination are, in essence, developing their local social license to operate (Stakeholder Consultation Issue Paper, 2004:33). Despite the fact that there is a necessity to be open to an outer basis of insight and proficiency, there has been very little investigation concerning the implications of stakeholder dialogue for sustainable innovation, and only a few sensible occurrences have been acknowledged and remarked so far (Sabapathy, Swift, Weiser & Polycarpe, 2002:46). De Jongh (2008:19) asserts that, in South Africa, the mining sector has led the way in integrating society participation and human rights more broadly into the list of items of the private sector.

The Zimbabwean mining sector also led the way to renewed investor interest and the proposed execution of the indigenization and the Economic Empowerment Act (EEA). However, investigating why organisations are provoked to fit into place with stakeholders and the public on societal concerns disclose some fine distinctions in regional CC (De Jongh, 2008:19). In Zimbabwe, there is no such kind of motivation for these groups because the interested parties are not well informed.

In China, there is an insignificant push from local NGOs, but there is mounting demand from foreign investors and international NGOs to take on more accountable practices (Moosmayer & Davis, 2012:2).

6.2.1.4 Ethics

In this study, ethics refers to general guidelines on good behaviour/conduct of individuals, groups and organisations as a whole. However, previous studies also point out that organisational ethics yield augmented job contentment and, in the strong possibility that a link subsists involving organisational ethics and CC, that societal mindedness should also relate to such fulfilment (Koh & Boo, 2001:301). However, consumers' skepticism is another setback that organisations have to triumph over and this could be done by persuading customers that their acquisition choice can cause a disparity in moral expression (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001:560). Other studies point out that hoisting customer responsiveness points to a constructive approach and stronger behavioural objectives in terms of trading from socially responsible organisations (Sen, Bhattacharya & Korschun, 2006:225).

Icelandic traditional organisational customs make available an ambiance prone to unprincipled and fraudulent organisational practices such as exploiting the municipality as the entrusted power for individual gain (Vaiman, Sigurjonsson & Davidsson, 2011:259). The organisational domination concern determined that the organisation, the media, and the government did not promote transparent and enlightened coverage to all their stakeholders (Schwarzkopf & Sigurjonsson, 2010:1, Vaiman *et al.* 2011:259). There is a social contract, for instance, of authorized standards between an organisation and society from the ethical viewpoint of CC (Donaldson, 1982:18, Dunfee & Donaldson, 2002:38). According to Carroll (2001:140), the system through which organisations have exhibited their commitment to good CC takes account of the realization of organisations and intergovernmental codes of conduct, certification, social audits, fair trade schemes and organisational social investment programs.

Carroll (2001:140), for example, asserts that official mechanisms will, by themselves, display insufficiencies for the reason that they cannot wrap all potential circumstances and laws which tend to lag behind ethics. Altman & Vidaver-Cohen (2000:1-2) suggest that as more organisations become acquainted with the fact that profitable payback can accumulate from the achievement of these principles, there will be an increase in the institutionalization of citizenship conceptions and practices across a broader spectrum of organisations, industries, and nations.

Furthermore, Waples, Antes, Murphy, Connelly & Mumford (2009:131) found that the specific organisational ethics of instructional programs have a lower impact on ethical perceptions, behaviour or awareness. Comparatively, Vitell, Dickerson & Festervand (2000:15) conducted a study on how ethical standards measure up to those of the past and found that ethics were lower than they were a decade earlier. Even more profound ethical behaviour had declined over the past two decades. These findings provide verification of perceived deprivation in ethical standards over time. This view gives the impression to disregard the piece of evidence that these outrages were, mostly, consequences of the malfunction of inspection measures and principles (Bean & Bernardi, 2007:64). Additionally, Beggs & Dean (2007:64) put forward an assortment of ways to deal with this mind-set, together with more optimistic support for ethics philosophies, more interface with stakeholders in organisations, and a rethinking of organisational training traditions.

In the same manner, O'Leary & Radich (2001:235), establish that Australian students were enthusiastic to swindle the levy administrative center and shareholders. However, the risk of being caught appeared to reduce unethical tendencies, not the nature of the act. However, Boyce (2008:255) and Low, Davey & Hooper (2006:225) discuss the goals of ethics education in the context of a critique of organisational school culture. It would, however, emerge, as summarized by Bampton & Maclagan (2005:290), that what is necessary is an investigation which confirms that objectives, satisfied rules and phases or ethical beliefs and long term impact can all be linked. The main concern is that, historically, many organisations perpetrating the reckless conduct described by the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) have shown little sensitivity towards communities directly affected by such recklessness (Akpan, 2006:233).

6.2.1.5 Market-orientation

In this study, market-oriented can be defined as a form of organisational custom where the workforce throughout the organisation is committed to continually creating superior customer value, or as a series of marketing activities that leads to improved performance. The marketing concept can be classified into an old marketing concept and a new one (Gunay, 2002:753). The shift in focus becomes clear with the new millennium. Before 2000, scholars focused primarily on the direct effects of market orientation (MO) that were found to be diverse organisational performance measures, while after the year 2000, the focus shifted to the numerous indirect effects of it such as the effect on learning, employee satisfaction, and innovation. Farrell (2000:210), for example, was one of the first to find new evidence that the level of marketing orientation goes with organisational learning.

Subsequent years of organisational research have concluded that market-oriented organisations perform better than organisations that are less market-oriented (Schalk, 2008:8). The focus of these organisations is on adapting their products and services to the needs and expectations of the customers, as opposed to product-oriented businesses that focus on developing a product or service that is then marketed and hopefully sold (Grönroos, 2006:395). However, research on market orientation for many years has shaped marketing thinking by illustrating the leading views that developing a market orientation is positively associated with superior performance for the organisation (Helfert, Ritter & Walter, 2001:1, Kirca *et al.*, 2005:23, Harris, 2001:17, Langerak, 2003:447) and others.

Subsequently, market orientation (MO) perception is concerned with harmonized organisation intelligence generation, intelligence propagation and receptiveness to market data and information for proficient and successful marketing management decisions (Sundqvist, Puumalainen & Salminen, 2000:55). However, organisations and scholars alike are interested in its effects on daily operations and in the costs of introducing market-oriented behaviour (Rust, Amber, Carpenter, Kumar & Srivastava, 2004:76). Similarly, Slater & Narver (2000:69) found that market orientation is indeed optimistically related to organisational profitability, measured by return on investment.

Other measures include sales growth and new product success and those used in Narver's & Slater's (1994) research also showed a positive relationship (Schalk, 2008:41). Moreover, Castro, Armario & Sánchez del Río (2005:646) found that market orientation links with customer and employee satisfaction. The positive effects of market orientation on service quality was recorded by Kantsperger & Kunz (2005:135). Research provides evidence that a high level of market orientation will lead to increased innovation and organisational learning that will, in turn, lead to better performance (Rapp, Schillewaert & Wei, 2008:7). Furthermore, an organisation that obtains more knowledgeable employees, makes better products and provides better service (Shepstone & Currie, 2008:358, Laforet, 2008:358).

In addition, Skerlavaj, Stemberger, Skrinjar & Dimovski (2006:346) propose that organisational learning culture might be the missing link between organisational change and organisational performance. Results from Laforet (2008:359) give one the idea that small and medium-sized organisations are more innovative and market-oriented than larger organisations. Haugland, Myrtveit and Nygaard's (2007:1191) findings indicate that market orientation has only a modest effect on productivity, but it can also be a practical mechanism in the process of designing products and services (Haugland *et al.*, 2007:1191). However, Martín-Consuegra & Esteban (2007:383) have researched market orientation and its consequences as well as its effects on performance and have concluded that it leads to a competitive advantage, if well implemented.

In the final analysis, the positive link between the degree of market orientation and organisational performance has been found in many countries and organisational sectors disregarding organisational size, culture or product/service (Jaworski, Kohli & Sahay, 2000:45, Slater & Narver, 2000:69). The practical results show that there is a considerable connection between organisational social responsibility and management perceptions of CC behaviour. The pragmatic outcomes postulate that employees have similar values to those of the organisation regarding CC and that the organisation inspires their employees to participate in CC initiatives.

Consequently, management perceived that being responsible brought changes in the outlook of CC by looking beyond passive philanthropy in terms of contributing towards educational institutions in the form of issuing out scholarships to the needy, infrastructure development and research programs. Furthermore, the results indicated that the organisation has an explicit ethical and moral value for implementing CC initiatives in the areas in which they operate and, at the same time, their participation in CC results in good economic return for stakeholders. The results further reveal that organisations offer training opportunities, such as apprenticeships, for young and disadvantaged groups in local communities. Additionally, organisations go afar with what is compelled by law to formulate a constructive impact on the general public and their surroundings and, in doing this, employees become pleased to be associated with organisations that participate in CC initiatives.

The empirical inquiries of this study show that executives perceive that market orientation has a significant positive association with the perception of CC behaviour. The conclusions confirm that these organisations supply accurate information, ensure transparency, ensure honesty, efficiency, and clear labeling in their product advertising and promotion. Furthermore, the study reveals that management has a process to ensure effective feedback consultation and a dialogue with customers as well as having a register to log complaints from customers. The study also reveals that organisations adopted a philosophy of societal marketing to enhance the well-being of society. Moreover, the results indicate that organisations display tolerance towards different cultural groups by nurturing employee diversity within organisations. In addition, organisations ensure that steps are taken against all forms of discrimination at the work place, including offering a good workplace balance for employees.

Against the background of these findings, it is hypothesized that:

H0₁: Internal organisational factors as measured by workforce orientation, philanthropic, shareholder consultation, and ethics and market-orientation do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe

6.2.2 External Organisational Factors

According to Ingram & Media (2009:11), the external organisational factors comprise of all the entities that exist outside its boundary, but contain a significant influence on its growth and survival. The manager should have the ability to conduct environmental scanning which, in this case, is the monitoring of proceedings and tendencies that present either threats or prospects for the organisation (Gupta, 2009:4). In general, these take account of competitors' activities; changing consumer needs; legal, economic, political, and environmental issues; the potential for new markets; and the like.

6.2.2.1 Legal

Legal responsibilities require organisations to operate within the boundaries of laws and national policies (Tan & Komaran, 2006:2). Legal factors incorporate inequity law, consumer law, antitrust law, employment law, and health and safety law. These dynamics can have an effect on how an organisation operates its costs, and the order for its products (Carroll, 1979:500). In actual fact, the general public gives consent to organisations to embark on the role of manufacturer as a part of the social contract, but also specifies conformity with the law and a diverse system in the line of their process (Carroll, 1979: 500). The Organisations Act, for example, was propagated in 2006 to lay down a broad-spectrum doctrine of community accountability for organisations to comply with organisational ethics and guidelines (Nag, Hambrick & Chen, 2007:935).

Similarly, pertaining to legal Issues in CC, Ward (2003:14) argues that it is an inaccuracy to recognize CC, or CSR, as intrinsically restricted to intended organisational accomplishments ahead of legally binding minimum baselines. A report from the consultancy firm SustainAbility (Lye & Müller, 2004:12) also argues that there is escalating unification involving legal responsibility and ethical accountability mirrored in shifts in the shared values of the responsible organisation. Consequently, those movements might, over time, look forward to finding their way into law (Lye & Müller, 2004:12).

Henderson Global Investors (2005:15) acknowledges that most organisations do not come into view to have considered systematically the relationship between tax administration and their approach to organisational responsibility. In this instance, a good legal environment might be associated with less use of collateral. Davydenko & Franks (2008:565) concur that in countries with creditor-unfriendly laws the banks' recovery rates are lower. In Zimbabwe, for example, the legal environment is of concern because, in financial institutions, a collateral agreement comes into play for any amount exceeding \$5000.00, whether the loan is salary based or mortgage based. There is fear in financial institutions that defaulters will easily get away with it.

6.2.2.2 Technology

Technology includes the science and technology required for inventions, scientific devices that are used in the industry or the equipment of the invention itself, as is the case of high-tech industry (Ingram & Media, 2009:11). According to Gupta (2009:3), the internet, social networks, advances in semiconductors and communication technologies transform how organisations operate in this area and they economically affect the success of the organisation. Conformity can effect extra costs in developing new technology, additional taxes or legal fees; one such example is lowered carbon emission requirements (Gupta, 2009:4). The 21st century led to many changes in the computer industry as the mass production and standardization of products has been replaced by flexibility and customization (Koumparoulis, 2013:32). This can be proven as a techno-economic rationale that has replaced the energy and the global development has also changed as new works are created and the global marketplace is increased (Koumparoulis, 2013:32).

The fast changes in technology, society, the economy, and environment bring new challenges for organisations to develop a new structure and management process (Koumparoulis, 2013:32). In the economic environment, the old hierarchal organisation is coping with a new world order with permeable geopolitical boundaries and these changes lead organisations to manage in various ways, in order to continue to live in the new environment (Koumparoulis, 2013:32). In order to face changes, management in the 21st century is founded on networks, partnering and technological advancement (Jamali, 2005:104).

This approach, known in literature as technology push, suggests that the path and pace of technological changes are distinct not by demand, but by the aptness of technology in out of the ordinary industrial usage (Goldenberg, Lehmann & Mazursky & 2001:69). This notion is also sustained by the work of Astebro & Dahlin (2005:1404) which asserts that a dimension of technological inconclusiveness, which presents a likelihood of outlook intended behaviour of an enquiry and development, will get to the bottom of the existing challenges. According to Astebro & Dahlin (2005:1404), the financial system of those countries that have strong scientific and technological potential has a significant benefit over those whose economies that do not have such potential.

Astebro & Dahlin (2005:1404) further posit that a survey on product innovation and research findings reveal that technological opportunity has more far reaching effects in comparison to market demand. Furthermore, technological change is imperative in the contemporary organisational dispensation when a lot of organisational opportunities rely heavily on new technology such as news media and social media (Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and others) to thrive (Nwagbara & Reid, 2013:18). Furthermore, technological breakthroughs have reconfigured the ways in which organisations are run globally (Nwagbara & Reid, 2013:18). More so, this is a strategic management tool that organisations could adopt to better their reputation and organisational gains, given the enormous reach and pace of communication that comes with this development (Nwagbara & Reid, 2013:18).

6.2.2.3 Economics

In this study, economics refers to studies on how individuals, governments, organisations and nations construct preference by allocating resources to satisfy their unlimited wants. Financial circumstances influence how easy or how complex it is to be triumphant and lucrative at any time because they have an effect on both resource accessibility and expenditure, as well as demand (Thompson, 2002:29). Notwithstanding, a low financial system will, by and large, be a luxury which results in a number of organisations going out of operations; it can provide opportunities for some, if they are well established and clear of external threats (Thompson, 2002:29).

In the new monetary consideration that has come into view, the solidity of each production forms a challenging circumstance that has a consistent effect on both the internal and external environments of organisations (Koumparoulis, 2013:31). The majority of organisations need to maintain their competitive advantage. Lipsey (2001:304) studies United States Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in three regions as they experienced currency crises; the research findings reveal FDI flows are much more stable during these crises than other flows of capital. According to Fernández & Souto (2009:36), this has constructive effects of endogenous variables such as the impetus of the entrepreneurial tradition, reinforcing organisational strategies, intensifying the organisation's market share, and giving surety to investors.

Similarly, Giannarakis & Theotokas (2011:1), in order to calculate the impact of the financial crisis on the performance of CC, conducted a study on large-scale mainstream of the organisation in the period covering 2007-2010, using Global Report Initiatives (GRI). In addition, organisations which aim to uphold their brand value and sense of confidence, redefine their relationship with society (Yelkikalan & Kose, 2012:294). However, one study analyzes the dynamics that have an effect on the choice of the most appropriate strategy and indicates the level of development an organisation endeavours to achieve (Marrewijk, 2010:85). Thus, in determining the strategic guidelines, the challenges that existed within the organisation were acknowledged (Marrewijk, 2010:91).

6.2.2 4 Government

Government, in this study, refers to the system by which a state or community is governed. Despite the fact that financial status and government procedure are closely linked, they both manipulate a number of other environmental challenges that can impinge on an organisation (Koumparoulis, 2013:33). Capital markets conclude the state of affairs for the unconventional nature of financial support for organisations and have a propensity to be subject to government controls; at the same time, they will be directed by the existing economic state of affairs, which includes the fluctuation of the interest rate assigned to a loan which is also influenced by the government (Koumparoulis, 2013:33).

According to Thompson (2002:35), the capital markets soar in the situation when the government increases the supply of money. These conditions have an effect on the rate at which shareholders might want to lend a hand in monetary terms and or their eagerness to trade their shares (Thompson, 2002:35). Taiwan's e-government services were ranked third among other countries in 2007 and second in 2008 (West, 2007:65). However, through many years of development and implementation, e-government has become an important strategy for the implementation of reinvented and inventive services in several countries (Luarn & Huang, 2009:227). Subsequently, the argument supporting the social responsibility of organisations also holds that there is a long history of governments that are unable to address social concerns effectively (Bitcha, 2003:17). However, at this stage, organisations should be given the opportunity to use more self-disciplined regulations by relying on their pool of resources such as capital and talent (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85). This is best demonstrated in Scandinavian countries that are so-called welfare states (Bibri, 2008:69).

6.2.2.5 Environmental concerns

Environmental concerns in this study, refer to the assimilation into the design, manufacturing and distribution of products of environmental considerations such as pollution prevention and control, protection of water resources, biodiversity conservation, waste management, management of local pollution, or the environmental impact of transportation. It should be noted that organisations have little or, to a certain extent, no control over their environment; subsequently, they require constant monitoring of and adaptation to these external changes (Ingram & Media, 2008:9-11). Environmental and societal problems actually create value for the organisation; for instance, plant-level data was used over the period 1963-1992 for industrial organic chemicals, miscellaneous plastic products, metal cans and barrels, and the wood furniture sectors (Lash & Wellington, 2007:94, Strom, 2007:3, Becker & Henderson, 2000:379).

6.2.2.6 Social

In this study, social refers to proactive human resources management which normally includes the high regard for human rights and the obliteration of child labor as well as contributions to local and general interest causes. In terms of social, civil liberties it has been seen that improving working conditions in ensuring a source of revenue for employees and financing the schooling of child laborers are all activities in which organisations and others have engaged under the label of CC (Matten & Crane, 2005:172). As emphasized by Van den Berghe & Louche (2005:129), organisations are facing a new challenge in terms of the non-market forces exerted by NGOs, the media, trade-unions and others; as a result of these forces, CC is well thought-out as a prerequisite for sustainable intensification and welfare. This theory of contestability, which anticipates threats of social protest, can effectively discipline organisational behaviour (Forget, 2012:50). Organisational management schools, students, influential scholars, thought-leaders, journals, and publications which are purposeful and focused on the topic of organisation and society, become the major streams of management in the midst of organisational management (Glavas, 2009:27).

Furthermore, organisations may perhaps change their management strategies with the intention of adapting to these social movements, such as employing an adult workforce and transforming organisations into societal benefits (Prasso, 2007:155). Perhaps, the supreme symbol of a shift in interest is the claim that communal betterment be transformed into the foundation of both management education and organisational practice (Glavas, 2009:27). The research findings indicate that CC should be a core part of the Masters in Business Administration (MBA) curriculum and more students will be in a position to understand the benefits of engaging in CC which will result in them being socially responsible (Knight, 2007:352). The trend of becoming socially responsible is not only evident amongst the youth, but also amongst organisational management who have realized the benefits thereof. McKinsey's (2006) study, of 4238 management staff members in 116 countries, reveals that 84 percent believed that organisations should contribute to the public good while also making a profit (McKinsey, 2006:1).

Furthermore, employees are certain that whenever they are not at work for some reason, the team spirit suffers and they simultaneously feel that they should be consulted on a suitable replacement on their CC project team. The empirical findings of the study show that employees ought to believe that they are more talented and able to lead any CC project within their organisation. The study concludes that administrators perceive that environmental involvement has an optimistic relationship to the perception of CC behaviour. The findings demonstrate that organisations' attempts to reduce their environmental impact such as waste management, energy conservation and recycling, reduces the costs of managing their environmental impact. Furthermore, the results reveal that management deems that the prospective impact of this is that, when developing new products and services, it provides clear and accurate environmental information on products and well defined policies to protect the natural environment and all stakeholders. Furthermore, the study discloses that the latest technology is used to create value for all stakeholders; moreover, the technology is used to acquire, process and communicate information via Facebook and other social media in order to engage with stakeholders regarding CC initiatives.

Against this background, the hypothesis is as follows:

H0₂: *External organisational factors as measured by economic, legal, technological, social, environmental concerns and government do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.*

6.2.3 Personal factors

Personal factors that could play a role are values, personal importance, personality, sensitivity and commitment. Communal interest is an extension of self-interest, in that individuals are motivated to operate with an organisation's best interests in mind, and to implement organisational goals (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006:585). Confirmation proposes that high organisational identification is coupled with cooperative and organisational citizenship behaviours (Riketta, 2005:358, Tyler & Blader, 2003:394).

According to Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades (2001:42) and Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie (2006:262), a handful of studies have revealed that persons who accept as true that they benefit from their organisation's actions often perform above and beyond the formal job expectations which benefit the organisation and its members. Despite the fact that organisational identification is low, individuals use interactions to evaluate their relationships with the organisation (Flynn, 2005:737, Lawler, 2001:321). In negotiating exchanges, individuals and organisations bargain for an agreement based on undeviating and stringent reciprocity (Molm, Collett & Schaefer, 2007:205).

Negotiated exchanges can increase conflicts of interests between actors, thus making exchanges competitive and conflictual (Molm *et al.* 2007:205). Consequently, mutual interactions ought to be more consistent and have more solidarity than negotiated exchanges (Molm *et al.*, 2007:205). Lawler (2001:321) suggests that widespread exchanges promote a supportive atmosphere in the society and encourage shared commonality and philanthropy with the purpose of pushing others to discharge their obligations for the fortification of society rather than for their exclusive narrow self-interests.

6.2.3.1 Values

In this study, values refers to those beliefs or standards that incline individuals to act, or to choose, in one way rather than another. The concept can also describe the beliefs of an individual or culture. Values are related to the broader spectrum of behaviours, such as consumer purchases, cooperation and competition, intergroup social contact, occupational choice, religiosity and voting (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001:268). Furthermore, Shafer, Fukukawa & Lee (2007:265) has developed and validated a theory of fundamental values together with a widely used measurement instrument. An extensive series of studies has revealed a discrepancy in value related concerns of individuals within the general public as well as groups across states (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001:268, Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005:170). In this context, intra-groups in the social order are separated on the basis of factors such as gender, age, study major and political cause (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001:268).

However, it is remarkable that the personal values do not inevitably correspond with the underlying cultural values in society (Wang, 2011:51). Similarly, the preceding study has exposed that persons with harder values are plausible to be less anxious about ecological matters and less likely to take action on such issues; instead, they feign ignorance of the consequences of being valueless (Fukukawa, Shafer & Lee, 2007:381). Maignan (2001:57) identified a similar phenomenon with regard to social issues indicating that individuals with additional collectivistic values were largely concerned about organisations' compliance with societal norms, rather than their financial performance. Some researchers have pointed out that collectivist values converse with the stakeholder views, highlighting, for example, the welfare of people and the employee morality of organisations (Axinn, Blair, Heorhiadi & Thach, 2004:103, Fukukawa *et al.*, 2007:265). Values guide attitudes and behaviour (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001:268, Bardi & Schwartz, 2003:1207).

However, empirical findings suggest that altruistic values, associated with higher levels of moral awareness make a significant constructive contribution to ethical decision-making, whereas egoistical values, associated with lower levels of moral awareness, make a significant negative contribution to ethical decision-making (VanSandt, 2003:144, Shafer *et al.* 2007:265). Some also conclude that collectivist values communicate with stakeholder views by stressing, for example, the wellbeing of citizens and the employee principles of an organisation (Axinn *et al.*, 2004:103, Shafer *et al.* 2007:265). Dutton & Heaphy (2003) describe high-quality connections marked by mutual positive regard, trust, and active engagement on both sides.

Dutton & Heaphy, (2003:2) further suggest that high quality connections make people feel more engaged, open, competent and more alive. These connections are at variance from other relationships and interactions in that they have higher emotional carrying capacity, greater levels of endurance, and increased competence for connectivity (Ragins & Dutton, 2007:1). The relationship in high quality connections is not a means to an end; rather the relationship itself is the source of reward. According to CC, it might help people to develop high-quality connections that lead to closer connections between employees (Glavas, 2009:53).

Organisations with a high degree of CC could allow for employees to connect at an even deeper level. Moreover, employees could display more of their own values than they would in a job that is solely focused around making money. Subsequently, by presenting additional aspects of their whole selves, employees could connect at a more intimate level (Kahn, 1992:321).

6.2.3.2 Personality

In this study, personality refers to differences among people in their behaviour patterns, cognition and emotion. Similarly, Furnham, Petrides, Jackson & Cotter (2002:1325) examined the degree to which personality traits can envisage the work-related characteristics that employees deem essential to their job satisfaction. Furthermore, the authors recommend that personality played a central role in the advancement of organisational commitment, thus extending the rationality of the personality-job approaches to organisational commitment. Personality is frequently selected as a factor that can reflect or describe individual consumer characteristics (Basil & Weber, 2006:2, Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas & Garrod, 2005:5).

Amongst various types of pro-social behaviours, Basil & Weber (2006:61) focused on two major types of behaviours: Altruism and Egoism. The personality traits classified as altruism are: caring, generosity, family oriented, and loyalty (Basil & Weber, 2006:51). In addition, Connolly & Viswesvaran's (2000:265) study focused on personality traits that correlate with job satisfaction. Judge, Heller & Mount (2002:530) studied the challenge of the 5-factor model of personality and job satisfaction; their study reports results of a meta-analysis connecting traits from the 5-factor model to general job satisfaction, and proposes that the five factor model is a profitable foundation for exploring the dispositional source of job satisfaction. The authors found that the traits of neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness displayed moderate correlations with job satisfaction (Judge *et al.*, 2002:530). In summary, the results of the current quantitative review indicate that Five-factor model personality traits exhibit considerable relationships with job satisfaction. Moreover, this model is a fruitful basis to examine the dispositional source of job satisfaction (Lee, Ho, Wu & Kao, 2008:7)

6.2.3.3 Commitment

In this study, commitment refers to the act that binds an employee to an organisation or a mind-set in which persons think about the congruence of their goals and values with those of their employing organisations. Consequently, commitment manifests itself in three reasonably distinct manners, that is, the affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment refers to the degree to which a person identifies with, is fully involved in, and enjoys membership in an organisation (McMahon, 2007:12). The workforce which has sentimental commitment wants to continue with an organisation and has been strongly linked to positive work-related behaviours such as attendance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002:20).

However, one study in which the commitment levels of provisional employees were measured revealed that the sentimental obligation was established to be higher than persistence; this suggests that a person in need of a job may experience higher affective commitment than continuance commitment in certain situations (Van Breugel, Van Olffen & Ollie, 2005:539). Continuance commitment involves a person being bonded to an organisation based on what it would cost that person to leave the organisation (Meyer *et al.*, 2002:20). Employees amid high levels of continued commitment also have increased levels of role conflict and role ambiguity, as well as low withdrawal cognitions (Meyer *et al.*, 2002:20). Normative commitment involves a feeling of moral obligation to continue working for a particular organisation (Menon, 2001:153).

Work experiences are believed to contribute to the development of normative commitment which is absolutely coupled with overall job satisfaction and job involvement, which includes organisational support, organisational justice and role clarity (Meyer *et al.*, 2002:20). According to Fok, Hartman & Zee (2009:27), a number of positive opinions result from employees' believe that their organisation supports the green movement.

In addition, Tilleman's (2012:417) study has shown that affective organisational commitment is optimistically interconnected with employee perceptions of environmental management exercises and the intensity of organisational commitment is prejudiced by employee perceptions of their organisation's environmental sustainability. It has long been recognized that more motivated, and stimulated employees stimulate higher long-term efficiency in the organisation (Strandberg Consulting, 2009:10). However, a 2002 GlobeScan International survey illustrates that eight in ten people who worked for large organisations felt a greater driving force and commitment towards their jobs and organisations the more socially responsible their employers became (Strandberg Consulting, 2009:10).

Another study, reported in the WBCSD publication, revealed that staff members who were committed to the values of the organisation felt that their output had probably amplified because they associated themselves with the organisation and felt a sense of belonging (Pierce & Lane, 2009:9). Overall, powerful and uneven market forces have beleaguered non-market institutional structures, resulting in decreased worker dedication and increased flexibility of employment (Pierce & Madden, 2009:9).

6.2.3.4 Sensitivity

In this study, sensitivity is when people are proficient in recognizing that a situation has moral components, and they are competent enough to make an ethical judgment about the situation by weighing up their moral values in opposition to competing values. However, when people fail to recognise any of these components, they fail to act ethically. In order to remain competitive in the market economy, organisations need to display sensitivity regarding the concerns of a range of stakeholders; this includes helping the environment, sustainable advancement and caring about humanity in a broad sense (Idowu, 2005:86). There is an increase in demand for organisations to attend to social concerns, and organisations which are not sensible and socially responsible are losing favour to their competitors (Cleghorn, 2004:4, Dirks, 2004:972, Lewis, 2003:356).

Paul, Meyskens & Robins (2011:2) posit that if employee sensitivity to corporate social performance (ESCSP) and cross-cultural sensitivity (CCS) are positively related, then it should be possible to identify candidates for international assignments who are both culturally impressionable and act in accordance with organisational requirements and expectations. According to a study conducted by Cumming (1998, cited in Reed & Vakola, 2006:393), an organisation must be able to make changes in order for it to continue to exist. Furthermore, Cooper & Taylor (2007:293) argue that in order for an organisation to be successful, effective management is required to control the forces of change.

However, a study has tested the sensitivity of consumers to corporate social performance (CSP) using a series of premeditated questions to analyse the broad-spectrum of attitudes to social responsibility and particular applications such as management practices that personify CSP (Meijer & Schuyt, 2005:442). Furthermore, the development of the economy in recent times allows organisations to acquire speed and flexibility in decision making, while paying attention to the management of any change (Kamsaris & Kougoulos, 2014:2). It is true that changes that are not managed effectively result in an increase in the cost of the organisation; they also discourage skilful employees and negatively confront any new efforts for change (Kamsaris & Kougoulos, 2014:2). Factors that complicate changes in management are: lack of credibility, power and politics, lack of resources, internal factors, tendency to oversimplify, lack of proper skills, secrecy, lack of strategy, and people who are resistant to change (Baade & Matheson, 2002:48).

Many concepts attempt to express the ability of an individual to adapt to and function in different cultural contexts. However, the preceding discussion makes it clear that these ideas include cross-cultural sensitivity and cultural adaptation (Andreason, 2003:42), cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2004:100) and a global mind-set (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002:116). Cross-cultural sensitivity is a section of an international frame of mind and, usually, expatriates and a workforce with a global mind-set are more effective in managing an international context (Paul *et al.*, 2011:3; Gupta, & Govindarajan, 2002:116, Beechler, Boyacigiller, Levy & Taylor, 2007:231).

Although a number of mechanisms of a worldwide approach can be increased through organisational instruction and on-site support, cross-cultural sensitivity may be harder to develop in workforce that does not have a complementary inclination; moreover, workers who have developed this preference are more likely to be successful in a global setting (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007:198, Ray & Anderson, 2000:341).

6.2.3.5 Personal importance

In this study, personal importance refers to the profoundly held doctrine or personal set of values which an individual exhibits through their behaviour. It is quite possible that individuals could have principles which are more in line with self-enhancement and would not be as concerned with the CC activities of an organisation (Schuler & Cording, 2006:540). Therefore, it is feasible that some employees might not find it important to work for a CC organisation (Glavas, 2009:60). In a Financial Times Stock Exchange study of 350 organisations, 40 organisations that addressed societal matters showed increased innovation and creativity above other organisations (Cumming, Bettridge, & Toyne, 2005:52). Quite a number of studies indicate that consumer awareness about organisations and socially responsible behaviour is extremely low (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001:560 Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, 2007:224).

The empirical findings of this study, show that individual employees and managers show sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others in terms of being a good corporate citizen and have responsibilities to conduct business with sensitivity in their area of jurisdiction. There is mounting accord pertaining to employee inventiveness and pro-activity as critical drivers of organisational effectiveness, particularly when employment arrangements become more flexible than before (Parker & Collins, 2006:636, Van Dyne, Kossek, & Lobel, 2007:1123). Defined as a disposition toward taking personal initiative to influence one's environment, the proactive personality has received considerable attention in the literature on this (Crant, 2000:435).

However, a meta-analytic study designates that the proactive personality is linked to a diverse amount of anticipated individual and organisational outcomes (Fuller & Marler, 2009:329). The circumstantial substantiation advocates that proactive persons may occasionally participate in ill-advised and counterproductive actions (Campbell, 2000:307). Few studies have investigated the boundary conditions that may moderate the effects associated with proactivity (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005:859, Fuller, Marler & Hester, 2006:1089), and a recent review suggested that more work is needed to understand when proactive behaviour is viewed as constructive or destructive (Grant & Ashford, 2008:3).

The study also reveals that individual employees and managers always seek to incorporate sustainable organisational practices to improve environmental impact and support the community. Furthermore, results show that hiring people from distressed communities alleviates poverty. The study also reveals that working as a team is better for executing CC behaviour. The empirical results show that management has been urged to treat all employees fairly and respectfully, regardless of gender or ethnic background, and should care for the community so as to be socially responsible. Further, the study reveals that personality has an influence on one's orientation and commitment towards CC.

Furthermore, the study is considered important because it helps to explain CC behaviour. The empirical results also reveal that employees are willing to accept job assignments and willing to put a great deal of effort into their work, beyond what is expected, in order to participate in CC activities. The study also finds that employees are willing to associate themselves with organisations that are socially dependable and that their commitment to serve in such organisations will inspire their colleagues to promote CC.

Against this background, the following is the hypothesis:

H0₃: Personal factors as measured by values, personality, commitment, sensitivity and personal importance do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

6.3 MODELLED PERCEPTIONS AND OUTCOMES OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) BEHAVIOUR

6.3.1 Perceptions of corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour

Maignan & Ferrell (2000:283 & 2001:37) have defined Corporate Citizenship (CC) as the extent to which businesses meet the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders. Moreover, CC has emerged as a prominent term used to refer to the social role of business and is identified as charitable donations and other forms of corporate philanthropy undertaken in the local community (Matten & Crane, 2003:1). CC is therefore a discretionary activity which extends beyond that which is expected of business; essentially, it is a choice to put something back into the community (Matten & Crane, 2003:2). In addition, CC causes business to see itself as part of the public culture. As indicated in the existing literature on the subject, CC consists, primarily, of four areas: the organizational obligation to bring utilitarian benefits to its employees and other stakeholders by providing job opportunities, payoff, and training, producing quality goods and selling them at a profit (Zahra & LaTour, 1987 cited in Lin *et al.*, 2010:360).

In regards to this self-interested approach, there is a considerable body of literature focused on CC as manifest in specific investment decisions into the organisation's social environment (Warhurst, 2001:57). Subsequently, the language of corporate finance and CC is rationalized in terms of social investing (Waddock, 2001:323) in order to build up social capital (Habisch, Meister, & Schmidpeter, 2001:1) or reputational capital (Fombrun, Gardberg, & Barnett, 2000:85). Therefore, successful organizations need employees who will do more than their required duties and provide performance that is beyond the organizational expectations. Additionally, CC literature stresses various aspects of sustainability (Marsden, 2000:11), the stewardship role of an organisation or drawing conceptual lines towards the stakeholder approach (Andriof & McIntosh, 2001b:13, Davenport, 2000:210).

In line with this idea, CC implies that corporations are legal entities with rights and duties; in effect, they are 'citizens' of the states in which they operate (Marsden, 2000:11, Seitz, 2002:61). Thus, CC designates the initiatives undertaken by organisations to act responsibly in society. According to Khani, Falah, Ghasemi (2013:304) and Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto & Howell (2013:115), the five dimensions of citizenship behaviour are as follows:

- Benevolence, implies the helpful and beneficial behaviours such as: intimacy, sympathy and compassion between the colleagues;
- Dutifulness, includes various samples, and the organizational members behave in certain ways, performing their duties beyond the least necessary task level for the job, such as: helping other members of the organization;
- Citizenship virtue, includes the behaviours, like presence, in extracurricular and additional activities, while this presence is not obligatory.
- Chivalry, implies patience in the face of adversity and unfavorable situations, without protest, dissatisfaction and complaint.
- Respect and honor, indicate the organizational members' particular way of behaviour toward their colleagues, supervisors and audiences of the organization and doing what is not obligatory in the organization, but helpful to the organization.

Jeurissen (2004:87) postulates that corporate citizenship (CC) is not a plea for business organizations to take on the burden of the whole world. CC is socially distributed across organizations that profess to be citizens and assume their share of the responsibility to advance a social agenda beyond that required by law (Lin *et al.* 2010:358). In contrast, some researchers studying CC have failed to take its multi-dimensional nature into account (De Los Salmones, Crespo & del Bosque, 2005:369). CC represents an organisation's activities and status related to its perceived societal and stakeholder obligations (Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006:1). Furthermore, CC often occurs when an organization engages in activities that advance a social agenda beyond that required by law (Siegel & Vitaliano, 2007:773).

CC requires that all areas of humanity, including organisations, administrations and municipal quarters, work as a team in order to pool their economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities in order to ensure that states can increase their financial competitiveness and offer better societal results (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001:37, Altman & Vidaver-Cohen, 2000:1). Carroll (1998:1) indicates that these four aspects of CC are interactive, with a closed relationship. This directs one to the intention of the stakeholder and cross-sectoral relationship as part of the CC model call for organisations to have the mandate and accountability to the public and society, from an honest or ethical point of view that is a social contract (Guan, 2012:7).

Social contracts can satisfy a reciprocal commitment between the organisation and society, as well as its social contracts, which lead to those behaviours and activities of a good organisational national that either meet or go beyond the views of civilization (Maignan, Ferrell & Hult, 1999:455, Reisel & Sama, 2003:365, Waddock, 2001:25). In other words, CC is anxious in view of the relationship that an organisation develops with its stakeholders (Waddock & Smith, 2000:47). Subsequently, from the societal viewpoint of CC, intellectuals posit that the cross-sector partnership is a vehicle for organisations and society to work together in terms of addressing community concerns such as opinionated behaviour and issues of principled or societal investment (Waddell, 2000:107, Googins & Rochlin, 2000:127).

Residency is not only concerned with a collection of rights and duties, which in this case refer to the civil, political and social aspects of society, but also embrace a set of customs that are cultural, emblematic and monetary (Isin & Wood 1999:23). In this regard, CC is considered to be the connection that an organisation builds up with its stakeholders in terms of its constructive impact on financially viable performance and society, together with a focus on launching mutual partnerships with various stakeholder factions in terms of a partnership-society association (Waddock & Smith, 2000:47). Some researchers have studied the degree to which CC is applied in organizations (Joyner & Payne, 2002:297), while others have tried to measure the relationship between social performance, that is CC, and employer attractiveness (Backhaus, Stone & Heiner 2002:292).

In evaluating whether the way in which CC is perceived by individuals, there are two issues to take into consideration: social identity and resource allocation (Lin *et al.*, 2010:360). Initially, social identity theory is a diffuse but interrelated group of social psychological theories concerned with social groups, adopting shared affection and attitudes inside organizations (Lin *et al.*, 2010, 359). Based on social identity theory, CC may be expected to contribute positively to the affection, attribution, retention, and motivation of employees, because they often strongly identify with positive organizational values (Peterson, 2004:296).

6.3.2 Organisational Performance

In this study, organisational performance is understood as a measurement of its multidimensional indicators. Bagnoli & Watts (2003:419) emphasize that organisations possessing a good CC plan are performing as profit-maximizing organisation. CC is important for organisations, due to its potential impact on profitability. As previously mentioned, contributing to the general public and the environment may lead to increased economic results (Orlitzky *et al.*, 2003:403, Margolis & Walsh, 2003:268). Fernandez-Kranz & Santaló (2010:453) have empirically demonstrated that organisations in more competitive production have improved ratings since CC is motivated by strategic considerations independent of any extra altruistic motivation.

Subsequently, after nearly two decades of deliberations of whether it is cost-effective to do good, new data supports the case that organisations can perform extremely well economically by doing good and, ironically, preceding studies were unable to confirm a relationship between community presentation and monetary performance (Glavas, 2009:18, Margolis & Walsh, 2003:268, Schuler & Cording, 2006:540, Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006:64, Margolis & Walsh, 2001:10). However, a meta-analysis of empirical studies conducted by Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes (2003:403) seemed to resolve the discussion by showing that social/environmental performance is optimistically linked with organisational financial performance.

Margolis, Elfenbein & Walsh's (2009:371) meta-analysis concludes by establishing a positive link between organisational environmental policies and profitability, driven by studies such as those focused on eco-efficiency. Lanoie, Laurent-Lucchetti, Johnstone and Ambec (2011:803) use facilities in seven OECD countries and discover strong support for environmental directives inspiring environmental innovations. One of the most important reasons why organisations may profit from working for community advantage is the optimistic impact on the workforce of the organisation through increased employee engagement, high-quality connections, and creativity (Glavas, 2009:19).

Furthermore, they create stronger relationships based on deeper shared values than just making money (Glavas, 2009:19). However, the link between CC and organisational performance has prompted a substantial amount of academic work, as witnessed by the numerous surveys dedicated to this subject (Margolis & Walsh, 2003:268, Orlitzky *et al.*, 2003:403, Portney, 2008:261, Van Beurden & Gossling, 2008:407). The active discussion on whether this link actually exists can be considered as closed by the extensive meta-analysis conducted by Margolis *et al.*, (2009:378). Their study stipulates that the effect of organisational social performance on organisational financial performance is small, positive and significant.

Iwata and Okada (2011:1691) consider the effect of two different environments on financial performance using panel data of Japanese manufacturing organisations from 2004 to 2008; they show that the responses of financial performance are different depending on each environment's issues. Considering different measures of economic and financial performance, Delmas & Nairn-Birch (2011:21) also show that environmental performance positively impacts financial performance when using accounting based measures but negatively affects market based measures of financial performance. The introductory training program has a positive effect on organisational performance measures, including customer service performance, staff retention and profits (Delmas & Nairn-Birch, 2011:21). In this study, organisational performance is, for the most part, an imperative decisive factor in evaluating organisations, their actions, and environments.

The empirical results of this study reveal that there is a correlation between CC behaviour related to the operational plan. The results of this study disclose that top management is supportive of CC engagement and has a suitable CC management process in place. The study further reveals that organisations' promotion of CC results in producing tangible contributions towards their bottom line. The empirical results of the study designate that there is a constructive relationship between management perception of CC behaviour and organisational performance. The outcome demonstrates that management perceives CC behaviour as crafting its surroundings which maximizes competitive advantage, improves organisational visibility in the society, enhances the growth of organisations and improves the community's life while improving sustainable profitability.

Furthermore, the study reveals that engaging CC initiatives means that business strategies are aligned with societal needs, which increases the retention of talented employees who possess valuable core competencies and skills required by the organisation. More so, the study also reveals that organisations that participate in socially responsible activities have a positive impact on the financial performance of organisations, they focus on welfare systems that improve organisational efficiency which builds a public image that increases cognition and attracts international business partners. Furthermore, the study reveals that organisations which engage in CC activities are regarded as leaders in the development of human capital and as cost effective amongst their competitors.

Against this background, the following is the hypothesized:

H0₄: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

6.3.3 Organisational Competitiveness

In this study, competitiveness refers to the ability to generate goods and services which meet the test of international markets. In a competitive organisational environment, marketing managers try their best to apportion as many resources as possible into programs that have been premeditated to gratify existing customers and build long-term unwavering relationships (Yuen, 2007:7).

The existing line of investigation makes available evidence to suggest that organisational reputation is a pivotal intangible resource that contributes to an organisation's competitive advantage precisely because the development of a good reputation takes considerable time and depends on an organisation making secure and consistent investments over time (Roberts & Dowling, 2002:1091). However, incorporating the concerns of stakeholders in organisational strategies is regarded as a fine policy which presents organisations with economical returns (Walsh, 2005:426). According to MacGillivray, Begley & Zadek (2007:119), the analysis presented in the State of Responsible Competitiveness in 2007, which assessed a handful of countries across the world, establishes the correlation between the Responsible Competitiveness Index and the World Economic Forum's Growth Competitiveness Index and indicates a strong relationship between responsibility and the most authoritative measure of country competitiveness.

However, most of the respondents in a study by Rashid & Ibrahim (2002:10) did not agree that organisational management who have too much social power should not engage in social activities that might increase their social power. It appears that the political power that they possess might have a direct bearing on the organisation's social agendas. In the global acquaintance financial system, intangibles including relationships inside and outside the organisation, brands and broader reputation are key elements of competitiveness (Mohamed & Sawandi, 2003:5). Bagnoli and Watts (2003:419), hence, theoretically show that the level of private provision of public good varies inversely with the competitiveness of the private-good market.

Furthermore, Wagner (2008:392) also finds that environmental supervision systems are connected with development, innovation, and that product innovation is more likely caused by information to consumers and eco-labelling. Based on survey data, Demirel and Kesidou's (2011:1546) research findings show that eco-innovation, such as end of pipeline technologies, incorporated cleaner invention, is strong-minded by the call for improved efficiency; whereas environmental regulation stimulates end of pipeline technologies and environmental research and development. Market modernization can also take shared forms, as in the case of Bottom-of-the-Pyramid strategies.

Murphy, Perrot and Rivera-Santos (2012:1700) highlight how organisations can invest in social issues to prepare new market opportunities in emerging countries.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

***H0₅:** Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence organisational competitiveness in Zimbabwe.*

6.3.4 Organisational Image

In this study, organisational image refers to the overall impression and opinions of the stakeholder towards a specific organisation, or the way in which it is perceived in the market. Kärreman and Rylander's (2008:103) study of a multinational IT/management consulting organisation purports that the organisation's positive image augments the profession's organisational identification in view of the fact that the organisational image provides confirmation of the individual's elite status. In the framework of specialized service, the image of organisations suggests the superiority of the service provided by the professionals within that organisation (Empson, 2004:759). Thus, a positive organisational image may strengthen the self-perceived truthfulness of professionals. Portney (2008:261), Elfenbein, Fisman and McManus, (2012:1441) highlights that organisational confidence, beyond conformity behaviour, carries favor with current and potential future customers of organisations in the food and consumer sectors.

The findings of the study reveal that in the presence of little information about the reliability of a seller, charity commitments play a significant role in establishing trust. (Fisman Heal & Nair, 2006:21). However, supporting this notion, Brown, Hellanda & Smith's (2006:855) theoretical predictions find that organisations that advertise more intensively also give more to charity, while a report that interviewed consumers indicates that the interviewees claimed to have bought a product or service because of an organisation's CC reputation (Hines & Ames, 2000:77). However, these conclusions point towards a positive organisational image having a considerable influence on organisational identification, particularly for professional knowledge workers (Frandsen, 2012:5).

These findings may raise some concerns regarding low-prestige organisations (Alvesson, 2000:1102). Further, preceding studies on identification in the midst of knowledge workers exemplify the significant positive organisational outcomes as being associated with strong identification amongst knowledge workers (Alvesson, 2000:1102). Furthermore, research into unification between high-status and low-status organisations displays that societal inventiveness and social competition strategies are commonly used by members of the low-status group to change their group's social belief systems with regard to the group identity (Haslam, 2004:3, Terry, 2003:223). These studies highlight that employees may challenge outsiders' negative assessments and reform their organisational identity in more favorable terms. Schwaiger (2004:46) have discovered approximately ten mechanisms and ten components of organisational reputation that are identical.

Ljubojevic and Ljubojevic's (2008:221) study provides a description of excellent organisational control as essential for upholding a striking investment climate that is characteristic of an extremely good reputation and competitive organisation. Furthermore, Wang and Smith (2008:392) recognize the mechanism of organisational moral conduct that can generate this reputation as: good management of employees, concern about the environment, and candid economic reporting. Subsequently, these authors note that the prevalence of organisational dishonor has astounded the organisational world, especially in its newsworthiness, which has also negatively affected the character of organisations across the world in a significant way (Wang & Smith, 2008:392). Tan's (2006:19) study affirms the empirical verification that organisational reputation is positively correlated with superior earnings quality. The results also demonstrate that organisational standing not only assists in orchestrating income superiority, but also helps in producing superior sales in Chinese public organisations (Iwo-Egwuonwu, 2011:202)

Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H0₆: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence organisational image in Zimbabwe.

6.3.5 Organisational Sustainability

In this study, organisational sustainability refers to whether the organisation is truly sustainable and whether it has the capacity to consistently deliver economic, social and environmental benefits. A sustainable organisation is one whose strategy, culture and actions are premeditated so as to show the way to a sustainable future state (Funk, 2003:65). Organisational sustainability is increasingly being taken up by organisations and the term sustainability was initially recognised in 1987, at which time the perception and study of sustainable development had barely left the sphere of influence of environmentalists and ecologists (Zadek, 2001:122). More often than not, the term sustainability has developed to include social and economic mechanisms as well as the organisations past work on the surroundings (Zadek, 2001:122). Dyllick and Hockerts (2002:131) stipulate the need for meeting the current and future stakeholder needs of an organisation either directly or indirectly.

According to Bibri (2008:66), a Pricewaterhouse Coopers investigation was conducted among organisations headquartered in the United States, and revealed that the organisations said that they had practices related to sustainability, and a sizeable majority of organisations surveyed foresee that organisational sustainability will become even more applicable in the future. Voluntary sustainability reporting has emerged as part of this trend and has rapidly diffused among large organisations (Kolk, 2004:51, 2004a:59, Kolk, 2005:145, Kolk, 2006a:34, Waddock, 2006:313). In addition, Lankoski's (2000) study presents an extraordinary exclusion for the reason that it reports on several major determinants of environmental profit, including technology, regime and visibility (Lankoski, 2000:36).

It is also striking how little empirical research has dealt with the reorganisation case for sustainability on an organisational level thus far, in terms of how it is built and used in organisations. While research has explored the role of informal education, Molnar & Mulvihill (2003:167) note that inviting organisational management to speak to employees can whip up support for new sustainability initiatives. Goodman (2000:202), for example, found that organisational units were awarded additional training resources for energy, water and waste reductions; this inventiveness resulted in a significant decrease transversely for the organisation.

Further, linking employee performance at work to their behaviour at home and in their communities becomes important in underpinning these behaviours. One senior manager recommended and encouraged staff to bring their personal sustainability behaviours into the workplace (Ethical Corporation, 2009:13). Goodman's (2000:202) study suggests that messages about sustainability are attractive when employees can also use the knowledge in their private lives. Furthermore, employees can align their values with their work and be in accord with this idea through research findings that demonstrate reciprocal links between organisational and individual actions (Bansal, 2003:510). Practitioners and researchers uphold that the commitment of senior management and the board is a critical triumphal factor for embedding sustainability. Research findings reveal that practitioners believe that it is imperative that senior management and the board signal their support for sustainability (Dunphy, Griffiths & Benn, 2003, Epstein, 2008:24, Ethical Corporation, 2009:13, Strandberg Consulting, 2009:2, Willard, 2009:129).

However, various studies attend to the impetus of organisations to engage in social responsibility activities, such as: sustainable supply chain management, CC codes of conduct, organizing the regularity classification or even sustainability coverage in organisations (Roca & Searcy, 2012:103, Smith, 2003:70, Bondy, Matten & Moon 2008:294, Seuring & Muller, 2008:1699, Castka & Balzarova, 2008:231). The empirical findings show that there is a negative relationship between CC behaviour and strategic planning. Although there is a relationship, according to the results, there is a need to improve the sustainability of the organisation.

Sustainability is generally not part of the strategic plan and organisations tend to do it haphazardly. CC is supposed to bring sustainability into the organisation; the evidence of many studies suggests that CC should in fact raise enthusiasm for sustainability. It needs to be promoted; this approach is difficult to sustain organisations. Therefore, there is a need for a strategic plan to be promoted. The results show that written guidelines and policies for the implementation of CC are present in organisations and that CC is a priority.

Furthermore, management shows that there is total commitment from all on the agenda of CC and that the vision and mission is centered on conducting business in a socially responsible manner. Implement CC strategies will lead to the increased profitability of the organisation as it benefits both the organisation and society at large. However, it has been revealed that CC does a great deal more for the communities than is realized and engaging in CC initiative reduces organisational risks. The empirical results of the study point out that there is a constructive correlation between management perception of CC behaviour and organisational sustainability.

The results show that management perceived that engaging in CC initiatives will develop strategies that are more sustainable and which, ultimately, create more value. Sustainability was revealed as a strategic management approach that integrates economic, environmental and social performance that fosters the organisation to remain profitable in order to ensure the organisation's long term survival. The study also reveals that engaging in CC initiatives ensures the advancement of human well-being that results in an enhanced organisational image amongst its customers. Furthermore, the study discloses that organisations continue to apply innovative approaches and are committed to continually improving energy efficiency while investing in community projects, in order to improve the organisation's image.

Against this background, the following is hypothesized:

H0₇: Perceptions regarding CC behaviours do not influence sustainability in Zimbabwe.

6.4 SUMMARY

This chapter revealed that CC as a theory requires all sectors of society to work together to meet their economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities. Managers are expected to have the ability to do environmental scanning, which in this case is the monitoring of events and trends that present either threats or opportunities for the organisation.

Furthermore, as globalization increased many organisations realized that strategic decisions with regarding globalization had to be made. Moreover, the hypothesized model demonstrates the relationships between independent, mediating variables of the study. Significantly, the influences of CC are modelled as: organisational social responsibility, personal importance, personal characteristics, environmental involvement and the market-oriented impact of CC behaviour on performance and sustainability. Consequently, the research variables are operationalized and hypotheses invented. The independent variables comprise the internal and external as well as organisational factors and personal factors; the external organisational factors comprise all the entities that exist outside its boundaries, but have significant influence on its growth and survival.

In addition, personal factors that could play a role in this regard are values, personal importance, personality, sensitivity and commitment. Collective interest is considered self-interest, and individuals are motivated to adopt organisational goals and to act with an organisation's best interests in mind. However, in respect of the management and the modelled outcomes of CC on organisational performance, it has been observed that organisational performance is the most important criterion in evaluating organisations, their actions, and environments. Furthermore, the prevailing research provides evidence to suggest that corporate reputation is a pivotal intangible resource that contributes to an organisation's competitive advantage and, in the context of professional service, the image of organisations signifies the quality of the service provided by professionals within the organisation. The following chapter of this study, Chapter 7, focusses on the research design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the model for management perceptions of CC whereby the hypothesized model demonstrates the relationships between independent, mediating variables of the study. This was done in order to examine how the independent variables play their roles in terms of internal, external and personal factors and the mediating variable of the perceptions regarding CC strategic plan and CC organisational plan. Furthermore, their effects on organisational performance and sustainability as dependent variables were also focused on. This study adopts a quantitative approach with a self-administered questionnaire used in response to relational questions of variables within the investigation. However, in regards to the management and modelled outcomes of CC on organisational performance, it has been observed that organisational performance is the most important criterion in evaluating organisations, their actions, and environments.

Furthermore, the prevailing research provides evidence to suggest that organisational reputation is a pivotal intangible resource that contributes to an organisation's competitive advantage and, in the context of professional service, the image of organisations suggests the eminence of the service rendered by experts inside that institute. However, the purpose of this chapter, is to elaborate on the research design and methodology utilized to address the primary objective of this study. This chapter simplifies how the present research has been conducted and who it targets. This is followed by an outline of the research approach, an introduction of the population being studied, as well as a description of the sampling unit and sampling techniques that were used. A synopsis of the biographical information of the contributors is offered together with a description of the research instrument design and the administration of the questionnaire. Additionally, the validity and reliability of the findings are also elucidated upon.

Furthermore, the section covers the sampling, population, data collection and ethical considerations of the study. The chapter also outlines the principled dealings which were adhered to in carrying out the research. A self-administered questionnaire was formulated based on the dynamics specified in the model which was later distributed to the intended participants, in this case, the senior managers and employees of selected organisations. Finally, a clarification of the measuring instruments used in this study is also offered herein.

7.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to tap into the rich diversity of the CC sectors of Zimbabwe; to raise the profile of CC as a vehicle for contributing to sustainable development; to professionally advocate for CC in the country; to help organisations decipher the principles into effective action and share best practices related to social responsibility; and to cement corporate accountability to management and all other stakeholders. In addition, since CC emerged as an organisational trend, there existed no international outline to assist organisations in the development and promotion of global, value based management, this study is set to push the concept of good CC into mainstream business thinking.

Furthermore, the study intends to embrace the CC concept and its responsibility to make society better as well as satisfying the image of a modern organisation by taking care of management and stakeholder concerns. Finally, the study will put forward several recommendations that can help to enhance the practice of CC across the country and the globe.

7.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Research can be understood, in Kumar's words, as 'one of the ways to find answers to your questions' (Kumar, 2005:6). Such an abstract definition is all-encompassing in that it includes various research strategies, designs and methods (Bapir, 2012:4). The research method is a plan of inquiry, which progresses from the primary supposition to the research design and collection of data (Myers, 2009:1625).

Leedy and Ormrod (2001:14) define research methodology as the broad-spectrum approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project. Similarly, Polit *et al.* (2001:948) and Burns (2000:20) define methodology as a way of obtaining, organizing and analyzing data and it includes the data collection and analysis techniques employed in the study. Schreiber & Asner-Self (2011:30) refer to research as a methodical progression of dynamic inquiry and discovery through collecting, analyzing, and inferring from data, resulting in understanding a given phenomenon in which the study is interested. In other words, it can simply refer to the data processing technique for an academic inquiry or stipulate how the researcher intends to go about the research.

Bryman (2008) takes validity to refer to the sincerity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research (Bryman, 2008: 31). Neuman puts validity in accessible terms by describing it as referring to the link between the construct and the data (Neuman, 2003:185). In any given study, there is a need to identify the most appropriate research design which will shape the general overview of the methodologies to be used (Coll & Chapman, 2000:1). The preference of methodology should be determined by the line of investigation; that is, questions or objectives rather than any inclination for a specified methodology (Gerhardt, 2004:2).

It is equally important to note that there are a number of studies that have used different descriptions of the main research approaches with common themes, categories and overlapping emphases, which is, in fact, qualitative and quantitative (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012:135). In research, there are three main methods to be followed: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods (Creswell, 2003:209, 2009:95; Burns, 2000:613, Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:7). Apart from this, quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection are often in support of each other on the one research project (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:31, Seale, Gobo, Gubrium & Silverman, 2004:7, Silverman, 2010:17). Burns (2000:13) and Creswell (2003:8) argue that there is also a mixed method approach which is a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Although their definitions of ontology, epistemology, and axiology have an ordinary subject matter with a bit of altered meaning and emphasis; there seems to be no consensus in the classification and categorization of these paradigms (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012:132).

There is much ongoing discussion on where a scrupulous method, for instance, qualitative, quantitative or mixed method is entrenched or founded in relation to these philosophies (Johnson & Duberley, 2000:8, Caelli *et al.* 2003:1). Additionally, Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) acknowledge the ongoing patents of paradigms to research approach. Despite the fact that the scholars debate the foundation of philosophies or paradigms for the research approaches, Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004:14) argue that the disparity in epistemological viewpoint and reason of validation does not order what precise data collection and analytical methods to utilize, therefore, it should not avert the utilization of whichever method. In support of this, Guba & Lincoln (1994:105) stress that the direction-finding of approaches is unimportant to conceptualize and they do not use the edge of either qualitative or quantitative from any research paradigm.

More broadly, with regard to three approaches to research design, the factors that influence the researcher's choice include: the research problem, the personal experiences of the researcher and the audience (Creswell, 2003:21). Creswell (2003:21) affirms that collecting various types of data provides the best insights into the research problem. Significantly, Blaxter *et al.* (2006:153) proclaim that data may be numerical, may consist of words, or may be a combination of the two. Under these circumstances, Creswell (2003:220) advises the researchers to be apparent and accurate about the sort of information that they gather; that is, whether the data should be qualitative or quantitative. Proponents of research philosophies have engaged in, and demonstrated their acquaintance with and viewpoints on, what emerged as paradigm "wars" (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:120).

In the new paradigm war, Wright (2006:799–800) emphasizes that every visible social justice-oriented approach to follow a line of investigation is threatened with de-legitimization by the government-sanctioned, exclusivist assertion of positivism as the gold paradigm of educational research. Researchers who use the logical positivism research paradigm make use of experimental methods and quantitative procedures to test hypothetical generalizations and emphasise the measurement and investigation of contributory relationships between variables (Golafshani, 2003:1).

Furthermore, the second paradigm divergence transpired within the mixed methods community and involved disputes between individuals convinced of the paradigm purity of their own positions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003:67).

7.3.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is known as empirical research, which is deductive and explanatory and can be used in response to relational questions of variables within the research (Hinchey, 2008:15, Saunders *et al.*, 2009:119, Engel & Schutt, 2005:291). Quantitative research entails the collection of data so that information can be enumerated and subjected to statistical handling in order to support or contest varying knowledge claims (Creswell, 2003:153). In addition, quantitative research can be called the traditional approach because it was dominant in the 1960s and 1970s (Zohrabi, 2011:699).

Quantitative data is countable pieces of information which are usually numerical in form. This method relies on statistical data to study and compare the relationships linking the observable fact under investigation. The data can be acquired in the course of tests and objective-question questionnaire (Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000:128). Leedy & Ormrod (2001:102) allege that quantitative research is detailed in its surveying and experimentation, as it builds upon existing theories. Quantitative research methods were initially developed in the natural sciences to study natural phenomena. According to Flick (2006:2–3) and the World Health Organisation (World Health Organisation, 2008:3), in carrying out quantitative studies, researchers endeavor to quantify variables and to oversimplify findings obtained from a representative sample from the total population.

Also, quantitative research can be conducted on a large scale and provides a lot more information as far as value and statistics are concerned. According to Schreiber & Asner-Self (2011:41), quantitative research holds a positivist's view of the world and focuses on objectivity; there is reality out there about quantifying the phenomenon under investigation, assigning numbers to ideas or constructs of interest.

In addition, Seliger & Shohamy (1989, cited in Zohrabi, 2011:701) contend that this approach is useful when a researcher attempts to study the learning-teaching process in its natural setting. Quantitative methods also have the ability to use smaller groups of people to make suppositions with reference to larger groups that would be prohibitively costly to investigate (Swanson & Holton, 2005:33, Matveev, 2002: 2). In addition, quantitative research can be used in response to interpersonal questions of variables within the research and it tries to find explanations and predictions that will be generalizable to other persons and places (Williams, 2007:66). The findings from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory, and confirming. However, in this study, quantitative research was employed with the rationale to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalizations that contribute to theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:102).

7.3.2 Qualitative Research

Another paradigm is qualitative research, or social constructivism, which views knowledge as socially constructed and may change depending on the circumstances and methods developed in the social sciences to facilitate the study of community and intellectual phenomena and can be known as exploratory research, which is inductive and formulative (Golafshani, 2003:7, Neelankavil, 2007:14, Engel & Schutt, 2005:291, Bernard, 2006:387, Saunders *et al.* 2009:119, Engel & Schutt, 2005:291). That is, qualitative researchers focus primarily on the significance and interpretations which individuals allot to their surroundings, actions and practices.

Apart from this, qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people assign to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:3). Subsequently, from this perspective, all knowledge on the values, ideas and judgments of the individual, and is locally and contextually defined (Danermark, Ekström, Jakobsen & Karlsson, 2002:73). A further instance of this is that qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, that is, how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world (Merriam, 2009:13). In other words, qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world.

7.3.3 Mixed Methods Research

According to Greene, Kreider and Mayer (2005:274), mixed methods research is understood as the premeditated use of two or more different kinds of data gathering and analysis techniques, and more rarely, different kinds of inquiry designs within the same study or project. A mixed methods research plan is a course of action for collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research and methods in a single study in order to comprehend a research problem (Creswell, 2012:320). As noted by Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004:17), its logic of inquest incorporates the use of induction, deduction, and abduction.

However, for that reason and its logical and perceptive appeal, as well as its provision of a connection involving the qualitative and quantitative paradigms, an increasing number of researchers are utilizing mixed methods research to undertake their studies (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006:475). Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Sutton (2006:67) state that mixed methods research can be conceptualized in various distinctive steps. Shaping the research question(s) is regarded as vital in quantitative and qualitative research processes, and in mixed methods, in the sense that the questions narrow the research objectives and purposes that researchers endeavor to address in the studies (Creswell, 2005:157, Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006:475). However, this study's hypotheses seek to provide tentative answers to the research problem; therefore a quantitative research method will be employed in this study.

Consequently, the quantitative descriptive approach will be appropriate for this study in order to collect information pertaining to perceptions of CC behaviour in Zimbabwe since, according to Leedy & Ormrod (2001:103), the qualitative approach is allegedly less structured in its description because it formulates and builds new theories. Furthermore, a quantitative research approach was used in this study to collect data in order to establish the relationship between pre-defined variables; to achieve this end, the research has to employ strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collect data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. The findings from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory, and confirmatory. In a thorough review of these terminologies, it shows the terms mean almost the same thing in their descriptions of research approaches.

7.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Designing a study assists the researcher in creating and putting into practice the study in a way that will help the researcher to obtain the intended results, thus increasing the chances of obtaining information that could be associated with the situation (Burns & Grove 2001:223). Research design, according to Kothari (2004:24), refers to the management of conditions for collecting and analyzing data in a manner that reveals the relevance of the study.

7.4.1 Population

A population, according to Hartl and Clark (2007:203), refers to target individuals or groups with common characteristics that suit the researcher's interests when conducting a study. Zikmund (2003: 369), Cooper & Schindler (2008: 374) as well as define a population as a complete group, a body of people, or any collection of items under consideration for a research purpose. In this study, the population comprised of managers of multinational organisations, major institutional investors and small and medium enterprises. The target population consists of all the managers and employees of 2405 organisations (Zimbabwe Business Directory, 2014:1, Zimbabwe Stock Exchange, 2013:5). According to Kitchham & Pflieger (2012:17), the target population is the group or the individuals to whom the survey applies. Ideally, a target population should be represented as a predetermined list of all its members.

7.4.2 Sampling design

Sampling refers to the decisive factor of coming up with representative participants in the target population base, especially for purposes of statistical inference (Palit, 2006:3511 Yin, 2008:111 Cooper & Schindler, 2008: 711). Similarly, Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch (2005:10) and Cooper & Schindler (2006:402) assert that sampling basically refers to any procedure for the selection of the elements in a population, from which a conclusion can be drawn about the entire population. However, decisions on several stages in the selection of a sample should be done before a conclusion can be reached (Harmse, 2012:153).

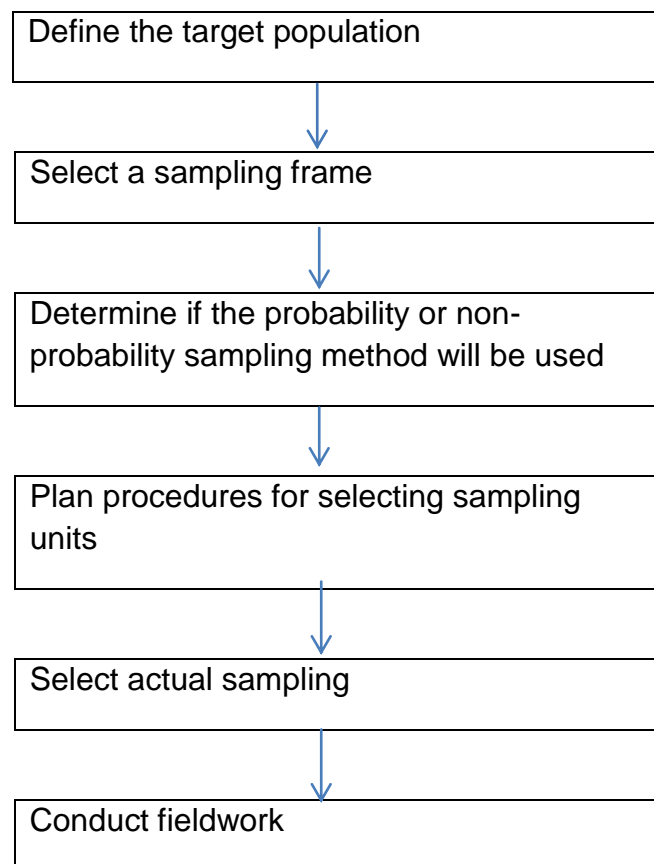
Collis & Hussey (2003: 121) and Zikmund (2003: 262) define the sampling unit as the case to which the variables under study and the research problem refer, and about which data is to be collected and analyzed. This implies that, it involves choosing a reasonable group big enough to represent a larger group of the population under study, to avoid a distorted picture of the data to be collected or a means of acquiring intended data concerning the population without the need to observe the population as a whole (Turyakira, 2012:124). The rationale behind sampling is that it is impractical to include all members of a group, but the sample study population will be in a position to produce the same data that represents the targeted population under study (Turyakira, 2012:124). Therefore, the intention is to draw conclusions that are valid for the whole study population will be justifiable.

7.4.2.1 Stages in selecting a sample

The accuracy of the research is influenced by the way in which the sample has been selected (Sopin, 2009:40). The basic objective is to minimize the gap of value of the sample within the limitations of cost to provide an adequate probability of a fairly true reflection of the sampling population. There are many sampling strategies such as: random probability sampling, non-random probability sampling, and mixed sampling. Researchers have to select the appropriate sampling design for their study and need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of each (Kumar, 2005:151). In every quantitative study, it may not be possible for the researcher to study the entire population of interest (Khalid, Hilman and Kumar, 2012:21).

However, researchers use a sample, which is a subgroup of the population, to get information about the population of interest and to illustrate assumptions about the population (Lind, Marchal & Wathen, 2008:393). Using samples saves time and money, while allowing the researcher to get more detailed information which may not be easily obtainable (Bluman, 2009:331). Researchers can decide from broad categories of probability and non-probability samples. According to Lind *et al.*, (2008:393), the probability sampling methods are available to a researcher. The Sampling design process can be explained by five interrelated steps which are shown in Figure 7.1 below.

Figure 7.1 Steps in the sampling design process



Source: Adopted from Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2012:391.

7.4.2.2 Sampling frame and sample size

A sample frame, according to Menza, Caldow, Jeffrey & Monaco (2008:6), is identified as a set of points or grid elements from which a sample is selected. The characterization also includes the rationale of sampling frames, which is to provide a means for choosing the particular members of the target population that are to be interviewed in the survey (Turner, 2003:3). Additionally, a sample frame can be defined as a list from which a sample can be drawn (Cooper & Schnider, 2006:411, Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 214). In this study, a representative sample was drawn from all managers of organisations in Zimbabwe. Patten (2004) states that in order to achieve an unprejudiced sample, which the most important decisive factor when assessing the sufficiency of a sample, every member of a populace has the same opportunity of being selected in the sample (Patten, 2004:71).

The study was conducted in the Harare Mashonaland Province of Zimbabwe, where most organisations' headquarters are situated. The sampling frame of this study focused on both middle and top managers whose roles relate primarily to embedding CC culture and practices in the business. Also, employees were targeted primarily to find out if they understand the concept and, to some extent, if they are entrenched in CC culture. Table 7.2, below, indicates the structure of the target population.

Table 7.1 Sample structure of the study

TARGETED GROUPS	SAMPLE SIZE
Multinational Organisations	250
Major institutional investors	150
SMEs	100
Total	500

Source: Own construction

A sample size of 50 to 500 organisations is presumably enough to draw sufficient data to give validity to the results and reach a meaningful conclusion pertaining to CC behaviour in Zimbabwe (Wahid, Rahbar & Shyan, 2011: 5). The sample size of 500 was determined at a 95% level of certainty and based on the population of 2405 in Zimbabwe. Hence, 500 owners/managers, who are judged to have specific information about their organisations, were acknowledged and carefully chosen. A sampling structure was available; that is, a list of all the units that compose the study population was made available. In this study, this list of organisations was obtained from the Zimbabwe companies directory, as the sampling frame. The sampling method applied in this study was non-probability sampling, by which samples were selected on the basis of their accessibility. The type of sampling technique used was convenience sampling. Convenience sampling, the samples are selected because they are accessible to the researcher. This technique is considered the easiest, cheapest and least time consuming technique. The following section will present the data collection method used in this research.

7.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

According to Most *et al.* (2003:1339), data collection is the course of action of gathering and quantifying information on variables of interest, in a reputable methodical approach that allows one to return with answered research questions, test hypotheses, and to evaluate the outcomes thereof. Data collection is a segment in the research cycle in which different types of information is gathered through different sources (Zohrabi, 2011:702). Richards and Schmidt (2002:142) presume that data is a collection of information, substantiation or facts that are gathered in order to achieve an enhanced understanding of a phenomenon.

7.5.1 Primary data

The primary data collection method used in this study was the survey method through the use of a self-administered questionnaire. This type of research method, even if difficult to design, is initially highly detailed and structured and results can easily be drawn together and presented statistically. Driscoll (2011: 3) posits that the definitive objective in conducting primary research is to gain knowledge about something new that can be confirmed by others and to purge biases in the process. In this study, the survey method was used because this is the most common method of generating primary data (Zikmund, 2003: 66). According to Eybers (2012: 130), a survey is defined as a research procedure through which information is collected from a sample of people by means of a questionnaire. Surveys undeniably provide a method for acquiring information on the same topic from a large group of people in a comparatively short period of time (Gerhardt, 2004:27).

This study used the survey technique to collect the raw data that hypothetically influences the perceptions of CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. According to Collis and Hussey (2003:66), a self-administered questionnaire is common to a positivist research paradigm. In support of this notion, Saunders *et al.* (2007:66) assert that questionnaires tend to gather data, focusing on the entire population under study or a selected portion of the population to uniformly respond to the same questions. Similarly, Eislene *et al.*, (2005:1) describes questionnaires as descriptive and opinion related surveys in the form of a self-administered questionnaire.

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003:315), questionnaires assist the assemblage of data by soliciting all, or a sample of people, to act in response to the same questions. In most cases, sensitive questions are best asked by more impersonal, self-administration methods as they lead to higher levels of reporting (Bowling, 2005:7, Koponen, Mäki-Opas & Tolonen, 2013:5). Undoubtedly, it is this kind of questionnaire that was deemed applicable for this study. Finally, the questionnaires were distributed to a target population of five hundred (500) respondents with the aim of gathering data pertaining to CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

7.5.2 Secondary data

Secondary data is composed of the existing literature on CC which will form the basis for the conceptual framework, upon which the frame of reference of the study will be built (Oliver, 2004:1). It is also known as the data originally collected for a different purpose and reused for other research questions and has an advantage to the researcher in terms of the interaction it allows with printed materials which are non-human in nature (Shumba *et al.*, 2005:91). Published journals, international, regional and domestic policies pertaining to the study, textbooks as well as internet resources were used. A thorough literature review of theoretical work on the key concepts in the CC debate was conducted. This includes: sustainable development, organisational legitimacy, moral choices, and stakeholder interaction so as to identify appropriate CC activities and other factors that have an impact on CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. Therefore, several data searches were done at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University libraries, using databases such as EBSCO, Emerald searches, Google searches, Yahoo searches, Dissertation Abstracts, and leading CC Journals.

The review, however, covered journal articles, online reports as well as government and organisation/company documents. In the ensuing sections of this chapter, the development of the measuring instrument is explained and the definition of the variables of interest to this study. The process that was followed to develop valid and reliable scales of measure is described, and the questionnaire-administering process is also stated therein.

7.6 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

In this study, the purpose of the measuring instrument was to obtain primary data to test the hypothesized relationships shown in the hypothesized model, and to subsequently identify perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. Before formulating questions to include in a questionnaire, it is imperative that the researcher is precise about the research questions and the intended goals of the study. A questionnaire usually consists of a combination of factual and opinion-related questions (Cohen *et al.*, 2004:407). Closed-ended statements were used to elicit standard answers that can be analyzed statistically. In lieu of measurement purposes, a semantic differential scale was utilized with a possible response range from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, requesting respondents to indicate their extent of agreement with each statement. A 7-point Likert-type interval scale was used and interpreted as 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

A seven-point scale was selected because it was believed that such a scale would allow the knowledgeable target population, i.e. senior managers, middle managers, supervisors and employees, to specify their responses more accurately (Han & Kambler, 2006:104). However, Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 26-27) assert that the choice of an interval scale of the measuring instrument facilitates the obligatory inferential statistical data analysis to be undertaken. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008: 286), interval scales have the power of nominal and ordinal data and they normally incorporate the concept of equality of intervals. The interval scales represent a higher level of measurement than the ordinal scales in the sense that they possess the properties of magnitude and equal intervals between adjacent units (Cooper & Schindler, 2008: 286).

Subsequently, with an interval scale, Pagano (2004:2) proclaims that there are the same amounts of the variable between adjacent units on the scale, and equal differences between the numbers on the scale represent equal differences in the magnitude of the variable. This study employed an ordinal scale using non-dichotomous data consisting of a spectrum of values by means of a seven-point Likert type scale with opinion-related factual questions for Sections A to E (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 161).

In addition, a small number of statistical algorithms can be applied such as calculating central tendencies using mean, median, mode and dispersion using range, inter quartile range and standard deviation in the interval scale (Pandian & Natarajan, 2009: 135). The measuring instrument for this study consisted of a cover letter and six sections. The cover letter provided full details regarding the purpose of the study as well as the type of information being pursued (Collis & Hussey, 2003:55). Furthermore, a declaration of confidentiality and instructions on how to respond to the statements on the questionnaire were part of the cover letter.

The questionnaire was comprised of the following six sections:

- Section A consisted of 27 statements (items) related to organisational factors impacting CC behaviour and independent variables that influence the perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.
- Section B consisted of 25 items related to external factors as independent variables impacting CC behaviour.
- Section C incorporated 25 statements linked to perceptions regarding personal factors impacting CC behaviour.
- Section D, which focused on a mediating variable, comprised of 16 items associated with the perceptions regarding CC behaviour.
- Section E, which focused on dependent variables, consisted of 23 statements related to the impact of CC behaviour on performance outcome.
- Finally, Section F of the questionnaire sought demographic information relating to both the respondents and the sector in which they operate.

A nominal scale was used to assess the biographical data of the respondents. In addition, the demographic section requested information on gender, age, educational level, tenure, position/title of participant in the organisation, the existing period of the organisation and the annual turnover of the organisation. It should be noted that the headings were removed in order to improve the accuracy of answers to sensitive questions while avoiding participants being misled by the factors being tested. However censoring of variables is a technique which is specifically employed to improve the accuracy of answers to sensitive questions.

When sensitive topics are studied, respondents often react in ways that negatively affect the validity of the data (Gerty, Lensvelt-Mulders, Hox & Van Der Heijden, 2005: 253). Table 7.2 below depicts a brief summary of the sections contained in the measuring instrument as well as the corresponding number of items generated to test a particular variable in the proposed hypothesized model.

Table 7.2: Measuring instruments: Number of Items per variable

VARIABLES	ATTRIBUTES	NUMBER OF ITEMS
Internal organisational factors	Workforce-Oriented	5
	Philanthropic	5
	Stakeholder Consultation	5
	Ethics	5
	Market-Oriented	7
External organisational factors	Economic	5
	Government/Legal	5
	Technological	5
	Environmental	5
	Social	5
Personal factors	Values	5
	Personality	5
	Commitment	5
	Sensitivity	5
	Personal Importance	5
Mediating variable	Corporate Citizenship Behaviour	16
Organisational Performance	-	5
Organisational Competitiveness	-	5
Organisational Image	-	5
Organisational Sustainability	-	7
Demographics	Biographical Information	9
	Position	
	Gender	
	Age group	
	Educational Level	
	Years in organisation	
	Sector	
	Employees in organisations	
	Existence of organisation	
	Annual Turnover	

Source: Own construct

7.7 ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

This study started identifying prospective organisations between August 2013 and May 2014 through stratified and purposive sampling. The researcher had an opportunity to intermingle with Chief Executives (CEOs), managers and representatives of various organisations in the Harare Mashonaland District. In June 2014, six research assistants were deployed to assist in reaching the intended target organisations for the purpose of appealing to them to participate in the study. The questionnaires, with each one attached to a cover letter printed on the official letterhead of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, were then directly given to those who agreed to participate in and complete the questionnaire. The official letterhead was used to enhance the perceived integrity of the study and to increase the probability that the respondents would complete the questionnaires.

The cover letter elucidated the purpose of the study and the type of information being sought. Confidentiality was guaranteed by stipulating that the information sought was solely for study purposes. Furthermore, an assurance was given to the participants that a summary of the final results will be made available to them. This was basically a way of increasing the chances of their participation. Participants were individually communicated with as a way of motivating them to complete the questionnaire. 500 questionnaires were made available to the prospective respondents. As a result, an overwhelming response was witnessed after an arduous follow-up; 419 completed questionnaires were returned within three weeks and were all used in the statistical analysis.

7.7.1 Response rate and sample size

A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed and 419 usable questionnaires were received from respondents, resulting in a response rate of 83.8%. Table 7.3 below presents a further breakdown of the response rate.

Table 7.3: Sample size and response rate

QUESTIONNAIRES	RESPONDENTS
Questionnaires distributed	500
Usable questionnaires received	419
Response rate	83.8%

Source: Own Construction

7.7.2 Missing data

Upon receipt of the questionnaires, a rigorous check was done during data capturing for missing and incomplete questionnaires. The only part which was left unanswered was an item on annual turnover from Section E of the questionnaire; the number of these unanswered questions is too insignificant to state. Also, incomplete questionnaires were identified, though insignificant to mention. However, no page was found missing in all of the received questionnaires. The verification process was done for the purpose of facilitating data processing without falsifying the results.

7.8 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Section B of each questionnaire comprised the demographic profile of the respondents and the businesses. A summary of all of the demographic information gathered from the 419 usable questionnaires is presented in the tables and paragraphs to follow. Table 7.4 below summarizes the demographic profiles of the respondents in this study.

Table 7.4: Demographic Profile of the respondents

POSITION1	Range		%
Senior Ma Nagement	1	137	32.69690
Middle Management	2	116	27.68496
Supervisory	3	81	19.33174
Employees	4	85	20.28640
	Total	419	100.0000
GENDER1			%
Female	1	187	44.63007
Male	2	232	55.36993
	Total	419	100.0000
AGE1			%
21-30	1	72	17.18377
31-40	2	166	39.61814
41-50	3	128	30.54893
51-60	4	44	10.50119
60 an over	5	9	2.14797
	Total	419	100.0000
EDUCATIONAL/LEVEL1			
O' Level	1	24	5.72792
A' Level	2	109	26.01432
Bachelor's degree	3	132	31.50358
Post graduate degree/diploma	4	148	35.32220
Other	5	5	1.19332
	Total	419	100.0000
TENURE1			
1-5	1	141	33.65155
6-10	2	126	30.07160
11-15	3	78	18.61575
16-20	4	47	11.21718
21 and above	5	27	6.44391
	Total	419	100.0000
SECTOR1			
Manufacturing	1	56	13.36516
Agriculture	2	25	5.96659
Mining	3	26	6.20525
Tourism	4	32	7.63723
Energy	5	16	3.81862
Financial	6	56	13.36516
Natural Resources	7	9	2.14797
Information Communication Technology	8	39	9.30788
Infrastructure Development	9	22	5.25060
Other	10	138	32.93556
	Total	419	100.0000
EMPLOYEES1			

Less than 50	1	102	24.34368
51-100	2	76	18.13842
101-150	3	51	12.17184
151-200	4	44	10.50119
200 and above	5	146	34.84487
	Total	419	100.0000
EXISTENCE1			
1-5	1	58	13.84248
6-10	2	69	16.46778
11-15	3	66	15.75179
16-20	4	76	18.13842
Over 21	5	150	35.79952
	Total	419	100.0000
TURN OVER1			
Less than US\$ 500 000	1	70	16.70644
US\$500 000- 999 999	2	54	12.88783
US\$1 000 000-1 499 999	3	54	12.88783
US\$1 500 000-1 999 999	4	43	10.26253
US\$2 000 000	5	182	43.43675
	Missing	16	3.81862
	Total	419	100.0000

Source: Own Construction

Table 7.4 of this study indicates that thirty three percent (33%) of the participants occupied senior management positions and middle management occupied twenty eight percent (28%). However, nineteen percent (19%) occupied supervisory positions while twenty percent (20%) were general employees. Participants in the age group 21-30 comprised seventeen percent (17%) of the participants, while forty percent (40%) were in the 31-40 age group. The 41-51 age group occupied thirty one percent (31%). Eleven percent (11%) were 51-60 years of age and 60 years and above constituted two (2%). Six percent (6%) of the participants attained an O' level qualification, while A' level/diploma qualifications were attained by twenty six percent (26%) of the participants.

Thirty two percent (32%) attained a Bachelor's degree, thirty five percent (35%) completed a postgraduate degree/diploma while only one percent (1%) had other qualifications. Respondents who had been with their organisations for 1-5 years constitute 34%, while those in the 6-10 year category constituted thirty percent

(30%). Eighteen percent (18%) had been with the organisation for a period between 11-15 years and eleven percent (11%) had been with the organisation for a period of 16-20 years. Participants who had been employed in their current organisations for over 21 years constituted only six percent (6%). Thirteen percent of the respondents were employed in the manufacturing sector, whereas five percent (5%) were employed in the agriculture sector. Six percent (6%) stemmed from mining sector and eight (8%) were from the tourism sector.

Participants from the energy sector constituted four percent (4%), while those from the financial sector constituted thirteen percent (13%) and natural resources only two percent (2%). Nine percent (9%) of the participants came from the information communication technology sector and five percent (5%) from the infrastructure development sectors, while an overwhelming thirty percent (32%) came from other sectors. Twenty four percent (24%) of the respondents was drawn from organisations which employ less than 50 employees. Those organisations which employ 51-100 employees comprised eighteen percent (18%) of the participants while eleven percent (11%) was drawn from organisations which employ 101-200 employees.

The majority of the participants was drawn from organisations which employ more than 200 staff members as this contingent constituted thirty-five percent (35%) of the participants. Fourteen percent (14%) of the participants indicated that their organisation had been operational for 1-5 years while the organisations which had been operational for 6-10 and 11-15 years each constituted sixteen percent (16%) of the respondents. Seventeen percent (17%) shows that their organisation has been in existence for 16-20 years while eighteen percent (18%) indicated that their organisation has been in existence for 16-20 years while thirty six percent (36%) show that their organisation existed for over 21 years.

Seventeen percent (17%) of the participants showed that their organisations had an annual turnover of less than US\$500000 and thirteen percent (13%) of the participants indicated that their organisations had an annual turnover of US\$500000 –US\$999 999 and US\$1000000-US\$1499999. Ten percent (10%) of the participants indicated that their organisations had an annual turnover of US\$1500000-999999 while forty three percent (43%) indicated that their organisations had an annual turnover of over US\$2000000.

7.9 OPERATIONALISATION OF VARIABLES AND RESEARCH INSTRUMENT DESIGN

To effectively operationalise the variables in the hypothesized model, literature on CC activities and their potential outcomes, and factors that impact perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe, as discussed in Chapters 3, 4 and 5, was used in this study. The study used some items from existing measuring instruments that have provided evidence of reliability and have been compelling in the preceding line of investigation. Operationalization is the development of specific research procedures that will result in empirical observations representing those concepts in the real world (Babbie, 2011:133). A minimum of 5 items was used to measure variables. The various operational definitions of the independent, mediating and dependent variables are discussed in the following sections. These definitions are based on an interpretation of secondary sources and existing empirical studies. An explanation of how the scales were developed to measure the selected variables will also be provided.

7.9.1 Workforce-oriented Activities

In this study, workforce-oriented refers to factors that an organisation can offer as a package with the intention of attracting top talented employees, these include: providing work/life balance, workplace safety as well as promotion and compensation practices. A five item scale was developed to measure the workforce-oriented focus in this study. The items were derived from Jordan (2008:12), Backhaus *et al.*, (2002:292); Fonteneau (2003:1), Ahmed & Rafiq (2003:1177), McBain (2007:16), Sisodia *et al.*, (2007:12-13), Greening & Turban (2000:254), Branco & Rodrigues (2006:111), Budhwar & Mellahi (2007:1) and Glavas (2009:45). Some of the items also emanated from the secondary sources.

7.9.2 Philanthropy

In this study, philanthropy is understood as voluntary contributions by individuals and organisations in the form of money, goods and expertise. In order to measure philanthropic CC activities, a five item scale was developed.

These items were randomly picked from the empirical studies used by Windsor, 2001:225), Carroll (2008:19), Basil *et al.*, (2006:61), Porter & Kramer (2002:56), The Economist (2006:8466), Yelkikalan & Kose (2012:294), Vogel (2006:635), Corneo (2007:831) and Breman (2006:16).

7.9.3 Stakeholder Consultation

In this study, stakeholder consultation is on the subject of instigating and sustaining productive external interactions over time. In order to measure stakeholder consultation CC activities in this study, a five item scale was developed. Organisations that start the process early and take a long-term, strategic view are, in essence, developing their local social license to operate (Stakeholder Consultation Issue Paper, 2004:33). However, these items originated from surveys made by Valor (2005:196), de Jongh (2008:19). Some of the items were chosen from the existing literature.

7.9.4 Ethics

In this study, ethics refers to general guidelines on good behaviour/conduct of individuals, groups, or an organisation as a whole. The ethics of CC activities were measured by developing a five item scale derived from the previous studies of Fatoki & Chiliya (2012:15), Koh & Boo (2001:301), Valentine & Barnett (2003:349), Vaiman *et al.*, (2011:259), Dunfee & Donaldson (2002:38), Waples *et al.*, (2009:131) and Vitell *et al.*, (2000:15).

7.9.5 Market-orientation

Market-oriented, in this study, can be defined as a form of organisational culture where employees throughout the organisation are committed to continually creating superior customer value, or as a sequence of marketing activities that lead to better performance. In order to measure market-oriented CC activities, a seven item scale was developed. The items were formulated from the studies of Haugland *et al.* (2007:1191), Nielsen, Host, Jaensson, Kock & Selnes (2002:1818); Hammond, Webster & Harmon (2006:69), Kirca *et al.*, (2005:24), Tomaskova (2008:10).

7.9.6 Economic activities

For the purpose of this study, economics refers to studies on how individuals, governments, organisations and nations make choices on allocating scarce resources to satisfy their unlimited wants. An economic state of affairs has an effect on how easy or how difficult it is to be victorious and gainful at any time because they impinge on both resource accessibility, expenditures and demand (Thompson, 2002:29). This study presented a five item scale to measure the economic CC activities. The items were, however, derived from the studies of Thompson (2002:29), Lipsey (2001:304), Garriga & Melé (2004:57) and Yelkikalan & Kose (2012:292).

7.9.7 Government/Legal

In this study, government/legal refers to the system by which a state or community is governed. In pursuance of this study, a five item scale evolved from the studies of Tyagi, Sharma & Agrawal, (2013:381), West, (2008:13), Luarn and Huang, (2009:227), Lepoutre, Dentchev and Heene (2007:391), and Henderson Global Investors (2005:15).

7.9.8 Technology

Technology, in this study, refers to a manner of accomplishing a task, especially using technical processes, methods, or knowledge. The fast changes of technology, society, the economy, and the environment bring new challenges for organisations to develop a new structure and management process (Koumparoulis, 2013:32). In the economic environment, the old hierarchal organisation is coping with a new world order with permeable geopolitical boundaries and these changes lead organisations to manage in various ways in order to continue to live in the new environment (Koumparoulis, 2013:32). The study developed a five item scale in order to measure the technology related CC activities. The items were derived from the existing literature and surveys of Jamali (2005:104), Goldenberg *et al.*, (2001:69), Astebro & Dahlin (2005:1404), Nwagbara & Reid (2013:18) and Amit & Zott, 2001:493).

7.9.9 Environment

In this study, environmental refers to the merger into the design, manufacturing and distribution of products of environmental considerations such as pollution prevention and control; protection of water resources; biodiversity conservation; waste management; management of local pollution; or management of environmental impact of transportation. Addressing environmental and societal problems through actually construct assessment for the organisation (Lash & Wellington, 2007:94; Strom, 2007:3). A five item scale measuring environmental CC activities was developed from surveys of Becker & Henderson (2000:379), Greenstone (2002:1175), Cole and Elliott (2005:530), Millimet (2013:13) and Mulatu, Gerlagh, Rigby and Wossnik (2010:459).

7.9.10 Social

In this study, social refers to proactive human resources management and may consist of contributions to local and general interest causes, respect for human rights and elimination of child labor. As underlined by Van den Berghe and Louche (2005:129), organisations are facing a new invisible hand; that is, non-market forces exerted by NGOs, the media, trade-unions and others. Influenced by this new invisible hand, they set off to mull over CC as a precondition for sustainable growth and welfare. The present study developed a five item scale to measure the social CC activities. These items were derived from the studies of Prasso (2007:155), Glavas (2009:27), McKinsey (2006:1) and Matten & Crane (2005:172).

7.9.11 Values

In this study, values refer to those beliefs or standards that incline us to act or to choose in one way rather than another. The concept can also describe the beliefs of an individual or culture. A five item scale was formed to measure values related CC activities. The items emanated from the research conducted by Schwartz and Bardi (2001:268), Siltaoja, (2006:91), Maignan (2001:57) and Fukukawa *et al.*, (2007:265).

7.9.12 Personality

In this study, personality refers to differences among people in behaviour patterns, cognition and emotion. Personality is frequently selected as a factor that can reflect or describe individual consumer characteristics (Basil & Weber, 2006:2). In order to measure personality related CC activities, a five item scale was designed. Most of the items were taken from Basil & Weber (2006:61), Fok *et al.*, (2009:27), Tilleman (2012:417), Strandberg Consulting (2009:10) and Riketta (2005:225).

7.9.13 Sensitivity

In this study, sensitivity refers to the emotional reaction in people. However, a study has weathered the sensitivity of consumers to organisational social performance (OSP) using a series of questions considered to test both general attitudes about social responsibility and particular applications such as management exercise that exemplify OSP (Meijer & Schuyt, 2005:442). In order to measure the sensitivity of CC activities, a five item scale was used from the information gathered from the following studies: Ejilude, Akinduti, Idowu, Ogunbileje & Akinbo (2011:86), Cleghorn (2004:4), Paul *et al.*, (2011:2), Cooper & Taylor (2007:293), Kamsaris & Kougoulos (2014:2), Earley & Ang (2004:100), Collings *et al.*, (2007:198) and Andreason (2003:42).

7.9.14 Personal importance

Personal importance, in this study, is understood as values which are more in line with self-enhancement. In order to measure CC activities related to personal importance, a five item scale was developed. These items were carefully selected from the studies of Carmeli & Schaubroeck (2007:35), Carrigan & Attalla (2001:560), Du *et al.*, (2007:224), and Sen *et al.*, (2006:158).

7.9.15 Corporate Citizenship Behaviour

In this study, the concept CC refers to an organisation which encompasses all its stakeholders, the environment and the community at large in which it operates.

To measure CC activities, a sixteen item scale was developed. In developing the scale to measure CC behaviour in Zimbabwe, existing literature on the measurement item scales for CC was consulted. Waddock (2003:4) and Du *et al.*, (2010:145), for example, assert that the assessment of CC is founded on the perceived level of organisational responsibility an organisation exhibits, which inherently involves accountability to relevant stakeholders for one's action. Furthermore, CC is moving from the precinct of concern to being a central focus of leading organisations (Muirhead, Bennett, Berenbeim, Kao & Vidal, 2002:2).

7.9.16 Organisational performance

For the purpose of this study, Organisational performance is the decisive dependent variable of concern for researchers concerned with just about any area of management. The present study developed a six item scale to measure the organisational performance. These items were derived from Kashyap, Mir and Iyer (2006:366), Fasanya & Onakoya (2013:23), Orlitzky *et al.*, (2003:403), Margolis & Walsh (2003:268), Fernandez-Kranz & Santaló (2010:453), Sanchez-Hernandez and Miranda (2011:207), Schuler & Cording (2006:540), Gardberg & Fombrun (2006:64); Webber (2007:367), and Tharenou, Saks and Moore (2007:25).

7.9.17 Organisational competitiveness

In this study, competitiveness refers to the ability to produce goods and services which meet the test of international markets. In the competitive organisational environment, marketing managers try their best to apportion as many resources as possible into programs that have been designed to suit existing customers and build up a long term established relationship (Yuen, 2007:7). A five item scale to measure CC activities related to organisational competitiveness was gathered from the previous studies of Deephouse (2000:1091) Roberts & Dowling (2002:1077), Shamsie (2003:199), Walsh (2005:426), MacGillivray, Begley and Zadek (2007:119), and Bagnoli & Watts (2003:419).

7.9.18 Organisational image

In this study, organisational image is understood as the overall impression and opinions of stakeholders towards a specific organisation or the way in which it is perceived in the market. In order to measure the organisational image related CC activities, a five item scale was expounded. Information pertaining to these items was gathered from the studies of Kärreman & Rylander (2008:103), Empson (2004:759), Kim and Lyon (2008:543), Portney (2008:261) and Alvesson (2000:1102).

7.9.19 Organisational sustainability

In this study, organisational sustainability refers to the minimization of waste in the use of resources and optimizing the value of service. The present study developed a seven item scale to measure organisational sustainability related CC activities. The items were derived from surveys by Fruck (2003:65); Zadek (2001:122), Dyllick and Hockerts (2002:131), Bibri (2008:66), Epstein & Roy (2003:15) and Ethical Corporation (2009:13). Table 7.5 below summarizes the operationalisation of variables and scale development of these variables in this study.

Table 7.5 Summary of operationalisation of variables and scale development

Operationalisation of factors	Items	Empirical & secondary sources
Workforce-oriented refer to factors that an organisation can offer as a package with the intention of attracting talented employees, such as providing work/life balance, workplace safety, promotion and compensation practices.	5	Jordan (2008:12), Fonteneau (2003:1), Clarkson (1995:95), Ahmed & Rafiq (2003:1177), McBain (2007:16), Barnes & Morris (2000:473), Willard (2002:336)
Philanthropic is understood as voluntary contributions given by individuals and organisations in the form of money, goods and expertise.	5	Windsor (2001:225), Carroll (2008:19), Basil, <i>et al.</i> (2006:61), Bronn and Vrioni (2001:207), Porter & Kramer (2002:56), The Economist (2006:8466)
Stakeholder consultation refers to initiating and sustaining beneficial external	5	Sabapathy, <i>et al.</i> (2002:46), de Jongh (2008:19), Gibson (2000:245, Wijnberg (2000:329)

associations over time.		
Ethics refers to general guidelines on good behaviour/conduct of individuals, groups, and organisations as a whole.	5	Koh & Boo (2001:301), Valentine & Barnett (2003:349), Vaiman, <i>et al.</i> (2011:259), Dunfee & Donaldson (2002:38)
Market-oriented can be defined as a form of organisational culture in which employees throughout the organisation are committed to continually creating superior customer value, or as a sequence of marketing activities that lead to better performance. In order to measure market-oriented CC activities, a seven item scale was developed.	7	Haugland <i>et al.</i> (2007:1191), Nielsen <i>et al.</i> (2002:1818); Hammond, Webster and Harmon (2006:69), Kirca <i>et al.</i> (2005:24), Hafer & Gresham (2008:85), Tomaskova (2008:10)
For the purpose of this study, economic refers to studies on how individuals, governments, firms and nations make choices on allocating scarce resources to satisfy their unlimited wants.	5	Thompson (2002:29, Lipsey (2001:304), Goldberg & Kolstad (1995:855), Garriga & Melé, 2004:57), Yelkikalan & Kose (2012:292).
In this study, Government refers to the system by which a state or community is governed.	5	West, (2007:65, 2008:13), Luarn, & Huang, 2009:227), Bronn & Vrioni, (2001:207), Lepoutre, <i>et al.</i> (2007:391), Waddock & Smith (2000: 47), Tan & Komaran (2006:2), Carroll (1979:500)
Technology , in this study, refers to a manner of accomplishing a task, especially using technical processes, methods, or knowledge.	5	Jamali (2005:104), Goldenberg, <i>et al.</i> (2001:69), Astebro & Dahlin (2005:1404); Nwagbara & Reid (2013:18), Amit & Zott (2001:493)
Environmental refers to the incorporation into the design, manufacturing and distribution of products of environmental considerations such as pollution prevention and control; protection of water resources; biodiversity conservation; waste management; management of local pollution; or management of environmental impacts of transportation.	5	Becker & Henderson (2000:379), Greenstone (2002:1175), Millimet (2013:13), Mulatu, <i>et al.</i> (2010:459)
Social refers to proactive human resources management and may include contributions to local and general interest causes, respect for the human rights and the elimination of child labor.	5	Prasso (2007:155), Glavas (2009:27), McKinsey (2006:1),Matten & Crane (2005:172)

Values refers to those beliefs or standards that incline us to act or to choose in one way rather than another.	5	Schwartz & Bardi (2001:268), Myyry & Helkama (2001:25, Lindeman & Verkasalo, (2005:170), Siltaoja, (2006:91), Maignan (2001:57), Kitayama, Markus, Matsumoto & Norasakkunkit (1997:1245)
Personality refers to differences among people in behaviour patterns, cognition and emotions.	5	Basil & Weber (2006:61), Connolly & Viswesvaran (2000:265), Furnham, <i>et al.</i> (2005:5), Fok, Hartman & Zee (2009:27), Tilleman (2012:417), Strandberg Consulting (2009:10), Pierce & Madden (2009:9), Chen & Francesco (2000:869), Meyer & Herscovitch (2001:299), Riketta (2005:225)
Sensitivity refers to the emotional reactions of people.	5	Idowu (2005:86), Cleghorn (2004:4), Dirks (2004:972), Lewis (2003:356), Paul, Meyskens & Robbins (2011:2), Reed & Vakola (2006:393), Cooper & Taylor (2007:68), Kamsaris & Kougoulos (2014:2), Andreason (2003:42), Earley and Ang, 2004:100), Gupta & Govindarajan (2002:116), Collings, <i>et al.</i> (2007:198), Ray & Anderson (2000:341)
Personal importance is understood as values which are more in line with self-enhancement.	5	Tierney, <i>et al.</i> (2000:591), Carmeli & Schaubroeck (2007:35), Boulstridge & Carrigan (2000:355), Carrigan & Attalla (2001:560), Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, Sankar (2007:224), Sen, Bhattacharya & Korschun (2006:158)
CC refers to a business which encompasses all its stakeholders, the environment and the community at large in which it operates.	16	Waddock (2003b:4), Du, <i>et al.</i> (2010:145) Muirhead, Benette, Berenbein, Kao & Vidal, (2002:2)
Organisational performance is the ultimate dependent variable of interest for researchers concerned with just about any area of management.	6	Bagnoli & Watts (2003:419), Orlitzky, <i>et al.</i> (2003:403), Margolis & Walsh (2003:268), Fernandez-Kranz & Santaló (2010:453), Sanchez-Hernandez & Miranda (2011:207)
Organisational Competitiveness refers the ability of an organisation to do better than comparable firms in sales, market share, or profitability.	5	Deephouse (2000:1091), Roberts & Dowling, (2002:1077, Shamsie (2003:199), Walsh (2005:426), MacGillivray, <i>et al.</i> (2007:119), Mohamed & Sawandi (2003:5), Bagnoli & Watts (2003:419)
Organisational image is understood as	5	Kärreman & Rylander's (2008:103), Empson

the overall impression and opinions of stakeholders towards a specific organisation or the way in which it is perceived in the market.		(2004:759), Kim & Lyon (2008:543), Portney (2008:261),
Organisational sustainability refers to the minimization of waste in the use of resources and optimizing the value of services.	7	Funk (2003:65), Zadek (2001:122), Dyllick, & Hockerts, 2002:130), Bibri (2008:66), Lankoski (2000:36), Epstein & Roy (2001:589), Epstein & Roy, 2003:15), Molnar and Mulvihill (2003:167), Ethical Corporation (2009:13)

Source: Own construct

7.10 THE CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

7.10.1 Reliability

Research as defined by many authors (Patton, 2001:452, Creswell, 2003:3, McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:597) is an orderly submission of systematic technique to the problem under deliberation. Therefore, without rigor, research becomes fiction and loses its worth. The rigor can be guaranteed only by taking into consideration soundness and reliability in all kinds of research methods, for example, quantitative research gives indemnity for the prospect of replicating. Consequently, within a particular boundary of investigational inaccuracy or indiscriminate error, if the matching methods are used with the same sample, then the results should be comparable (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2008:133). The instrument's validity can be regarded as the extent to which the instrument reflects the figurative construct being studied (Burns & Grove 2001:814). Manning and Munro (2006:35–37) assert that Cronbach's coefficient alpha verifies the internal consistency of an instrument. A measure is considered reliable if a person's score on the same test, if given twice, is similar. In a more unequivocal way, Bowling (2009:162) examines consistency in quantitative research simultaneously with soundness, uniformity, reproducibility or reliability over time, over the instruments and other groups of respondents. Certainly, for an inquiry to be reliable, it must show that if it were to be carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, similar results would be acquired (Cohen *et al.*, 2008:133). Reliability is defined as the measure to which test scores are dependable and stable across conditions (Reynolds, Livingston, & Wilson, 2009:431).

Bryman (2008) offers an acceptable definition of reliability and argues that the concept is anonymously used in relation to the question of whether the measures that are devised for concepts in the social sciences are consistent (Bryman, 2008:31). To take Bryman as a reference, reliability is regarded in relation to the link between a measure and a concept, and within the context of a qualitative study it is about generating a measurable concept (Bapir, 2012:14). Consequently, various means can be used to enhance credibility, including accurately and richly describing data, citing negative cases, using multiple researchers to review and critique the analysis and findings, and conducting member checks (Saumure & Given, 2008:895, Jensen, 2008:138).

Dependability can be addressed by providing a rich description of the research procedures and instruments used so that other researchers may be able to collect data in similar ways. The authors posit that the idea is that if a different set of researchers use similar methods, they should reach similar conclusions. Quantitative research utilizes experimental methods to test hypotheses and to emphasise the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables (Creswell, 2003:3, McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:597). The term reliability is a concept used for testing or assessing quantitative research, the thought is most often used in all kinds of research. Researchers may address this reliability indicator by conducting the new study on participants with similar demographic variables, asking similar questions, and coding data in a similar fashion to the original study (Firmin, 2008:754).

Reliability is concerned with the amount to which different raters or coders appraise the same information; for instance, events, features, phrases, behaviours should be appraised in the same way (van den Hoonaard, 2008:371). Highlighting the significance of reliability in testing, Wells & Wollack (2003:2) suggest that it is of the essence to be anxious about a test's trustworthiness for two reasons. The initial one is that the reliability provides a measure of the extent to which an examinee's score reflects the random measurement error and to be concerned with reliability as a precursor to test validity. That is, if scores cannot be assigned consistently, it is impossible to conclude that the scores accurately measure the sphere of influence of interest (Jafari, Akhavan & Nouriadeh, 2013:7).

7.10.1.1 Cronbach's alpha values

Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficients were computed to investigate the reliability of the measuring instrument (Smith & Rootman, 2013:8). It is stated that Cronbach's alpha coefficients range from 0 to 1, and that a test should have a Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient equal to or greater than 0.80 in order to be regarded as trustworthy (Gwet 2012:246, Hair, Babin, Money and Samouel, 2003:172).

7.10.2 Validity

Validity can be viewed as the ability of the instrument selected for a particular study to produce the intended results and reliability is described as an instrument with dependable attributes of accuracy (Wood, Ross-Kerr & Brink, 2006:195, Winter, 2000:7). This implies that the same instrument, if repeated on different occasions, should produce the same results each time when administered. Validity will be ensured by means of conducting an exploratory factor analysis. Various types of validity will be measured.

Validity determines whether the research truly measures what it was anticipated to measure or how candid the research results are (Bashir, Afzal & Azeem, 2008:35). Furthermore, Golafashani (2003:597) describes validity in quantitative research as construct validity. Relatedly, Whiston (2005:43) views validity as the amount to which confirmation and hypotheses support the analysis of test scores dictated by proposed uses of tests. Similarly, Kaplan & Saccuzzo (2005:132) view validity as the evidence for presumptions made about a test score.

Further, McBurney and White (2007:169) view validity as a sign of meticulousness in terms of the degree to which a study draws conclusions with certainty. The preceding proposes that validity centers on the level to which consequential and suitable presumptions or judgments are prepared at the starting point of scores resulting from the instrument used in a study (Ayodele, 2012:391). However, there are diverse categories of validity that are used in research, for example, Cohen *et al.*, (2008:135) listed several classes of validity: content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

a) Content Validity

According to Landsheer and Boeije (2008:60), content validity is best when established deductively by defining a cosmos of items and sampling methods within this universe to establish the test. Furthermore, content validity is a hypothetical concept which focuses on the capacity to which the instrument of measurement displays the verification of reasonable and wide-ranging reporting of the sphere of influence of items that it professes to cover (Ayodele, 2012:393). According to Babbie (2007:298), content validity gives an idea about the degree to which a measure covers the array of meanings included within the notion. Cohen *et al.* (2008:135) define content validity as a form of validity that makes certain that the fundamentals of the focal subject to be covered in a study is both a fair demonstration of the wider topic under examination and that the essentials preferred for the study sample are attended to in intensity and breadth.

b) Construct Validity

According to Shuttleworth (2009:18-20), construct validity defines how well a test or experiment measures up to its claims. It refers to whether the operational definition of a variable actually reflects the true theoretical meaning of a concept. Construct validity is a device commonly used in educational research. It is based on the rational relationships among variables (Ayodele, 2012:394). According to Roberts, Priest and Traynor (2006:41), construct validity refers to whether the operational characterization of a variable in point of fact epitomizes the hypothetical significance of a notion. In a nutshell, construct validity demonstrates the extent to which presumptions are justifiably prepared from the operationalisations in one's study to the hypothetical constructs on which those operationalisations are based (Ayodele, 2012:394).

Construct validity can also be known as an assertion that one can have with regards to whether the operational definition realistically represents the conceptual construct it is supposed to represent (Altermatt, 2007:479). At some point, the rationale of a study is to display the construct validity of a new measure and it is of paramount importance to any study because a study is only as good as its operator definitions (Altermatt, 2007:479).

Construct validity is however a more important, but more difficult, measuring property to assess (Carlson & Herdman, 2012:17). That is, the construct in question is different from other potentially similar constructs.

- **Discriminant Validity**

Discriminant validity puts forward that using comparable methods for researching different constructs should capitulate comparatively low inter-correlations (Tavakoli, 2012:176, Jafari *et al.*, 2013:376). That is, the construct in inquiry is poles apart from other substantially comparable constructs. Such discriminant validity can also be capitulated by factor analysis, which groups together comparable matters and separates them from others (Cohen *et al.*, 2008:133). Testing for discriminant validity can be prepared by means of one of the following methods: O-sorting, chi-square difference test and the average variance extracted analysis (Zait & Berteau, 2011:217).

- **Convergent Validity**

Convergent validity entails that the scores resulting from the measuring instrument draw a parallel with the scores resulting from comparable variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2001:164). Convergent validity is the degree to which the operational definition is correlated with variables that one would expect it to be correlated with (Altermatt, 2007:479).

Convergent validity is an outline of the verification used to judge the construct validity of a measure. This evidence of convergent validity is frequently evaluated by means of the enormity of the zero-order correlation between the proxy and other closely related measures (Carlson & Herdman, 2012:78). Convergent validity replicates the extent to which two measures confine a familiar construct. Alternative measures that provide less than perfect convergent validity introduces indistinctness that meddles with the development of meanings and the interpretation of findings within and across studies (Larrazza-Kintana, Wiseman, Gomez-Mejia & Welbourne, 2007:1001).

c) Criterion-Related Validity

A criterion is an average of opinion or a traditional standard against which other measures are weighed (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2005:132). Therefore, criterion-related validity covers correlations of the measure with another criterion measure, which is accredited as applicable and where a high correlation coefficient exists between the scores on a measuring instrument and the scores on other existing instruments which are accepted as applicable (Bowling, 2009:162, Whiston, 2005:43, Cohen *et al.*, 2008:133). Whiston (2005:43), Cohen *et al.* (2008:133) propose that there are two types of criterion-related validity; namely, concurrent validity and predictive validity. There is time to pause between when the instrument is administered and when the criterion information is drawn together.

In synchronized validity, the measures and criterion measures are taken at the same time because they are generally premeditated to offer problem-solving information that can help direct edifying advancement of the learners (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2007:132). The concept of criterion validity involves demonstrating validity by showing that the scores on the test being validated correlate highly with some other, well-respected measure of the same construct (Brown, 2009:539). Therefore, criterion-related validity covers correlations of the measure with another criterion measure, which is conventional as well as applicable (Bowling, 2009:162). However, in this study, discriminant validity was used, since dimensions did not cluster together.

7.11 DATA ANALYSIS

Hatch (2002:148) asserts that data analysis is a way to give a clear meaning of the data gathered during research so that it can be comprehended by anyone. The analysis of the data in terms of understanding the various concepts, constructs or variables, engross the breaking up of the data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships (Mouton, 2001:108). Most importantly, data analysis does not take place only at one phase; instead, an experienced researcher goes through the data in several stages and analyses it throughout the research process (Zohrabi, 2011:698). Consequently, Blaxter *et al.*, (2006: 193) believe that analysis is a work in progress which will possibly suggest itself throughout the research.

However, the purpose of this incessant data analysis is principally to extract importance from a quantity of data (Zohrabi, 2011:698). Creswell (2003:190) contends that it means moving deeper and deeper into appreciating the data, representing the data, and analysing the larger meaning of the data. In this regard, the researcher has to find some suitable ways of making logic out of a mass of data. After the data has been collected through altered procedures and from different sources, Zohrabi (2011:698) avows that the researcher should find some suitable ways of analyzing it. Quantitative data emerges in numerical form and qualitative data in a mass of words, sentences and texts.

7.11.1 Descriptive statistics

Sandelowski (2000:334) posits that the researcher is expected to commence by working out some descriptive statistics to summarize the pattern of findings and these descriptive statistics include the measuring of the central tendency within a sample, for instance, mean, mode and median and measures of the spread of scores within a sample, such as range or standard deviation. Russell (2002:65) maintains that frequencies indicated by tables, charts and graphs can also be used to summarize the results and should be clearly acknowledged and improve the endorsement of the results. This commonly means that descriptive statistics, unlike inferential statistics, are not developed on the foundation of prospect theory (Dodge, 2002:144). Even when a data analysis draws its most important conclusion using inferential statistics, descriptive statistics are generally also presented.

7.11.2 Factor analysis

Other advanced statistical analysis techniques that were used include factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, as well as correlation and regression analysis. The preliminary point of factor analysis is a correlation matrix, in which the interrelations between the studied variables are presented. The dimensionality of this matrix can be condensed through looking for variables that correlate highly with a group of other variables, but correlate imperfectly with variables outside of that group (Field, 2000: 424).

Factor analysis is a category of procedures that accomplish the same type of classification as the methods depicted above, but do so in accord with a more structured set of operations and provide more explicit information that the data analyst can use to make judgments (Field, 2000:470). Like the methods just described, factor analysis classifies categories of similar statements and can be used for theory instrument development and assessing the construct validity of an established instrument when administered to a specific population (Chen, 2010:2). Through factor analysis, the inventive position of variables is reduced to a few factors with the minimum loss of information.

There is, however, general agreement that an inadequate sample size can be unfavorable to the factor analytic process and produce unreliable, and therefore, invalid results (Osborne & Costello, 2004:1, Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003:132). It is important to note that factor analysis is not a singular statistical method, but rather a group of statistical analyses that share a similar methodology and functionality (Beavers *et al.*, 2013:2). More specifically, the goal of factor analysis is to lessen the dimensionality of the inventive space and to provide an analysis of the new space, spanned by a condensed number of new dimensions which are invented to bring about the old ones or to elucidate the variance in the observed variables in terms of underlying dormant factors (Habing, 2003:2).

The factor scores can then, for example, be used as new scores in multiple regression analysis, while the factor loadings are especially useful in determining the substantive importance of a particular variable to a factor by squaring this factor loading; it is, after all, a correlation, and the squared correlation of a variable determines the amount of variance accounted for by that particular variable (Fields & Yoo, 2000:139). This is important information in interpreting and naming the factors since factor analysis departs from a correlation matrix, and the used variables should first be measured at an interval level (Fields & Yoo, 2000:139). In addition, the variables should approximately be averagely distributed which makes it possible to generalize the results of the analysis ahead of the sample collected (Field & Yoo, 2000: 444).

Additionally, the sample size should be taken into consideration, as correlations are not resistant and can for this reason seriously influence the reliability of the factor analysis (Moore & McCabe 2002:103, Field, 2000:443, Habing 2003:3). According to Field (2000:443), much has been written about the indispensable sample size for factor analysis resulting in many rules-of-thumb. Field himself, for example, states that a researcher should have at least 10-15 subjects per variable (Field, 2000:443). Habing (2003), however, states that there should be at least 50 observations and at least 5 times as many observations as variables (Habing, 2003:3). Fortunately, Monte Carlo (1930) studies have resulted in more specific statements concerning sample size (Field, 2000:443, Habing 2003:3).

The common conclusion of these studies was that the most important factors in determining reliable factor solutions were the absolute sample size and the absolute magnitude of factor loadings; the more frequent and higher the loadings are about a factor, the smaller the sample can be (Field, 2000:443).

a) Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a kind of structural equation modeling that deals distinctively with the measurement of models; that is, the relationships between observed measures or indicators such as test items, test scores, behavioural observation ratings, and latent variables or factors (Brown & Moore 2012:3). Gregorich (2006:78) describes the appropriateness of using CFA for evaluating construct validity and measurement invariance. The CFA framework makes available a way to test the construct validity of item sets, that is, whether item sets are indirect measures of theorized underlying variables (Gregorich (2006:78). Furthermore, CFA can test whether verification of construct validity is invariant across two or more population groups.

The effects of these tests support to institute the types of quantitative group comparisons that are permissible (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007:628, Gregorich, 2006:78). Confirmatory data analysis reckons the extent to which deviations from a model may perhaps be expected to occur by chance (Gelman, 2004:755). Confirmatory analysis uses the traditional statistical tools of inference, significance, and confidence.

b) Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis accounts for familiar variance in the data and approximation factors which influence responses on the observed variables (Suhr, 2006:3). An approach used to analyze data for previously unknown relationships, on average, involves highly visual and interactive methods (Renz, 2013:26). In its most basic sense, exploratory data analysis is concerned with the identification or discovery of patterns pertaining to a variable (Waltenburg, 2012:27). In this study, exploratory factor analysis was used.

c) Factor Loading

Factor loadings are vital for the interpretation of the factors, in particular, higher ones. One can wonder how high a loading has to be in order to establish the interpretation of the factor in any significant way. According to Field (2000: 440), this is dependent on the sample size; the bigger the sample, the smaller the loadings can be to be significant. On the same note, Field (2000: 441) states that the impact of a loading gives a modest suggestion of the substantive importance of a variable to a factor. However, the loadings have to be squared, for this to be determined. A cut off point used in this study was 0.5.

d) Factor Rotation

Field (2000:439) states the choice of rotation depends on whether there is a good theoretical reason to presume that the factors should be related or independent, and also how the variables cluster of the factors before rotation; it is not always easy to decide which type of rotation to take under such conditions. However, a fairly straightforward way to decide which rotation to take is to carry out the analysis using both types of rotation; if the oblique rotation demonstrates a negligible correlation between the extracted factors, then it is reasonable to use the orthogonally rotated solution (Field, 2000:439). In this study, the orthogonally rotated solution was used simply because it yields results which make it as easy as possible to identify each variable with a single factor.

7.12 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis can be a long, drawn-out process of taking account of more than one self-determining variable and can be referred to as multiple regression

(Guerard, 2013:19). In simple regression analysis, one seeks to measure the statistical association between two variables, X and Y (Guerard, 2013:20). Regression analysis illustrates a statistical association or correlation amongst variables, rather than a causal relationship amongst variables. However, regression is used to calculate, approximately, the unknown effect of changing one variable over another (Stock & Watson, 2003:549). It is recommended to have a clear idea of what one tries to estimate, for instance, to identify which are the outcome and predictor variables before running a regression analysis (Torres-Reyna, 2007:2). A regression makes sense only if there is a sound theory behind it (Torres-Reyna, 2007:2). According to Mendenhall and Sincich (2003:85), regression analysis of data is considered to be a very powerful statistical tool, in the sense that it provides a technique for building a statistical predictor of a response and enables one limit the error of prediction.

7.13 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation analysis is a valuable practice that can be used to analyze the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2006:99). Therefore, in this study, it was conducted to test the main research hypothesis (Markovic & Jankovic, 2013:154). However, the objective is to perceive if a variation in the independent item, which is typically a pointer, will result in changes in the dependent item (Achelis, 2000:37). The correlation coefficient can range between ± 1.0 to ± 0.10 (Hair *et al.* 2003:283). According to Ratner (2009:1439), the degree of relationship is measured by a correlation coefficient, symbolized by *r*. Subsequently, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the correlations between the study's variables (Smith & Rootman, 2013:8). Therefore, the Pearson correlation coefficients enabled the researcher to classify correlations between the five independent variables: organisational social responsibility, personal importance, personal characteristics, environmental involvement and market orientation and the dependent variables: organisational sustainability and organisational performance outcomes (Piovani, 2008:757). Furthermore, the correlation coefficient requires that the fundamental relationship between the two variables under deliberation is linear in order to provide a dependable measure of the strength of the linear relationship (Ratner, 2009:140).

7.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical issues ought to be taken into consideration from the planning stage to data collection through to the data analysis and reporting the findings. Therefore, every researcher needs to take heed of the ethical issues at any stage of the research process. As Flick (2006:49) contends, the inquirer will be confronted with ethical issues at every step of the research. In this regard, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003:56) state that the term ethics refers to questions of right and wrong. On the whole, it can be inferred that, to a large extent, ethics is a matter of agreement among the researchers. In this study, the research ethics were observed in terms of seeking clearance from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University's Research Ethics Committee.

Additionally, the covering letter bearing the signatures of the coordinators and the researcher was provided, specifying the participants' privacy, together with the anonymity and confidentiality of the data collected. That is, the respondents were assured that any data collected from or about them will be held in confidence (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003:59).

7.15 SUMMARY

In conclusion, this chapter presented the methodology used to conduct the study. Furthermore, the chapter outlined the sampling procedure, presented the research instrument design and described how the questionnaire was designed and administered to the participants. Also highlighted were the reliability and validity of the measuring techniques. In addition, the chapter went on to define the descriptive statistics, factor analysis and regression analysis methods which were utilised to analyze the data captured in this study. Finally, the research ethics were also outlined in this chapter. However, it should be noted that a well-defined analysis of the data collected is found in Chapter 8 of this study.

CHAPTER EIGHT

EMPIRICAL RESULTS OF MANAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN THE ORGANISATION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

An outline of research design and methodology used in this study was discussed in Chapter 7. This chapter discusses the empirical results of the study of management perceptions towards corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour. The results of the reliability and validity assessment of measuring instruments used to measure each variable are presented in this chapter. The empirical testing of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables of the study is also presented in this chapter.

8.2. HYPOTHESES AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main focus of this study is to empirically examine the perceptions of management regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. The following variables are subject to empirical evaluation and analysis:

- Internal organisational factors: Workforce-oriented, Philanthropic, Stakeholder consultation, Ethics, and Market-oriented;
- External organisational factors: Economic, Government/legal, Technology, Environmental concerns, and Social;
- Personal factors: Values, Personality, Commitment, Sensitivity and Personal importance; as well as
- the impact of CC behaviour on organisational sustainability, organisational competitiveness, organisational image, and organisational performance.

The hypotheses are stated again for the rationale of the study, as follows:

H0₁: Internal organisational factors as measured by workforce-oriented, philanthropic, stakeholder consultation, ethics and market-orientation do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₂: External organisational factors as measured by economic, technology, legal and government, social, and environmental concerns do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₃: Personal factors as measured by individual values, commitment, sensitivity, personality and personal importance do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₄: CC behaviour does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

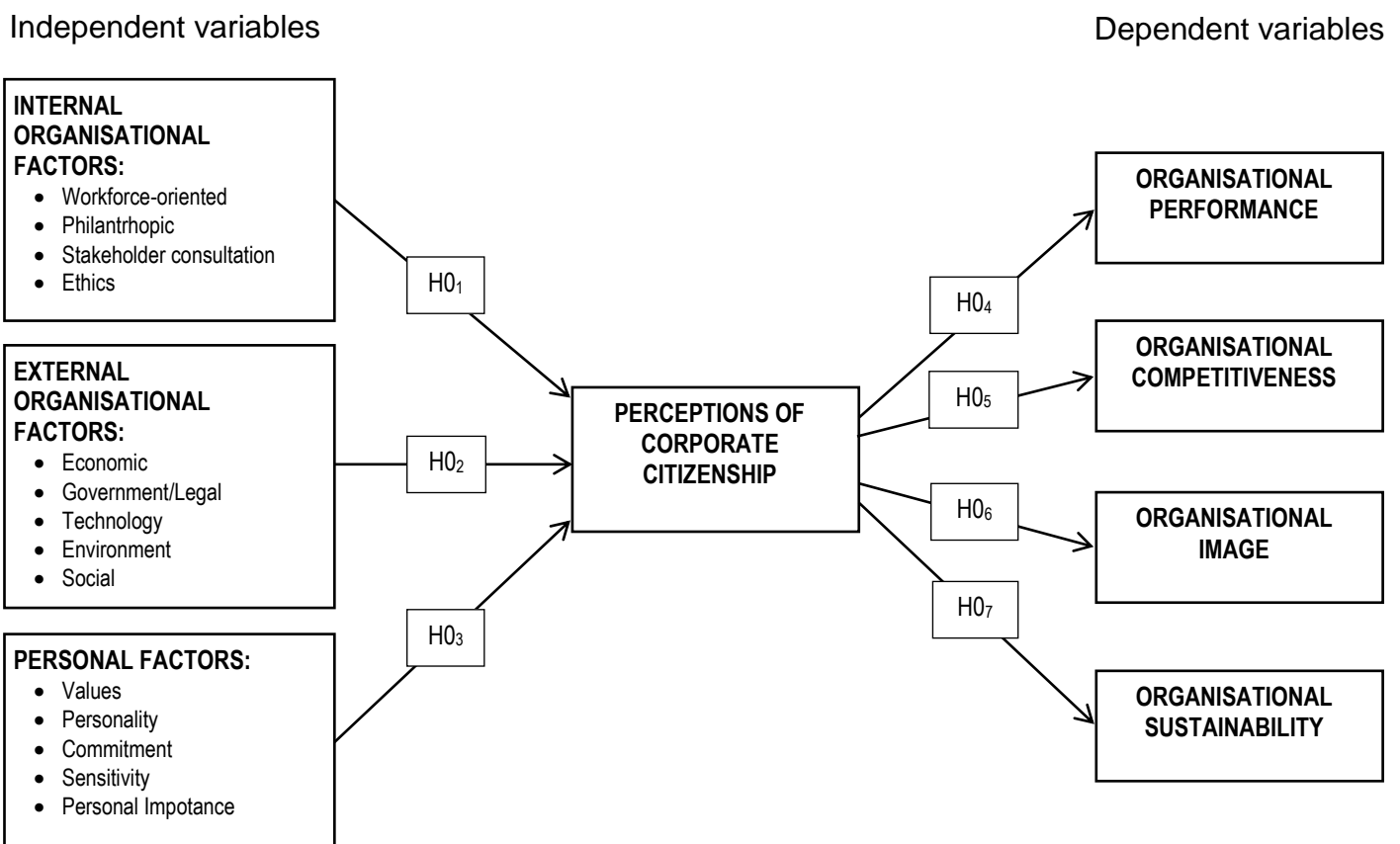
H0₅: CC behaviour does not influence organisational competitiveness in Zimbabwe.

H0₆: CC behaviour does not influence organisational image in Zimbabwe.

H0₇: CC behaviour does not influence sustainability in Zimbabwe.

The empirically tested hypotheses are illustrated in Figure 8.1 below.

Figure 8.1 Theoretical model of corporate citizenship behaviour



Source: Own construction

Table 8.1 illustrates the abbreviations of the dimensions of independent variables and dependent variables of the study.

Table 8.1: Abbreviations of the dimensions of the variables of the study.

VARIABLE	ABBREVIATION
INTERNAL ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS:	
Workforce–orientation	WO
Philanthropic	PHIL
Stakeholder Consultation	SC
Ethics	ETH
Market–orientation	MO
EXTERNAL ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS:	
Economic	EC
Technology	TEC
Environment	ENV
Social	SO
PERSONAL FACTORS:	
Values	VAL
Personality	PERS
Commitment	COMT
Sensitivity	SENS
Personal Importance	PI
INTERMEDIATE VARIABLE	
Corporate Citizenship	CC
OUTCOMES	
Organisational performance	OP
Organisational competitiveness	OC
Organisational image	OI
Organisational sustainability	OS

8.3 DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:31); Diamantopoulos and Sclegelmilch (2006:24) and Saunders *et al.*, (2009:273), a measuring instrument is sound when it is valid and reliable.

The data evaluation consists of the following phases:

- The first data evaluation phase is the descriptive statistics and discriminant validity which was determined by means of a factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the degree to which a construct is not associated with other constructs on a theoretical basis. The STATISTICA (version 12) computer program was used to conduct two sets of exploratory factor analyses.
- The second data evaluation phase entails the analysis of the reliability of measuring instruments. The Cronbach alpha values were calculated to measure the internal consistency of the instruments used in the study. This analysis was performed through the use of a computer program called STATISTICA (version 12).
- The third data evaluation phase necessitates the performance of multiple regression analysis to determine the effect of independent variables on the dependent variables as indicated in the theoretical model.
- The final data evaluation phase concentrates on the analysis of the hypothesized relationships.

8.3.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics present an uncomplicated outline of the sample in relation to the observations that have been made and deal with the presentation of numerical facts and with the methodology of analysing the data (Kaushik & Mathur, 2014:1118). These summaries may also form the basis of the preliminary description of the data as part of a more extensive statistical analysis, or they may be sufficient in and of themselves for a particular investigation (Kaushik & Mathur, 2014:1118). Descriptive statistical results are presented and briefly discussed in Table 8.2 below.

Table 8.2: Descriptive statistics for each variable: general sample response per category

VARIABLE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Internal factors (WO, PHIL, SC,ETH, MO)	5.21	0.98
External factors (EC, TEC, ENV,SO)	4.13	1.19
Personal factors (VAL, PERS, COMT, SENS, PI)	5.60	0.84
Corporate Citizenship (CC)	5.76	1.11
Organisational sustainability (OS)	5.91	1.00
Organisational performance (OP)	5.81	0.98

Table 8.2 highlights the descriptive statistics of each variable that was measured on a seven point Likert scale. In addition, options 5, 6 and 7 on the scale represented an agreed statement which the respondents would choose. Options 1, 2 and 3 represented the level of disagreement and scale 4 indicated neutrality.

Table 8.2 indicates that most respondents regard internal organisational factors as measured by work-oriented, philanthropic, stakeholder consultation, ethics and market-orientation (mean score = 5.21) are important for improving the corporate citizenship behaviour of an organisation. The respondents feel that, to some extent, the external organisational factors as measured by economic, government and legal aspects, technology, social and environmental concerns (mean score = 4.13) are important organisational responsibilities in order to improve corporate citizenship behaviour. Thus, it is important for organisations to participate in the improvement of the standard of living in the society. Table 8.2 reveals that personal factors as measured by personal values, personality, commitment, sensitivity and personal importance (mean score = 5.60) are important characteristics for employees to promote and create an enabling environment for corporate citizenship behaviour. Table 8.2 further reveals that respondents' corporate citizenship behaviour (mean score = 5.76) significantly promotes organisational sustainability (mean score 5.91) and organisational performance (mean score = 5.81).

It is therefore important for organisations to continuously promote employee commitment towards CC and support CC engagement interventions and to have CC strategic and operational plans in place.

8.3.2 Validity of the Measuring Instruments

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:92) and Cooper and Schindler (2006:318), validity refers to an empirical measure which adequately echoes the actual meaning of the concept under consideration. In other words, validity illustrates and give assurance of the authenticity of the results of a test as interpreted for a specific purpose (Cook & Beckhan, 2006:3). Validity calls for an evidentiary sequence which, without any doubt, links the interpretation of scores to a network of theory, hypotheses, and logic, which are obtainable to maintain or prove false the rationality of the desired interpretations (Downing, 2003:37, 830). Validity has conventionally been separated into three (3) distinct types, namely, content, criterion, and construct validity (Cook & Beckhan, 2006:4).

Construct validity has by tradition been defined as the experimental manifestation that a test is measuring the construct it purports to measure (Zheng & De Jong, 2011:2). Construct validity has three components: convergent, discriminant and nomological validity (Zaiț & Berteau, 2011:218).

Discriminant Validity is another term often regarded as interchangeable with divergent validity (Grover, Naugle & Zeff, 2005:282). Discriminant validity presupposes that the items should correlate higher among them than they correlate with other items from other constructs that are hypothetically not supposed to correlate. Discriminant validity means that a latent variable is able to account for more variance in the observed variables associated with it than measurement error or similar external, unmeasured influences; or other constructs within the conceptual framework (Norman & Streiner, 2003:148). For the purpose of the study, discriminant validity was gauged to test whether related measurements are in fact related by using factor analysis to establish and determine the quality of underlying dimensions between measured variables.

In this study a cut-off point of three (3) items loading in a factor was considered suitable for further statistical analysis. Furthermore, a loading of 0.5 and above was considered significant to confirm discriminant validity in this study.

8.3.2.1 Factor analysis

The central rationale of factor analysis is to go over the main points of data, so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood (Young & Pearce, 2013:79). Factor analysis can be used mostly for data reduction purposes to get a small set of variables, if at all possible, uncorrelated from a large set of variables, most of which are correlated to each other and to create indexes with variables that measure similar things (Toress-Rena, 2012:2). In other words, to regroup variables into a narrow set of clusters based on shared variance (Young & Pearce, 2013:79). Hence, it helps to isolate constructs and concepts.

However, one of its principal functions is to be of assistance to an investigator in shaping how many latent variables underlie a set of items so that procedures such as computing Cronbach's alpha can be executed accurately (Bartholomew, Knotts & Moustaki, 2011:417). Factor analysis can be used to investigate the data for patterns, authenticate hypotheses, or condense the many variables to a more manageable figure (Garson, 2010:177, Pett, Lackey & Sullivan, 2003:245, Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:17). Factor analysis is described as a cyclical procedure of persistently refining and comparing solutions until the most meaningful solution is achieved (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:17).

Factor analytic procedures are statistical methods used for examining the relationships within a group of observed variables, as calculated through questions or items (Beavers, Lounsbury, Richards, Huck, Skolits & Esquivel, 2013:1). It is of paramount importance to note that factor analysis is not a singular statistical method but, to a certain extent, a group of statistical analyses that share a similar methodology and functionality (Beavers *et al.* 2013:1). Interpretation of the factor also entails that each factor be adequately identified.

This means that a factor holds up at least three to five items with considerable loadings in order to be considered a secure and solid factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005:1). More importantly, the items and the factors should make sense conceptually. The first set of exploratory analysis involved perceptions of management towards internal organisational factors (IOF), external organisational factors (EOF) and personal factors (PF).

a) Perceptions of management and employees towards internal and external organisational factors and personal factors

The first exploratory factor analysis results shown in Table 8.3 reveal that the respondents did not perceive 'internal organisational factors' dimensions ('workforce-oriented' philanthropic', 'stakeholder consultation', 'ethics', and 'market-oriented') as a single construct. Three of the five items (PHIL3, PHIL4, PHIL 5) expected to measure 'philanthropic', and two of the five items (ETH1, ETH3) expected to measure 'ethics', three of the five items (VAL1, VAL2, VAL3) expected to measure 'personal factors' dimension 'values', five of the fifteen items expected to measure dimensions of the 'external factors' namely, 'social' (SO1, SO2), 'economic' (EC2, EC3) and 'government and legal' activities (GL4) as well as one of the five items (COMT5) expected to measure 'personal factors' dimension 'commitment' loaded onto factor one (1). This means that respondents view these items as a single renamed construct termed 'organisational social responsibility' with its attributes being 'values', 'philanthropic', 'ethics' and social-oriented issues'.

Table 8.3 indicates that respondents perceived 'personal factors' as a two-pronged variable. This means that respondents viewed 'personal factors' as consisting of a dimension related to 'personal importance' on one hand and 'personal characteristics' on the other. Three of the five items (PI1, PI4, PI5) expected to measure a 'personal factor' dimension which is termed personal factor related to 'personal importance' loaded onto factor two (2).

Table 8.3 further indicates that four (SEN1, SEN2, SEN3, SEN4) of the five items expected to measure 'sensitivity', all five (PERS1, PERS2, PERS3, PERS4, PERS5) items expected to measure 'personality', four of five (COMPT1, COMPT2, COMPT3, COMPT4) items expected to measure 'commitment' as well as one (PI 2) of five items expected to measure 'personal importance' loaded onto factor three (3); these are termed personal factors related to 'personal characteristics'.

Table 8.3 indicates that all five (ENV1, ENV2, ENV3, ENV4, ENV5) items that were expected to measure 'environmental concerns' as a dimension of 'external factors' loaded onto factor four (4). This means that respondents perceived these items as a new single construct termed 'environmental involvement'. Table 8.3 shows that one item (TEC 5) expected to measure 'technology' as a dimension of 'external factors' cross loaded, therefore it is not considered for further analysis.

Table 8.3 indicates that twelve of twenty two items expected to measure dimensions of 'internal organisational factors' namely: all items (MO1, MO2, MO3, MO4, MO5, MO6, MO7) items expected to measure 'market-orientation', two (WO3, WO4) of the five items expected to measure 'work-oriented', two (SC2, SC3) of the five items expected to measure 'stakeholder consultation', as well as one (ETH5) of the five items expected to measure 'ethics' loaded onto factor five (5).

Table 8.4 also indicates that eight of the twenty items expected to measure dimensions of 'external factors' namely: three (TEC1, TEC2, TEC3) of the five items expected to measure 'technology', two (GL3, GL5) of the five items expected to measure 'government and legal activities' and two (SO3, SO4) of the five items expected to measure 'social' and external factors' as well as one (EC4) also loaded onto factor five (5). These internal and external organisational factors' items are perceived by respondents as a single new construct termed 'market-orientation'.

Table 8.3 indicates that twenty items, which were regarded as measures of the internal organisational factors' dimensions of 'work-orientation, philanthropic, stakeholder consultation and ethics' (WO1, WO2, WO5, PHIL1, PHIL2, SC1, SC4, SC5, ETH2, ETH4) and measures of external organisational factors' dimensions of 'technology, government and legal activities, economic, and social' (TEC4, GL1, GL2, EC1, EC5, SO5) as well as measures of personal factors' dimensions of 'personal importance, values and sensitivity' (PI3, VAL4, VAL5, SEN5), did not load to any significant extent ($p < 0.05$), leading to the deletion of these items.

Table 8.3: Factor loadings: perceptions of management and employees towards internal and external organisational factors and personal factors

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
	Organisational social responsibility	Personal Importance (1)	Personal Characteristics (2)	Environmental involvement	Market-oriented
VAL2	0.719076	0.032493	0.230853	0.131249	0.32160
VAL1	0.613289	0.005563	0.228109	0.181483	0.37062
ETH3	0.612794	0.015510	0.159340	0.255869	0.38051
ETH1	0.609313	-0.022824	0.107189	0.258874	0.38489
Phil4	0.593613	0.071566	0.018416	0.327860	0.33627
Phil5	0.584254	0.019065	-0.053424	0.285778	0.32203
SO2	0.579399	0.019240	0.041031	0.375682	0.31570
EC2	0.575046	0.222392	0.172593	0.256122	0.08707
GL4	0.567024	0.090903	0.188552	0.340759	0.24198
Phil3	0.563503	0.091138	-0.088513	0.386309	0.22679
COMT5	0.559741	0.079696	0.374025	0.302853	0.27604
VAL3	0.541591	0.039206	0.434333	0.008622	0.17237
EC3	0.527989	0.178591	0.083128	0.374511	0.24982
SO1	0.520235	0.018237	0.120364	0.401122	0.16032
PI5	0.064363	0.757238	0.092436	0.106335	-0.11379
PI4	-0.019203	0.748658	0.114884	0.055711	-0.11105
PI1	0.093972	0.716701	0.035651	-0.014777	-0.10304
SEN4	0.080230	0.119830	0.705233	0.207264	0.08419
SEN1	0.122623	0.075767	0.684777	0.158375	0.14062
PERS2	-0.059883	-0.261388	0.676339	0.055813	0.27997
PERS3	0.049970	0.128397	0.671390	0.105818	0.03310
COMT2	0.256149	0.126581	0.669292	-0.004465	0.06743
COMT4	0.282107	0.095187	0.657319	0.140693	0.18332
SEN2	0.182015	0.087578	0.646783	0.298963	0.18586
PERS5	0.079582	0.116199	0.624120	0.100804	0.14502

PERS1	0.103094	-0.224534	0.618873	0.028610	0.29563
PERS4	0.076922	0.267288	0.606924	0.099832	-0.11930
SEN3	0.064529	-0.050103	0.577256	0.208676	0.16668
COMT1	0.277854	0.281054	0.531364	-0.128212	-0.11399
PI2	-0.039922	0.083065	0.521177	0.193358	0.30150
COMT3	0.240304	-0.173079	0.507753	0.173025	0.41173
ENV3	0.172097	0.014546	0.153232	0.832507	0.20557
ENV2	0.266183	0.021468	0.173739	0.791745	0.21746
ENV1	0.232103	0.010665	0.133698	0.772724	0.26200
ENV5	0.266576	0.084038	0.135699	0.755391	0.20319
ENV4	0.203526	0.082234	0.079847	0.703830	0.29371
TEC5	0.025914	0.064123	0.190282	0.537576	0.52312
MO3	0.130935	-0.101453	0.101553	0.150964	0.74497
MO2	0.166266	-0.114420	0.206603	0.154383	0.74363
SC3	0.214715	-0.065423	0.076949	0.193788	0.73002
MO1	0.248350	-0.090450	0.163738	0.125461	0.71926
MO4	0.088532	-0.085142	0.108591	0.235682	0.70141
SC2	0.244797	-0.052588	0.031069	0.168402	0.70138
MO7	0.182743	-0.109044	0.075494	0.170134	0.66217
MO6	0.226183	-0.105925	0.086089	0.184643	0.65264
TEC3	0.082030	0.237178	0.182128	0.271085	0.63401
ETH5	0.348946	-0.059138	0.215698	0.165107	0.62074
TEC1	0.133429	0.180315	0.227851	0.263980	0.61414
WO3	0.347768	-0.161981	0.161231	0.152102	0.54566
WO4	0.267017	0.099330	0.018115	0.117453	0.54237
GL3	0.246114	-0.105231	0.179895	0.300753	0.53655
SO4	0.263231	-0.095248	0.094440	0.328506	0.53531
TEC2	0.131784	0.243647	0.079060	0.158646	0.51726
SO3	0.249007	-0.157472	0.181482	0.340616	0.51459
GL5	0.152897	-0.088423	0.318072	0.368008	0.51286
EC4	0.190895	-0.012785	0.107739	0.336293	0.50163
MO5	0.388348	0.070637	0.184217	0.241255	0.50083
WO2	0.381856	-0.204603	0.177067	0.231682	0.49716
ETH4	0.028775	0.013022	0.186492	-0.012699	0.49021
Phil2	0.435873	0.064070	0.006792	0.220386	0.49004
TEC4	0.296771	0.221033	0.111225	0.352544	0.47828
SC4	0.470580	0.042850	0.049841	0.281759	0.47784
ETH2	0.346716	0.103669	0.106223	0.204981	0.47544
SC1	0.414897	0.040993	-0.006514	0.268833	0.47239
WO5	0.420707	0.068727	0.111854	0.020954	0.40129
WO1	0.499969	0.060205	0.067437	0.067875	0.33136
Phil1	0.422384	-0.031889	0.013926	0.290179	0.32129

GL1	0.160336	0.390119	0.084752	0.104035	0.30082
EC5	0.301941	0.420688	0.057233	0.124868	0.27442
EC1	0.467547	0.164612	0.216567	0.382790	0.23127
PI3	-0.149319	0.339596	0.473935	0.122530	0.19986
VAL5	0.459317	0.115223	0.372103	0.159476	0.19513
SEN5	0.014280	0.178907	0.474364	0.239896	0.13431
SO5	0.485136	0.231805	0.016508	0.337937	0.03507
SC5	0.496006	0.412862	0.089560	0.208798	-0.01113
GL2	0.396770	0.490599	0.093257	0.026250	-0.16809
VAL4	0.398605	0.466762	0.215435	-0.032177	-0.24677
Expl.Var	9.419290	3.804371	7.499648	6.903878	12.40892
Prp.Totl	0.122328	0.049407	0.097398	0.089661	0.16115

Loadings greater than 0.5 were considered significant.

The last set of exploratory factor analysis involved perceptions of management towards corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour and the outcomes of CC on organisational performance (OP), organisational sustainability (OS), organisational competitiveness (OC) and organisational image (OI).

(b) Management and employees' perceptions of corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour and outcomes of CC

Table 8.4 indicates that all seven items (OS1, OS2, OS3, OS4, OS5, OS6, OS7) expected to measure 'organisational sustainability', as well as two of the five items that are expected to measure 'organisational image' (OI4, OI5) loaded on factor one (1) and were regarded as a measure of 'organisational sustainability'. Table 8.4 further indicates that respondents did not perceive 'corporate citizenship' as a single construct but as a two-dimensional construct. This means that respondents view 'corporate citizenship' as consisting of a dimension related to 'strategic plan' on the one hand and 'corporate citizenship' related to 'operational plan' on the other. According to Table 8.4, nine (CC1, CC2, CC4, CC5, CC6, CC7, CC8, CC9, CC10) of the sixteen items expected to measure 'corporate citizenship' loaded on factor two (2) and were termed 'corporate citizenship related to strategic planning (CC1).'

Six items (CC11, CC12, CC13, CC14, CC15, CC16) loaded on factor three (3), as expected, and are termed 'corporate citizenship related to operational planning (CC2)'. Table 8.4 also indicates that all six items (OP1, OP2, OP3, OP4, OP5, OP6) expected to measure 'organisational performance' and all five items (OC1, OC2, OC3, OC4, OC5) expected to measure 'organisational competitiveness' as well as three of the five items (OI1, OI2, OI3) expected to measure 'organisational image' loaded on factor four (4) and were termed 'organisational performance'. Only one item (CC3) expected to measure 'corporate citizenship' did not load and was thus considered unacceptable for further analysis. In other words, this item did not demonstrate sufficient discriminant validity. All the items that loaded onto factor 5 were deleted due to the lack of sufficient validity for further analysis.

Table 8.4: Factor loadings: Corporate citizenship behaviour and outcomes

	Factor (1)	Factor (2)	Factor (3)	Factor (4)	Factor (5)
	Organisational sustainability	Corporate citizenship – strategic planning CC(1)	Corporate Citizenship – operational planning CC(2)	Organisational performance	N/A
OS5	0.805564	0.206927	0.107302	0.257056	-0.032006
OS4	0.776929	0.141397	0.144994	0.290013	-0.095478
OS2	0.767260	0.129507	0.143375	0.375261	0.155249
OS1	0.757309	0.216322	0.143351	0.336508	0.006231
OS7	0.747188	0.136255	0.147381	0.261252	0.105647
OI4	0.726672	0.179775	0.151673	0.363797	0.168856
OS6	0.712709	0.200448	0.180641	0.264423	-0.087892
OS3	0.711140	0.128186	0.190460	0.385883	0.092475
OI5	0.686391	0.189807	0.142686	0.411906	0.152447
CC5	0.202123	0.728699	0.204625	0.159402	0.263391
CC7	0.200176	0.727348	0.122144	0.182829	-0.096150
CC9	0.192421	0.699405	0.298649	0.233472	-0.150909
CC8	0.192027	0.668636	0.342609	0.202849	-0.035345
CC6	0.182074	0.650095	0.185001	0.308560	0.044816
CC4	0.278860	0.647644	0.242735	0.129726	0.272952
CC2	0.208758	0.582223	0.292905	0.216258	0.455353
CC10	0.171149	0.563265	0.279155	0.293986	-0.108341
CC1	0.164672	0.539617	0.366748	0.147768	0.455518
CC16	0.133699	0.141225	0.823046	0.201919	0.133497

CC15	0.164068	0.168557	0.774541	0.247909	0.179818
CC11	0.176034	0.294616	0.745167	0.149312	0.075819
CC14	0.139628	0.214071	0.728162	0.221576	-0.061344
CC13	0.246580	0.286741	0.671823	0.166483	-0.114367
CC12	0.181680	0.339813	0.659486	0.255752	-0.013701
OP6	0.383508	0.135873	0.118842	0.705971	-0.114386
OC2	0.310785	0.177930	0.111983	0.691288	-0.009515
OC1	0.357947	0.175106	0.137028	0.690904	0.084522
OP3	0.295935	0.283009	0.229664	0.684743	-0.167844
OP2	0.272341	0.312018	0.252228	0.678678	-0.137736
OI2	0.393505	0.121093	0.223135	0.672595	0.222858
OP5	0.405263	0.167089	0.212744	0.666132	-0.042334
OC3	0.393185	0.161876	0.180921	0.665788	0.248784
OI1	0.415070	0.175792	0.178419	0.653208	0.342596
OP1	0.283087	0.305123	0.307584	0.646558	-0.050716
OI3	0.381190	0.136498	0.215103	0.645580	0.318616
OC5	0.390281	0.111663	0.221308	0.639044	0.205914
OP4	0.382818	0.206004	0.243313	0.632960	-0.149672
OC4	0.366849	0.165027	0.202917	0.612401	0.249764
CC3	-0.054565	0.176396	0.156883	0.142054	0.087493
Expl.Var	7.382089	5.017268	4.747710	7.869855	1.329254
Prp.Totl	0.189284	0.128648	0.121736	0.201791	0.034083

Loadings greater than 0.5 were considered significant.

Table 8.3 indicates that as a result of the comprehensive exploratory factor analysis, the dependent variable 'personal factors' split into two separate variables, namely, 'personal factors related to personal importance (PF1)' and 'personal factors related to personal characteristics (PF2)'. Also, the intervening variable 'corporate citizenship' split into two variables, namely, 'corporate citizenship related to strategic planning (CC1)' and 'corporate citizenship related to operational planning (CC2)'. It can be concluded that respondents did not perceive items expected to measure 'organisational competitiveness' and organisational image' as measures of such variables as indicated.

Table 8.4 shows that all items expected to measure these variables are not valid enough for the respondents to interpret 'organisational competitiveness' and 'organisational image' as expected, hence, these items were interpreted by respondents as measures of 'organisational sustainability' and 'organisational performance'. This means that the reliability of the new and adapted variables had to be re-evaluated.

8.3.3 Reliability of the measuring instruments

According to Struwig & Stead (2001:130), reliability refers to a meticulous technique, applied repetitively to the same object which is able to produce the same results each time when applied. The instrument is concerned with the reliability of the measurement to constantly produce results which are consistent (Daimantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 2006:34, Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:93). Similarly, internal uniformity provides an approximation of the sameness of sets of items from a similar test (DeVellis, 2006:44). It is believed that the coefficient of internal reliability gives an approximation of the dependability of measurement and it is assumed that items measuring the same construct are expected to correlate (DeVellis, 2006:44).

Coefficients at or above 0.80 are often measured to be satisfactorily dependable to make decisions about individuals based on their observed scores, although a higher value, conceivably 0.90, is preferred if the decisions have significant costs (Webb, Shavelson & Haertel, 2006:1). The most widely used method for estimating internal consistency reliability is Cronbach's alpha to establish a measuring instrument's reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2007:164). According to Eislene *et al.*, (2005:114), the closer the alpha value is to 1, the better the internal consistency (reliability) of the scale. The internal consistency of each of the factors was assessed by calculating Cronbach's alpha and the value >0.8 was considered to represent a sufficient standard of reliability in this study.

Table 8.5 indicates that the Cronbach's alpha values obtained in this study were all above the cut-off point of 0.8 except for the Organisational image (OI) and Organisational Competitiveness (OC) variables which were regarded as inadequate for further analysis and were subsequently deleted from the empirical model.

Table 8.5: Cronbach's alpha values of measuring instruments: Theoretical model

Measuring instrument	Initial value	Final value
Internal organisational factors (IOF)	0.96	0.96
External organisational factors (EOF)	0.80	0.80
Personal factors (PF)	0.88	0.88
Corporate Citizenship related to operational plan (CC1)	0.90	0.90
Corporate Citizenship related to strategic plan (CC2)	0.91	0.91
Organisational sustainability (OS)	0.94	0.94
Organisational performance (OP)	0.96	0.96
Organisational competitiveness (OC)	Did not load	Deleted
Organisational image (OI)	Did not load	Deleted

Source: Author's calculations

8.3.3.1 Cronbach's alpha values of latent variables based on the results of factor analysis: Theoretical model

The original theoretical model had to be adapted as a result of the discriminant validity valuation with the exploratory factor analysis, thus, some items were deleted and new variants were formed. Table 8.6 summarizes the items which are regarded as measures of individual variables in the theoretical model following the exploratory factor analyses. The study retains OR, PI (1), PI (2), EI, MO, CC (1), CC (2), OS and OP since their Cronbach's alphas were above the cut-off point. Table 8.6 indicates that all Cronbach's reliability coefficients are above 0.80 which indicates that all instruments have fair reliability (Webb *et al.* 2006:1) and is regarded as acceptable for the purpose of this study.

Additionally, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of greater than 0.8 is used to indicate a factor as reliable (Suhr & Shay, 2009: 3). These results are summarized in Table 8.6 by means of an empirical factor structure used for regression analysis.

Table 8.6: Factor loadings: Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the latent variables based on the comprehensive exploratory factor analysis

LATENT VARIABLE	ITEMS	A
Organisational social responsibility (OR)	PHIL3, PHIL4, PHIL5, ETH1, ETH3, VAL1, VAL2, VAL3, SO1, SO2, EC2, EC3, GL4, COMPT5	0.93
Personal factors - personal importance (PI1)	PI 1, PI 4, PI 5,	0.82
Personal factors – personal characteristics (PI2)	SEN1, SEN2, SEN3, SEN4, PERS1, PERS2, PERS3, PERS4, PERS5, COMT1, COMT2, COMT3, COMT4, PI 2	0.90
Environmental involvement (EI)	ENV1, ENV2, ENV3, ENV4, ENV5	0.93
Market-oriented (MO)	MO1, MO2, MO3, MO4, MO5, MO6, MO7, WO3, WO4, SC2, SC3, ETH5, TEC1, TEC2, TEC3, GL3, GL5, SO3, SO4, EC4	0.95
Corporate citizenship-strategic planning (CC1)	CC1, CC2, CC4, CC5, CC6, CC7, CC8, CC9, CC10	0.91
Corporate citizenship-operational planning (CC2)	CC11, CC12, CC13, CC14, CC15, CC16	0.90
Organisational sustainability (OS)	OS1, OS2, OS3, OS4, OS5, OS6, OS7, OI4, OI5	0.95
Organisational performance (OP)	OP1, OP2, OP3, OP4, OP5, OP6, OC1, OC2, OC3, OC4, OC5, OI1, OI2, OI3	0.96

Following the reliability and validity assessment, five independent variables: organisational social responsibility (OR), personal factors related to personal importance (PF1), personal factors related to personal characteristics (PF2), environmental involvement (EI), market oriented (MO), two intervening variables (corporate citizenship related to strategic planning (CC1), corporate citizenship related to operational planning (CC2) and two dependent variables (organisational sustainability (OS) and organisational performance (OP) remained in the empirical model.

The latent variables, and the individual items measuring them, are summarized in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Empirical Factor structure for regression analysis for latent variables

LATENT VARIABLE	ITEMS
Organisational social responsibility (OSR)	PHIL3, PHIL4, PHIL5, ETH1, ETH3, VAL1, VAL2, VAL3, SO1, SO2, EC2, EC3, GL4, COMPT5
Personal factors - personal importance (PI1)	PI 1, PI 4, PI 5,
Personal factors - personal characteristics (PI2)	SEN1, SEN2, SEN3, SEN4, PERS1, PERS2, PERS3, PERS4, PERS5, COMT1, COMT2, COMT3, COMT4, PI 2
Environmental involvement (EI)	ENV1, ENV2, ENV3, ENV4, ENV5
Market-oriented (MO)	MO1, MO2, MO3, MO4, MO5, MO6, MO7, WO3, WO4, SC2, SC3, ETH5, TEC1, TEC2, TEC3, GL3, GL5, SO3, SO4, EC4
Corporate citizenship-strategic planning (CC1)	CC1, CC2, CC4, CC5, CC6, CC7, CC8, CC9, CC10
Corporate citizenship-operational planning (CC2)	CC11, CC12, CC13, CC14, CC15, CC16
Organisational sustainability (OS)	OS1, OS2, OS3, OS4, OS5, OS6, OS7, OI4, OI5
Organisational performance (OP)	OP1, OP2, OP3, OP4, OP5, OP6, OC1, OC2, OC3, OC4, OC5, OI1, OI2, OI3

As a result of the scale purification process, the original model (Figure 8.1) had to be substantially modified. Figure 8.2 (a) and Figure 8.2 (b) show the adapted model.

Figure 8.2a: The adapted model of the relationships among variables based on perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning (CC1)

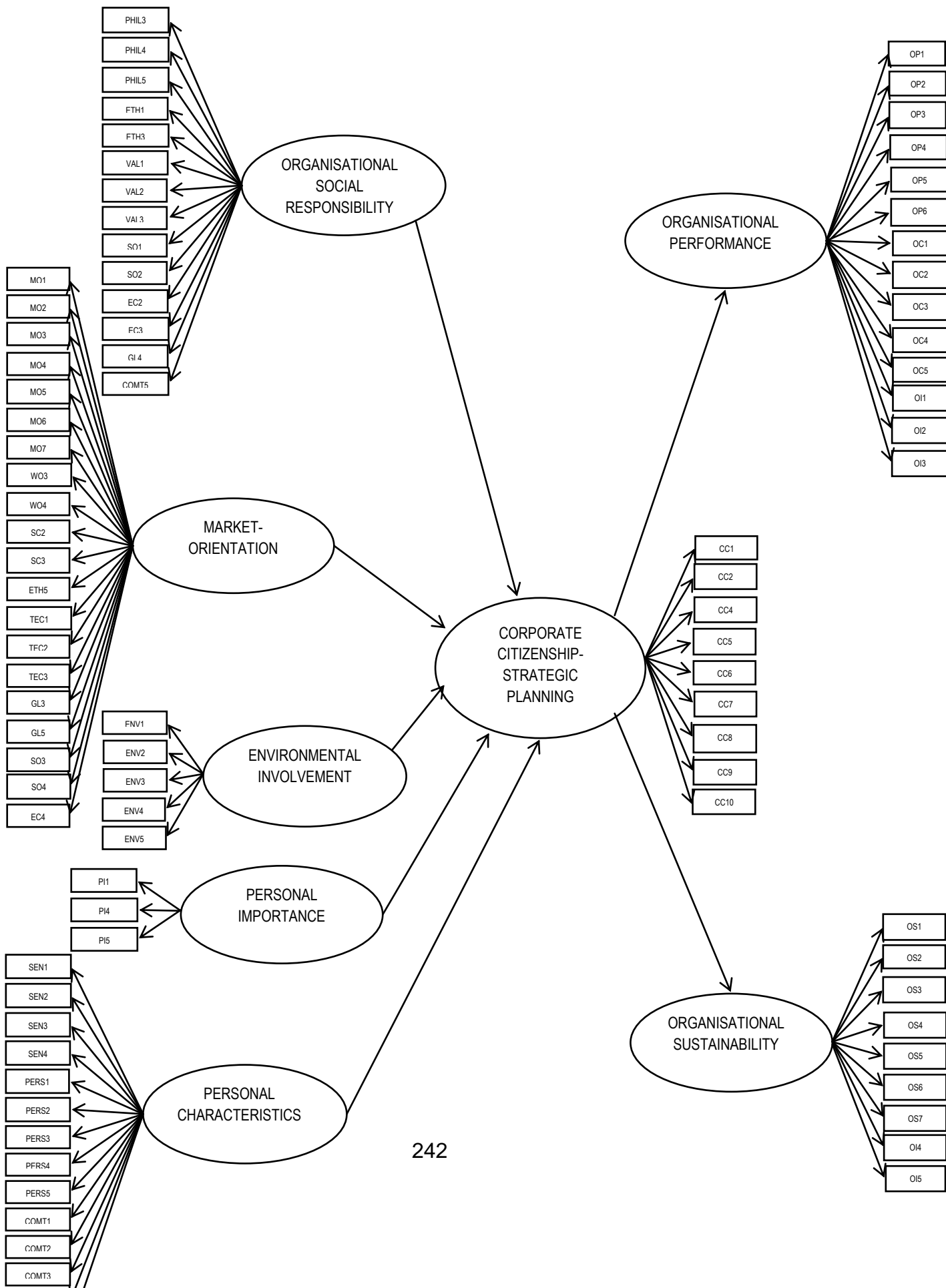
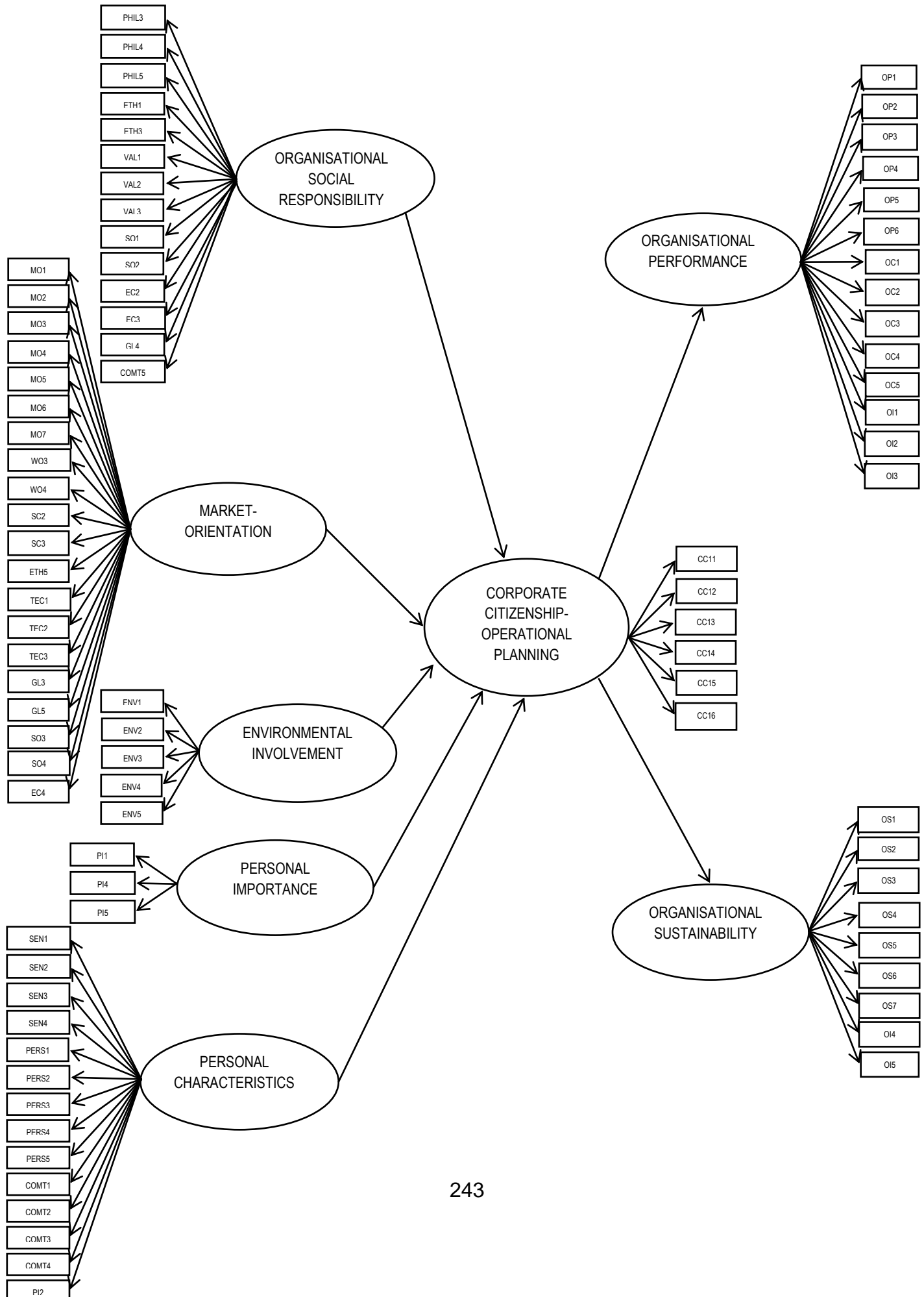


Figure 8.2b: The adapted model of the relationships among variables based on perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning (CC2)



The hypotheses tested had to be reformulated as a result of the formulation of the adapted model. The first set of hypotheses regarding perceptions of CC behaviour related to strategic planning were subjected to empirical verification (Figure 8.2 (a):

H0₁: Internal organisational factors as measured by workforce-orientation, philanthropic, stakeholder consultation, ethics and market-orientation do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe

H0₁ is modified into H0_{1.1} and H0_{1.2}:

H0_{1.1}: Organisational social responsibility does not influence CC behaviour related to strategic planning in Zimbabwe

H0_{1.2}: Market-orientation does not influence CC behaviour related to strategic planning in Zimbabwe

H0₂: External organisational factors as measured by economic, technological, legal and governmental, social, and environmental concerns do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₂ is modified into H0_{2.1}:

H0_{2.1}: Environmental involvement does not influence CC behaviour related to strategic planning in Zimbabwe

H0₃: Personal factors as measured by individual values, commitment, sensitivity and personal importance do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₃ is modified into H0_{3.1} and H0_{3.2}:

H0_{3.1}: Personal factors related to personal importance do not influence CC behaviour regarding strategic planning in Zimbabwe.

H0_{3.2}: Personal factors related to personal characteristics do not influence CC behaviour regarding strategic planning in Zimbabwe.

H0₄: CC behaviour does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

H0₄ is modified into H0_{4.1}:

H0_{4.1}: CC behaviour related to strategic planning does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

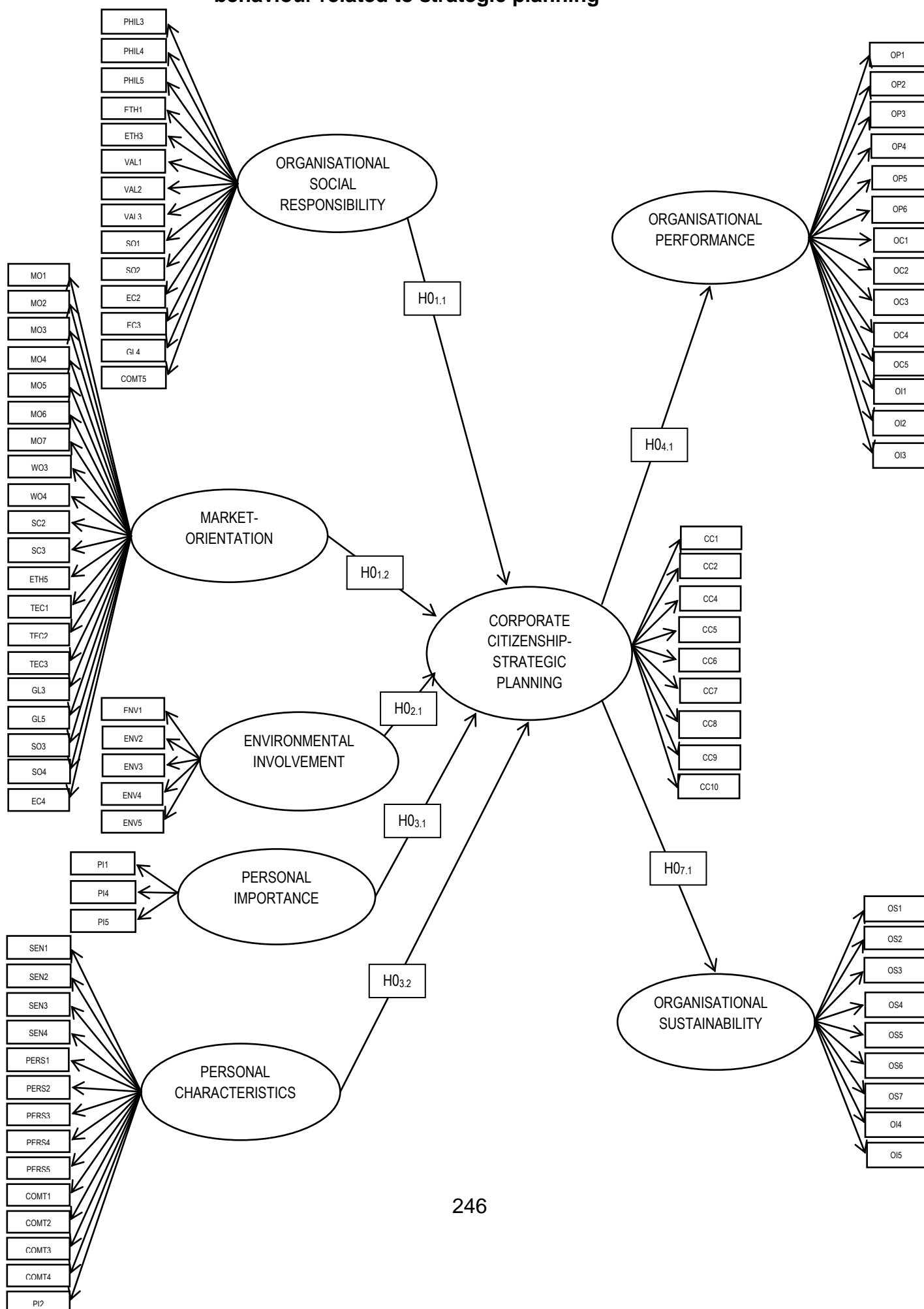
H0₇: CC behaviour does not influence organisational sustainability in Zimbabwe.

H0₇ is modified into H0_{7.1}:

H0_{7.1}: CC behaviour related to strategic planning does not influence organisational sustainability in Zimbabwe.

Figure 8.3a: The hypothesized model of perceptions regarding corporate citizenship

behaviour related to strategic planning



The second set of hypotheses regarding CC behaviour related to operational planning was subjected to empirical verification (Figure 8.2 (b)):

H0₁: Internal organisational factors as measured by workforce-orientation, philanthropic, stakeholder consultation, ethics and market-orientation do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe

H0₁ is modified into H0_{8.1} and H0_{8.2}:

H0_{8.1}: Organisational social responsibility does not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe

H0_{8.2}: Market-orientation does not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe

H0₂: External organisational factors as measured by economic, technological, legal and governmental, social, and environmental concerns do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₂ is modified into H0₉:

H0₉: Environmental involvement does not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe

H0₃: Personal factors as measured by individual values, commitment, sensitivity and personal importance do not influence CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

H0₃ is modified into H0_{10.1} and H0_{10.2}:

H0_{10.1}: Personal factors related to personal importance do not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe.

H0_{10.2}: Personal factors related to personal characteristics do not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe.

H0₄: CC behaviour does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

H0₄ is modified into H0₁₁:

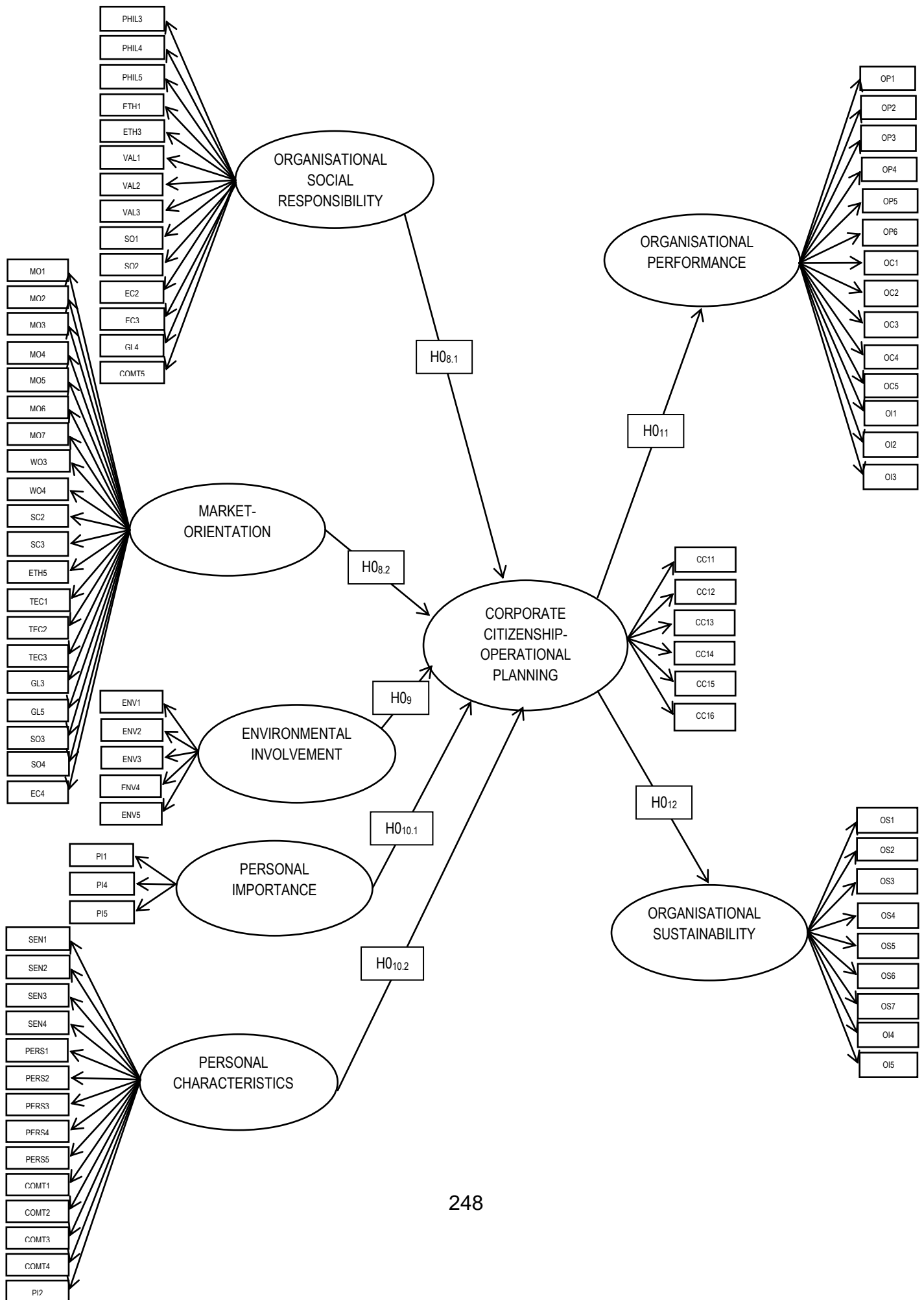
H0₁₁: CC behaviour related to operational planning does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

H0₇: CC behaviour does not influence organisational sustainability in Zimbabwe.

H0₇ is modified into H0₁₂:

H0₁₂: CC behaviour related to operational planning does not influence organisational sustainability in Zimbabwe.

Figure 8.3b: The hypothesized model of perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning



External organisational factors (EOF), organisational competitiveness (OC) and organisational image (OI) did not load as factors, thus, the three hypotheses, H0², H0⁵ and H0⁶ were not tested as the modified model (Figure 8.2a and Figure 8.2b) did not include EOF, OC and OI variables. In this chapter, the hypothesized relationships are assessed in modified theoretical models.

8.4 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is a numerical course of action for estimating the relationships among variables and it incorporates numerous techniques for modeling and analyzing several variables, when the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Elijido-Ten, 2004:9). More specifically, regression analysis assists in understanding how the typical value of the dependent variable or the criterion variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are fixed (Wangombe, 2013:947). Regression analysis at the surface provides great potential for chaos and complexity theories, as well as research methods, because the model incorporates a large number of variables, can handle different types of variables from categorical to interval, calculates interaction effects between variables and, when used appropriately, is confirmatory or explanatory in nature (Gilstrap, 2013:58). In regression analysis, it is also of interest to describe the variation of the dependent variable around the regression function which can be illustrated by a probability distribution.

Extending the concept of interaction effects, moderated multiple regression takes into account one or more moderator variables that change the influence of the independent variables on dependent variables, resulting in several different outcomes (Aguinis, 2004:916). The regression analysis technique was used in this study to evaluate the effect of the selected independent variables on management perceptions of CC behaviour. Regression analysis, also enables the researcher to reject or accept the hypotheses. The empirical factor structure, as summarized in Table 8.7, is therefore subjected to a multiple regression analysis using STATISTICA (version 12).

8.4.1 The influence of management and employees' perceptions on CC related to strategic planning

8.4.1.1 The influence of organisational social responsibility, market orientation, environmental involvement, personal factors related to personal characteristics and personal importance of CC behaviour regarding strategic planning

Table 8.8 indicates that organisational social responsibility ($b = 0.155$, $p < 0.001$) and the personal factors measured by personal characteristic dimensions (individual personality, sensitivity and commitment) ($b = 0.431$, $p < 0.001$), are positively related to corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning. Table 8.8 further indicates that market-orientation ($b = 0.248$, $p < 0.001$) is positively related to corporate citizenship related to strategic planning. The R^2 of 0.444 explains the 44% of variability in the model explained by the moderating variable (corporate citizenship related to strategic plan) as shown in Table 8.8. Table 8.8 further shows that personal factors related to personal importance ($r = 0.009$, NS) and environmental involvement ($r = -0.020$, NS) do not exert significant influence on 'corporate citizenship related to strategic planning'.

Table 8.8: Regression analysis: The influence of organisational social responsibility, market-orientation, environmental involvement, personal factors related to personal characteristics and personal importance of CC behaviour regarding strategic planning.

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP – STRATEGIC PLANNING					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
OSR	0.181	0.063	0.155	0.054	2.886	0.001***
MO	0.261	0.061	0.248	0.058	4.273	0.001**
ENV	-0.020	0.051	-0.016	0.039	-0.411	0.6812
PERS –PI	0.009	0.039	0.006	0.026	0.251	0.8021
PERS- PC	0.367	0.043	0.431	0.051	8.489	0.001***
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
67%	0.44363749	65.864	0.	p< .00000		
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						
Organisational Social Responsibility (OSR)						
Market Orientation (MO)						
Environmental Involvement (ENV)						
Personal Importance (PERS-PI)						
Personal Characteristics (PERS-PC)						

8.4.2 The influence of management and employee perceptions on CC related to operational planning

8.4.2.1 The influence of organisational social responsibility, market orientation, environmental involvement, personal factors related to personal characteristics and personal importance of CC behaviour regarding operational planning

Table 8.9 indicates that organisational social responsibility ($b = 0.570$, $p < 0.001$) and the personal factors as measured by dimensions of personal characteristics (individual personality, sensitivity and commitment) ($b = 0.277$, $p < 0.001$) are positively related to corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning. In total, the R^2 of 0.542 explains the 54% of variability in the model explained by the moderating variable (corporate citizenship related to operational planning) as shown in Table 8.9. Table 8.9 further shows that personal factors related to the personal importance ($r = 0.048$, NS), environmental involvement ($r = -0.003$, NS) and market

orientation issues ($r = 0.087$, NS) do not exert a significant influence on 'corporate citizenship related to operational planning'.

Table 8.9: Regression analysis: The influence of organisational social responsibility, market orientation, environmental involvement, personal factors related to personal characteristics and personal importance of CC behaviour regarding operational planning.

REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP – OPERATIONAL PLANNING						
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
OSR	0.548	0.057	0.570	0.059	9.648	0.001***
MO	0.087	0.055	0.101	0.064	1.578	0.1152
ENV	-0.003	0.046	-0.003	0.043	-0.069	0.9448
PERS –PI	0.048	0.035	0.038	0.028	1.371	0.1709
PERS- PC	0.194	0.039	0.277	0.056	4.959	0.001***
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
74%	0.54191977	97.718	0.82475	p< .00000		
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						
Organisational Social Responsibility (OSR)						
Market Orientation (MO)						
Environmental Involvement (ENV)						
Personal Importance (PERS-PI)						
Personal Characteristics (PERS-PC)						

8.4.3 The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour on outcomes

8.4.3.1 The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning on organisational sustainability

Table 8.10 shows that the R^2 of 0.327 indicates that 33% of the variability in the model is explained by the variable 'organisational sustainability'. This means that

organisational sustainability ($b = 0.571$, $p < 0.001$) has a positive relationship with corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning.

Table 8.10: Regression analysis: The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning on organisational sustainability

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL SUSTAINABILITY					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
CC – Strategic planning	-0.572	0.040	0.571	0.040	14.246	0.001***
R	R ²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
57%	0.32738691	202.97	0.81728 p<0 .00000			
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						

8.4.3.2 The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning on organisational performance

Table 8.11 shows that the R^2 of 0.404 indicates that 40% of the variability in the model is explained by the variable 'organisational performance'. This means that organisational performance ($b = 0.629$, $p < 0.001$) has a positive relationship with Corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning.

Table 8.11: Regression analysis: The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to strategic planning on organisational performance

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
CC-Strategic plan	0.636	0.038	0.629	0.037	16.829	0.001***
R	R²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
64%	0.40446934	283.22	0.76330 p<0 .00000			
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						

8.4.3.3 The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning on organisational sustainability

Table 8.12 shows that the R^2 of 0.249 indicates that 25% of the variability in the model is explained by the variable 'organisational sustainability'. This means that Organisational sustainability ($b = 0.410$, $p < 0.001$) has a positive relationship with corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning.

Table 8.12: Regression analysis: The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning for organisational sustainability

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL SUSTAINABILITY					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
CC- Operational plan	0.499	0.043	0.410	0.035	11.766	0.001***
R	R ²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
49%	0.24925356	138.45	0.86345 p<0 .00000			
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						

8.4.3.4 The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning on organisational performance

Table 8.13 shows that the R^2 of 0.354 indicates that 35% of the variability in the model is explained by the variable 'organisational performance'. This means that organisational performance ($b = 0.485$, $p < 0.001$) has a positive relationship with corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning.

Table 8.13: Regression analysis: The influence of corporate citizenship behaviour related to operational planning on organisational performance

	REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE					
Parameter	Beta b*	Std. Error	B	Std Error	T value	P-value
CC-Operational plan	0.595	0.039	0.485	0.032	15.124	0.001***
R	R ²	F	Std Error of estimate P			
60%	0.35422357	228.73	0.79485 p<0 .00000			
* = p < 0.05						
** = p < 0.01						
*** = p < 0.001						

The t-values reported in Table 8.8 to Table 8.13 indicate that the higher the t-values, the stronger the impact of the intervening variables on dependent variables. CC behaviour related to strategic planning has a strong impact on organisational performance with the highest t-value ($t = 16.829$), as indicated in Table 8.11, followed by the strong impact of CC behaviour related to operational planning on organisational performance with a high t-value ($t = 15.124$), as shown in Table 8.13. Equally significant in Table 8.10, is the strong impact of CC behaviour related to strategic planning to organisational sustainability with a high t-value ($t = 14.246$), followed by a strong impact of CC behaviour related to operational planning for organisational sustainability with a high t-value ($t = 11.766$), as indicated in Table 8.12.

However, t-values of the independent variables indicate the highest moderate as well as low impact on 'CC behaviour'. Organisational social responsibility variable has a stronger impact on CC behaviour related to operational planning with a high t-value ($t = 9.648$), as shown in Table 8.9, followed by the strong impact of personal factors related to personal characteristics of CC behaviour related to strategic planning with a high t-value ($t = 8.489$), as indicated in Table 8.8.

According to Table 8.9, personal factors related to personal characteristics has a moderate impact on CC behaviour related to operational planning with a t-value of ($t = 4.959$), followed by a moderate impact of market orientation on CC behaviour related to strategic planning with a t-value of ($t = 4.273$), as indicated in Table 8.8. Alternatively, Table 8.8 indicates that organisational social responsibility has a weak impact on CC behaviour related to strategic planning with a low t-value of ($t = 2.886$). It can therefore be concluded that most of the correlations between the latent variables are positive and significant.

8.5 CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF THE HYPOTHESES

Correlation exists when two variables have a linear relationship outside of what is anticipated by chance alone (Stockwell, 2008:1). This is a constructive technique that can be utilized to examine the correlation between a single dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair, Black, Babin Anderson & Tatham, 2006:99). In this study, it was performed to test the main research hypothesis (Markovic & Jankovic, 2013:154). However, the intention is to determine whether a variation in the independent item, which is usually a pointer, will result in a change in the dependent item (Achelis, 2000:37). The correlation coefficient can range between ± 1.0 to ± 0.10 (Hair, Babin Money & Samouel, 2003:283). A coefficient of $+1.0$, a perfect positive correlation, means that changes in the independent item will result in an identical change in the dependent item, whereas a low correlation coefficient for instance, less than ± 0.10 , proposes that the relationship between two items is weak or non-existent (Fenton & Neil, 2012:271, Hair *et al.* 2003:283).

According to Ratner (2009:140), the degree of relationship is measured by a correlation coefficient, symbolized by r . Subsequently, in this study, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the correlations between the study's variables (Smith & Rootman, 2013:8). Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two such variables that cannot be measured quantitatively (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011:87). Therefore, in this study, the Pearson correlation coefficient assisted in identifying correlations between the five independent variables: organisational social responsibility, personal importance, personal characteristics, environmental involvement and market orientation; and the dependent variables: organisational sustainability and organisational performance outcomes (Smith & Rootman, 2013:8, Markovic & Jankovic, 2013:154, Piovani, 2008:757). Furthermore, the correlation coefficient requires that the fundamental relationship between the two variables under deliberation is linear in order to provide a reliable measure of the strength of the linear relationship (Ratner, 2009:140).

Table 8.14, below, indicates correlations between the variables of the study. Table 8.14 Correlation matrix of variables of the study

Variable	OSR	PERS-PI	PERS-PC	ENV	MO	OS	OP	CC1	CC2
OSR	1.000	0.096	0.477***	0.664***	0.755***	0.369**	0.422***	0.540***	0.709***
PERS-PI	0.096	1.000	0.151*	0.096*	-0.093	0.018	0.034	0.056	0.122*
PERS-PC	0.477***	0.151*	1.000	0.389**	0.467***	0.539***	0.548***	0.569***	0.503***
ENV	0.664***	0.096*	0.389**	1.000	0.616***	0.318**	0.348**	0.404***	0.495***
MO	0.755***	-0.093	0.467***	0.616***	1.000	0.439***	0.479***	0.555***	0.586***
OS	0.369**	0.018	0.539***	0.318**	0.439***	1.000	0.802***	0.572***	0.499***
OP	0.422***	0.034	0.548***	0.348**	0.479***	0.802***	1.000	0.636***	0.595***
CC1	0.540***	0.056	0.569***	0.404***	0.555***	0.572***	0.636***	1.000	0.677***
CC2	0.709***	0.122*	0.503***	0.495***	0.586***	0.499***	0.595***	0.677***	1.000
Organisational Social Responsibility (OSR) Market Orientation (MO) Environmental Involvement (ENV) Personal Importance (PERS-PI) Personal Characteristics (PERS-PC) Organisational Sustainability (OS) Organisational Performance (OP) Corporate Citizenship – Strategic Planning (CC1) Corporate Citizenship – Operational Planning (CC2)									

Table 8.14 indicates that there is a strong correlation between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to operational planning with a coefficient of 0.709. This indicates that organisations' operational planning involves the availability of financial resources to engage in CC initiatives. Also, organisational, social responsibility and CC behaviour related to strategic planning positively correlate with a coefficient of 0.540. This shows that organisations accept the responsibility of ensuring that the vision and mission statement of each organisation should center on conducting business in a socially responsible manner. Personal factors related to personal characteristics strongly correlate with CC behaviour related to strategic planning with a coefficient value of 0.569. This implies that it is important for organisations to attract employees who have similar values to the organisation, are committed to their jobs, have good personalities, interact with colleagues and customers and who are sensitive to the needs of the society and the organisation.

Table 8.14 further indicates that personal factors related to personal characteristics strongly correlate with CC behaviour related to operational planning with a coefficient value of 0.503. This indicates that when employees are working in a team rather than individuals, they cooperate with one another and contribute better in executing corporate citizenship projects. The results in Table 8.14 show that market orientation has a positive correlation with CC behaviour related to strategic planning, with a coefficient of 0.555. This shows that organisations are honouring all contracts by ensuring that purchasing policies are in place and the organisation's ethical decision-making procedures are incorporated in an ethics code. Furthermore, Table 8.14 indicates that market orientation has a positive correlation with CC behaviour related to operational planning, with a coefficient of 0.586.

This means that organisations supply accurate information about products, improve the safety and efficiency of products for customers and actively offer a good work-balance for employees. The empirical results show that environmental involvement strongly correlates with CC behaviour related to strategic planning with a coefficient of 0.404 and to CC behaviour related to operational planning with a coefficient of 0.495. This implies that organisations have well-defined policies in place to protect the natural environment and provide clear and accurate environmental information on products to customers and suppliers. Moreover, the public has a right to expect the organisations to be engaged in environmental concerns as this implies that they are oriented towards CC, it is profitable for the organisation, and uplifts the standard of living of the society.

Table 8.14 indicates that CC behaviour related to strategic planning has a positive correlation with organisational sustainability, with a coefficient of 0.572. This implies that CC behaviour related to strategic planning will result in an enhanced organisational image and will sustain the long-term profitability and survival of the organisation. The results further indicate that CC behaviour related to operational planning strongly correlates with organisational behaviour, with a coefficient of 0.499. This implies that organisations that provide sufficient human capacity to engage in CC initiatives will develop strategies that are ultimately more value creating and sustaining.

Table 8.14 also indicates that CC behaviour related to strategic planning strongly correlates with organisational performance, with a coefficient of 0.636. This means that there should be total commitment from all organisational staff members to the organisation's agenda for CC behaviour. Thus, CC behaviour will define business strategies aligned with societal needs, maximize the organisation's competitive advantage and focus on welfare systems that improve organisational efficiency. Table 8.14 further indicates that CC behaviour related to operational planning has a positive correlation with organisational performance, with a coefficient of 0.595. This implies that CC behaviour increases the retention of talented employees and focuses on safety that improves employee productivity in the organisation.

8.6 FINDINGS ON HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS

8.6.1 Findings on the first set of hypotheses

H0_{1.1}: Organisational social responsibility does not influence CC behaviour related to strategic planning in Zimbabwe

Table 8.8 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to strategic planning ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to strategic planning, with a correlation coefficient of 0.540 and a t value of ($t=2.886$).

Therefore, $H0^{1.1}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H0_{1.2}: Market orientation does not influence CC behaviour related to strategic planning in Zimbabwe

Table 8.8 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between the market orientation and CC behaviour related to strategic planning ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between the market orientation and CC behaviour related to strategic planning, with a correlation coefficient of 0.555 and a tvalue of ($t=4.273$).

Therefore, $H_0^{1.2}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H_{02.1}: Environmental involvement does not influence CC behaviour related to strategic planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.8 indicated that environmental involvement is not significantly related to CC behaviour related to strategic planning ($r = -0.020$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between environmental involvement and CC behaviour regarding strategic planning.

Therefore, $H_0^{2.1}$ is accepted.

H_{03.1}: Personal factors related to personal importance do not influence CC behaviour regarding strategic planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.8 indicated that the personal factors related to personal importance are not significantly related to CC behaviour related to strategic planning ($r = 0.009$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between personal factors related to personal importance and CC behaviour related to strategic planning, with a correlation coefficient of 0.056.

Therefore, $H_0^{3.1}$ is accepted.

H_{03.2}: Personal factors related to personal characteristics do not influence CC behaviour regarding strategic planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.8 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between personal factors related to personal characteristics and CC behaviour related to strategic planning ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between personal factors related to personal characteristics and CC behaviour related to strategic planning, with a correlation coefficient value of 0.0.569 and a high t value ($t=16.829$).

Therefore, $H_0^{3.2}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H0_{4.1}: CC behaviour related to strategic planning does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.11 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between CC behaviour related to strategic planning and organisational performance ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between CC behaviour related to strategic planning and organisational performance with a correlation coefficient value of 0.636 and a moderately high t value ($t=8.489$).

Therefore, $H0^{4.1}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H0_{7.1}: CC behaviour related to strategic planning does not influence organisational sustainability in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.10 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between CC behaviour related to strategic planning and organisational sustainability ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between CC behaviour related to strategic planning and organisational sustainability with a correlation coefficient value of 0.572 and a moderately high t value ($t=14.246$).

Therefore, $H0^{7.1}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

8.6.2 Findings on the second set of hypotheses

H0_{8.1}: Organisational social responsibility does not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.9 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to operational planning ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to operational planning, with a correlation coefficient of 0.709 and a t value of ($t=9.648$).

Therefore, $H0^{8.1}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H0_{8.2}: Market orientation does not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.9 reported that market orientation is not significantly related to CC behaviour related to operational planning ($r = 0.087$). This means that there is no significant correlation between the market orientation and CC behaviour related to operational planning.

Therefore, $H0^{8.2}$ is accepted.

H0⁹: Environmental involvement does not influence CC behaviour related to operational planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.9 indicated that the environmental involvement is not significantly related to CC behaviour related to operational planning ($r = -0.003$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between environmental involvement and CC behaviour related to operational planning.

Therefore, $H0^9$ is accepted.

H0_{10.1}: Personal factors related to personal importance do not influence CC behaviour regarding operational planning in Zimbabwe.

Tables 8.9 indicated that the personal factors related to personal importance is not significantly related to CC behaviour related to operational planning ($r = 0.048$, NS). This means that there is no significant correlation between the personal factors related to personal importance and CC behaviour related to operational planning, with a correlation coefficient of 0.122.

Therefore, $H0^{10.1}$ is accepted.

H0_{10.2}: Personal factors related to personal characteristics do not influence CC behaviour regarding operational planning in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.9 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between personal factors related to personal characteristics and CC behaviour related to operational planning ($p < 0.001$).

This means that there is a significant positive correlation between personal factors related to personal characteristics and CC behaviour related to operational planning with a correlation coefficient value of 0.503 and a moderate t value ($t=4.959$).

Therefore, $H_0^{10.2}$ is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H₀₁₁: CC behaviour related to operational planning does not influence organisational performance in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.13 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between CC behaviour related to operational planning and organisational performance ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between CC behaviour related to operational planning and organisational performance, with a correlation coefficient value of 0.595 and a high t value ($t=15.124$).

Therefore, H_0^{11} is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

H₀₁₂: CC behaviour related to operational planning does not influence organisational sustainability in Zimbabwe.

Table 8.12 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between the CC behaviour related to operational planning and organisational sustainability ($p < 0.001$). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between CC behaviour related to operational planning and organisational sustainability, with a correlation coefficient value of 0.499 and a high t value ($t=11.766$).

Therefore, H_0^{12} is rejected. The alternative hypothesis is thus accepted.

The results of the regression analysis are summarized in Figure 8.4, below.

**FIGURE 8.4a: THE SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS:
CC RELATED TO STRATEGIC PLANNING (CC1)**

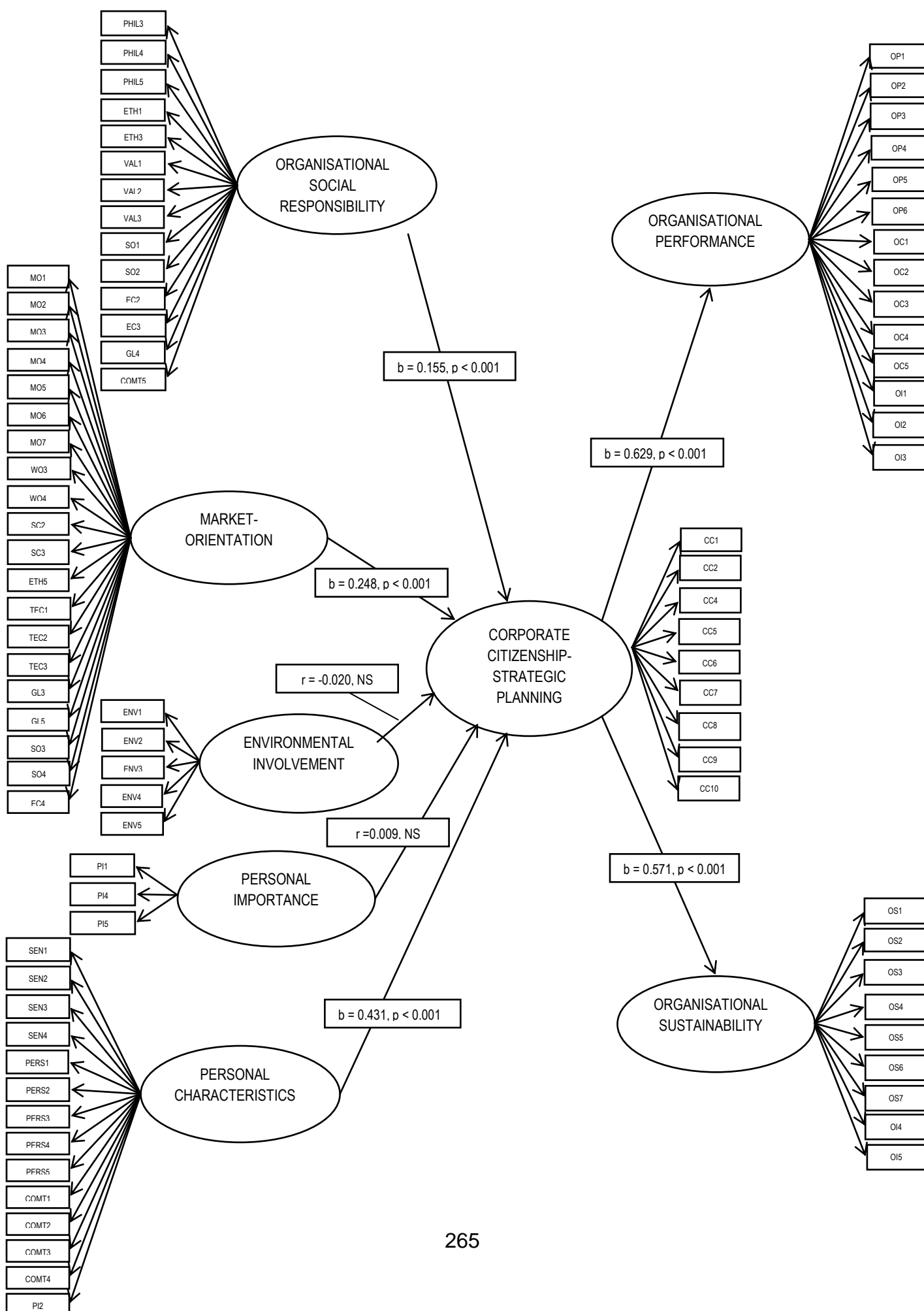
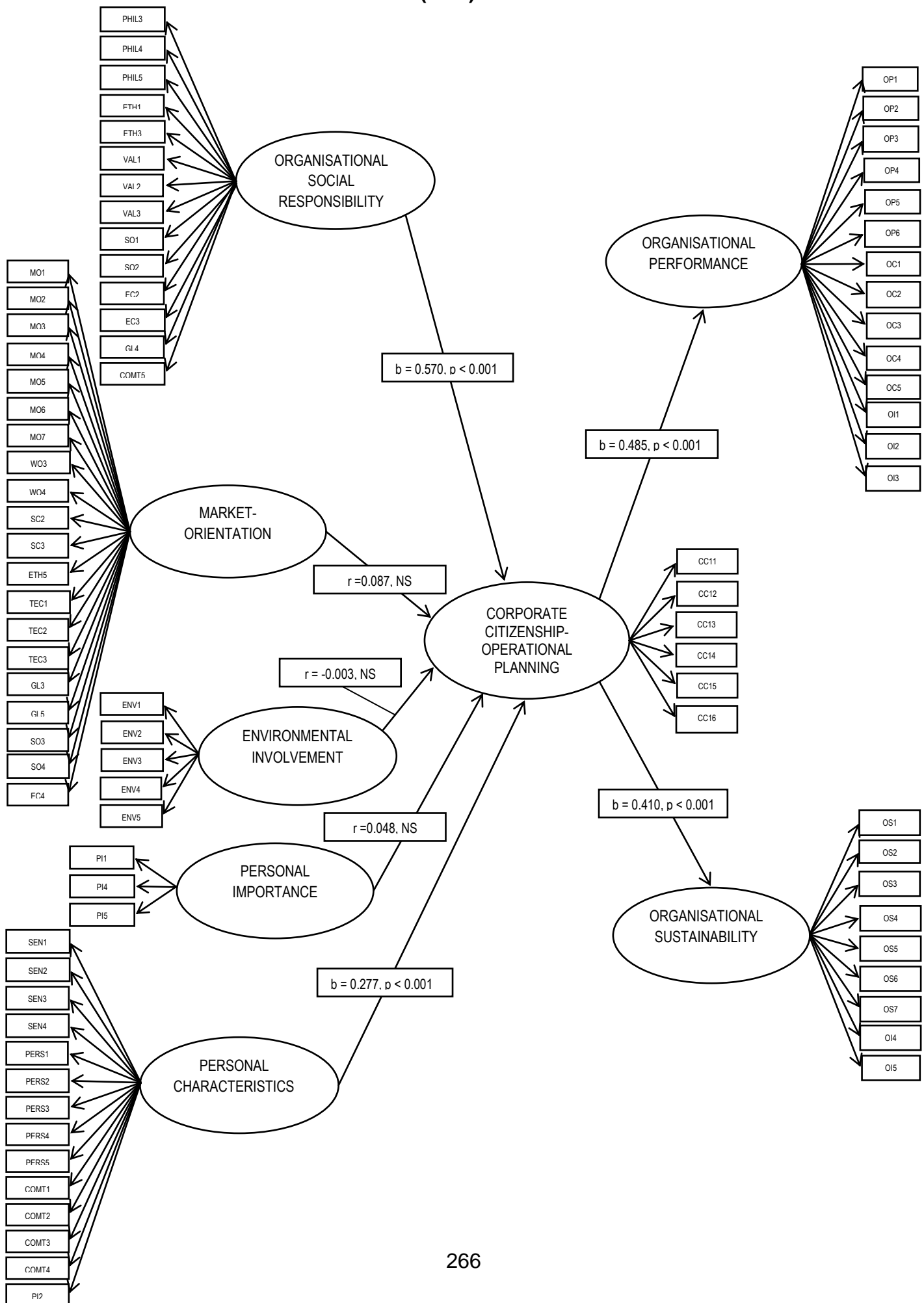


FIGURE 8.4b: THE SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS: CC RELATED TO OPERATIONAL PLANNING (CC2)



8.7 SUMMARY

Two sets of exploratory factor analyses were carried out to determine the discriminant validity of the variables and the existing coalition between the constructs were shown and reported. The first set of exploratory analysis involved perceptions of management towards internal organisational factors (IOF), external organisational factors (EOF) and personal factors (PF). The second set of exploratory analysis involved perceptions of management towards corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour and the outcomes of CC: organisational performance (OP), organisational sustainability (OS), organisational competitiveness (OC) and organisational image (OI).

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for all the revealed factors. A multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the effects of two or more independent variables on a single or interval-scaled independent variable. The linear regression analyses were performed to establish the relationships formulated in the relevant set of hypotheses in the proposed model of the study, and the results were reported. The next chapter discusses the interpretation of the empirical findings of this chapter, the managerial implications of the study as well as the limitations of this study. The empirical results show that CC behaviour is influenced by organisational social responsibility, personal characteristics such as personal values, personality, sensitivity and commitment, and that market-oriented management CC behaviour influences organisational performance and organisational sustainability.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided an account of the research findings regarding management perceptions of CC behaviour. The results of the reliability and validity assessment of the measuring instruments used to measure each variable were presented in the chapter. This chapter presents an overview of the study as well as its major findings. Various recommendations, based on the empirical findings of this study, will then be made. In conclusion, the contributions and limitations of this study will be highlighted, and further areas for research will be suggested. The primary objective of this study was to investigate perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

9.2 BRIEF SYNOPSIS OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 1: Background and scope of the study

The chapter introduced the study and highlighted its primary and secondary research objectives, research questions, the significance of the study and the hypothesis to be answered. The concept of the study was briefly discussed in this chapter and the methodology which was used to carry out the study was presented. The literature pertinent to this study was also briefly discussed herein. Finally, the scope of the study was also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 2: Business environment of Zimbabwe

This chapter proposed an analysis of the prevailing contemporary business environment in Zimbabwe with the intention of addressing the first and second research questions.

The analysis focused on macro- and micro-economic stability in order to create a conducive economic environment. This chapter also analysed the business environment in Zimbabwe in relation the international players, with the objective of creating wealth and improving society.

Chapter 3: Theories of Corporate Citizenship

The chapter presented a milieu of theories together with a propagation of approaches of CC. A significant amount of evidence showcasing the benefits of CC has been highlighted in this chapter, together with a number of theoretical works on how organisations can contribute to more successful global governance. Subsequently, organisations with confined responsibility, which are a global actors that place prominence on organisational responsibilities in a global context, have been considered as a key matters for discussion. The chapter further discussed the theoretical approaches to CC whereby the maximization of shareholder wealth is the responsibility of the organizing and argued that when the shareholders' interests are fully served, organisations become socially responsible. Furthermore, it was emphasised that in applying the theory, organisations have to take into account the stakeholder theory, which posits a social reaction perspective into groups that have a potential to influence or the power to affect an organisation's decisions and actions.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Overview of Corporate Citizenship

This chapter provided a theoretical overview of CC with the intention of addressing research questions three, four, five, six and seven, as presented in Chapter 1 of this study. The chapter provided a discussion of the historical development of the concept, where CC can be explained simply as the logical extension of the legal doctrine of organisational personality. In addition, the current international CC landscape demands global perspectives on the defining characteristics of CC across regions and sectors, and the concept is both a global and local phenomenon.

The stages and the nature of CC identified as charitable donations and other forms of corporate philanthropy undertaken in the local community were also discussed. Furthermore, the concept revealed that it encourages organisations to recognize their reciprocal relationship with society through compliance with existing legal obligations supplemented by the use of voluntary initiatives. The chapter also highlighted the key characteristics of CC which are prescribed by the societal order and obtain their legality from the societies in which they function, and that there is a need to sound their role, scope and rationale as well as to comprehend their full community and environmental impacts and responsibilities. The chapter further discussed the drivers of CC factors that were divided into internal motivators and external pressures. Finally, the chapter highlighted the benefits of CC for its increasing importance to an organisation's sustainability and provision of benefits that are both tangible and intangible. The challenges of CC were discussed, including the criticism levelled against it for offering little more than a watered-down version of CSR.

Chapter 5: Creating an enabling environment for corporate citizenship behaviour

This chapter discussed the formation of an enabling settings for CC. The chapter revealed an evidence of the realignment of the organization and the society, whereby organisations are facing new demands which include environmental issues as well as issues between organisations and society. Furthermore, this chapter revealed that creating an enabling environment for CC, entails management to understand and enthusiastically become aware of both the framework and the societal expectations.

This chapter further revealed that, even though the organisations endeavour to take on in CC at the same time with their stakeholders, there is a notable struggle due to internal and external factors surrounding the organisations. Subsequently, the chapter revealed that for those organisations managed to create an enabling environment for CC, have a better reputation that translate into customer loyalty and attract more skilled workforce and investors, thereby increasing an organizational access to capital which in turn, leads to profit maximization.

Chapter 6: A hypothetical model of corporate citizenship behaviour in the organisation

This chapter provided a demonstration of the relationships between independent and mediating variables of this study. This chapter shows three independent variables, namely, internal, external and personal factors were identified and perceived to have a significant link to perceptions of CC behaviour. These factors each have five dimensions, as follows: workforce-oriented, stakeholder consultation, philanthropic, ethic, marketing-oriented, economy, technology, government/legal, social, environmental, commitment, personality, sensitivity and personal importance. These factors and dimensions are impacted on by the two mediating variables: CC strategic plan and CC operational plan. This, in turn, impacts on the two outcomes identified. The chapter provided a discussion of the independent variables and highlighted their relationship with management perceptions of CC behaviour. The dependent variables were also discussed using circumstantial pragmatic substantiation; this, however, resulted in six (6) theories being presented in the study.

Chapter 7: Research design and methodology

This chapter explored the methods used to gather data and it highlighted the computer application used to present the outcome of the research (STATISTICA version 12). The hypotheses were reformulated and scrutinized and, finally, the most important conclusions of management perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe were presented in this chapter.

Chapter 8: Empirical results of management and employees' perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour in the organisation

This chapter examined the empirical results of the analysis of management perceptions regarding corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour. The results of the reliability and validity assessment of the measuring instruments used to measure each variable are also presented in this chapter. The empirical testing of the relationships between the independent and dependent variables of the study are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 9: Summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations

This last chapter presents a summary of the study, and offers conclusions and recommendations pertinent to the study, while highlighting the contributions of the study to the broader body of knowledge on CC. Moreover, the chapter offers conclusions to the research questions and the problem statement presented in the study.

9.3 CONCLUSIONS ON PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

9.3.1 Conclusions on research problem of the study

In this study, the following research question was addressed : ***What are the perceptions regarding CC behaviour in Zimbabwe?*** The literature review and the empirical outcomes endeavored to scrutinize problems related to CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

This study reviewed the literature related to the approach taken to the implementation of CC in both developed and developing countries. The discussion clarified numerous approaches to CC implementation which have been adopted in different countries with the intention of recommending suitable approaches for Zimbabwe, considering the contemporary business environment in the country. The success factors were discussed at length and rigorous attention was paid to how other developed and developing countries engage in the implementation of CC. Subsequently, the study focused primarily on the methods used for CC implementation, the success stories of CC behaviour, as well as the challenges of CC. The empirical results of this study led to the conclusion that CC is not effectively instituted in Zimbabwe, which has been lagging behind other countries. Organisations continue to be silent on CC and it remains a less important theme among the business organisations in Zimbabwe, regardless of their awareness of the importance of engaging in CC. CC therefore remains a peripheral concern for Zimbabwean companies.

In most organisations involved in CC, the personnel designated to implement CC activities are making decisions based on limited information related to the subject. The empirical results also indicate that management and employees realized the benefits of engaging in CC as a key priority for their organisations and that there was a need to arrange staff functions responsible for CC in a manner that factors it into the organisation's line of business. Consequently, management noted that the benefits of CC are real, citing that having an active CC as part of strategic and operational planning enables organisations to improve access to capital, and bolster their brand image and corporate reputation. Furthermore, it increases customer loyalty, reduces business risk, gives the organisation license to operate and, most importantly, management and employees' reputation improve as the society's bottom-line improves.

Management and employees also welcomed CC as a set of organisational practices desirable not only for society in general, but also for business organisations and, apart from focusing on fulfilling the economic and legal obligation, management noted that some responsibility to society can also contribute to an organisation's collection of indefinable assets and consequently to economic performance and, ultimately, survival (Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006:331). However, the empirical results of this study reveal that management perceived CC as a noble idea to factor into their organisational strategies. Management perceived of the prevailing macroeconomic conditions of the country as unbalanced, thus, most organisations, including the multinational organisations, were deterred from engaging in CC.

9.3.2 Conclusions to the Research Questions

Table 9.1: Conclusions to the Research Questions

<p>RQ1:</p> <p>What are the internal organisational factors that impact the perceptions regarding CC behaviour?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In order to realize the mission of business organisation, it requires certain organisational elements resulting in the achievement of the outlined mission (Ekaterini, 2010:3). Internal drivers refer to pressures from within the country (Visser, 2008:481). • The internal motivators, or drivers of CC, include traditions and values, reputation/image, strategy, competitiveness, purpose and time. Further, the drivers for development can come from the bottom to the top, or vice versa. In some cases, the drivers can even come from the middle and follow through to top management (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:121). • Smith (2003:52) observes that few organisations embrace a strictly moral commitment to CC; often considering reputation risks and benefits, and a business case for their efforts. Organisations have a list of stakeholders and understanding their expectations is essential to controlling risks to the organisation and maintaining an optimistic reputation; diverse studies have established a connection between reputation and financial performance (Roberts <i>et al.</i> 2002:2). • Strategic and competitive forces undeniably manipulate the course and pace of citizenship in organisations, and increasingly so (Vogel, 2005:2). This is a capable line of investigation that may explain some of the differences in citizenship established in organisations in different industries and competitive contexts (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:17).
<p>RQ2:</p> <p>Which external business environment variables have an impact on the perceptions of CC behaviour?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External organisational factors comprise of all the entities that exist outside its boundaries, but have momentarily had power over its development and continued existence (Gupta, 2009:3). These drivers consist of international standardization; crisis response stakeholder activism; Investment Incentives and the supply chain. According to Ward (2000:2), the external expectations of organisations are changing rapidly and consumers in Europe and North America are increasingly demanding information about how the products they purchase were made. • The external forces include the socioeconomic and socio-political factors that influence a company. Furthermore, Visser (2008:482) asserts that CC in 3rd world nations is formed by the socioeconomic environment in which organisations function and the development precedence this creates. There are several socioeconomic and political factors that, to some extent, influence where organisations lead in developing citizenship and where they might lag. This assertion has been supported by Mirvis & Googins (2006:104-105). • Countries like South Africa and Nigeria, for example, have organisations that embrace the concept of CC aimed at addressing the socioeconomic development challenges of the country, including poverty alleviation, healthcare provision, infrastructure development, education and mostly corruption. This notion is supported by Amaeshi <i>et al.</i>(2006:83) and Masuku & Moyo (2013:114). • CC theory reflects on all sectors of society; for instance, organisations, government and the civil sector have to work in unison i.e. in a reciprocal advantageous way to convene their economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities (Carroll, 1991:39, Maignan & Ferrell, 2001b:37; Altman & Vidaver-Cohen, 2000:1-7).

- Organisations that extract natural resources, such as oil and timber are monitored closely by NGOs and find themselves more exposed in regards to their environmental performance. Hallback (2011:13) supported this notion.
- Customers manipulate the development of CC in view of the fact that they can apply force regarding how the organisation manufactures the service or goods they procure, while also selecting which goods or services are created (Mirvis & Googins, 2006:123).
- In 3rd world nations, CC cannot be removed from the social-political transformation process, which often drives organisational performance towards incorporating societal and moral issues (Visser, 2008:482). For example, De Oliveira (2006) argues that the political and connected social and financial changes in Latin America, since the 1980s, including democratization, liberalization, and privatization, have shifted the role of organisations towards claiming greater accountability for their social and environmental dimensions (De Oliveira, 2006:17).
- Many organisations realized that strategic decisions with respect to globalization must be made (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2000:139).

RQ3:

Do the personal factors of marketers and shareholders have an impact on perceptions regarding CC behaviour?

- The personal factors that could play a role in CC are: values, personality, sensitivity, personal importance and commitment. Collective notice is considered self-interest, and persons are stimulated to espouse organisational ambitions and to act with an organisation's paramount interests in mind (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006:585). Evidence suggests that high organisational classification is linked with supportive and organisational citizenship behaviours (Riketta, 2005:358, Tyler & Blader, 2003:394).
- A broad spectrum of studies has exposed a variation in the primary concerns of individuals within societies as well as groups across states (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001:268, Myyry & Helkama, 2001:25; Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005:170). Consequently, it is imperative to realise that personal values do not inevitably match up with the basic cultural morals in the social order (Wang, 2011:51).
- Values are related to attitudes and to a wide range of behaviours, such as consumer purchases, cooperation, competition, intergroup social contact, occupational choice, religion and voting (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001:268).
- Personality is frequently selected as one of a factors that can reflect or describe the consumer's individual characteristics (Basil & Weber, 2006:2).
- Allen *et al.* (2009:19) support this idea by highlighting that mainstream economics has not kept abreast of the evolution of society's view of the role and responsibilities of an organisation, and continues to advocate shareholder value maximization as the primary responsibility of the management of an organisation.

RQ4: Does CC behaviour improve organisational performance?

- Richard *et al.* (2009:718) reiterate that organisational performance encompasses three specific areas of firm outcomes: financial performance; product market performance and shareholder return.
- Bagnoli & Watts (2003:419) assert that organisations with fine CC strategies are conducting a profit-maximizing business. Organisations in more competitive industries have better ratings because CR is driven by strategic considerations independent of any additional altruistic motivation. This has

been supported by Fernandez-Kranz and Santaló (2010:453).

- Considering different measures of economic and financial performance, it shows that environmental performance positively impacts financial performance when using accounting based measures, but negatively affects market based measures of financial performance (Delmas & Nairn-Birch, 2011:21).
- The introductory training program has a positive effect on organisational performance measures, including customer service performance, staff retention and profits (Delmas & Nairn-Birch, 2010:21).
- This is one of the rapidly shifting expectations and norms around organisational values and behaviour in an environment that is straining to create links between citizenship and organisational success (Waddock, 2003a:5).
- The outcome of management processes, from strategic planning to implementation of the plan, underpins the measurement of organisational performance (Fauzi *et al.* 2010:134).
- Organisational performance can be distinguished between financial and non-financial, where these financial performances are often measured using sales growth, (Fraquelli & Vannoni, 2000:27, Crabtree & DeBusk, 2008:8). The advantage is its general availability, since a profit oriented organisation produces these figures for its yearly financial reporting.

RQ5: Does CC behaviour promote organisational competitiveness?

- The universal understanding of financial system, intangibles including relationships internal and external of the organisation, brands and broader reputation are key fundamentals of staying in business (Mohamed & Sawandi, 2003:5, Bagnoli & Watts, 2003:419, Yuen, 2007:7).
- Accomplishing long-term spirited gains requires the plan and operationalization of suitable organisational approaches that take into account both the metamorphosis registered in the organisational environment and the developmental phase of the institute. This assertion has been supported by Ionescu, (2008:123).
- If an organisation is able to dominate its competitors for prolonged periods of time, it is considered to have a sustained competitive advantage which originates either from carrying out its activity in terms of lower costs or from presenting a merchandise different from that of the opponent (Rothaermel, 2008:201).
- The foundation of the competitive gain is the more proficient availability, in comparison to competing organisations, with the conduct of activities at comparable costs (Fistung, 2001:4).
- Competitiveness are scores of issues varying from macroeconomic guidelines, presence of institutions, the educational structure of micro policies at the level of the organisation that supplement the aptitude as well as the competitiveness of the Industry.
- Ricupero (2004:66) supports this notion by arguing that competition compels organisations to explore new ways to increase their efficiency by extending their international reach to new markets at an early stage, by shifting certain production activities to reduce costs.
- Existing research provides evidence to suggest that organisational reputation is a pivotal intangible resource that contributes to an organisational competitive advantage (Deephouse, 2000:1091, Roberts and Dowling, 2002:1077, Shamsie, 2003:199).

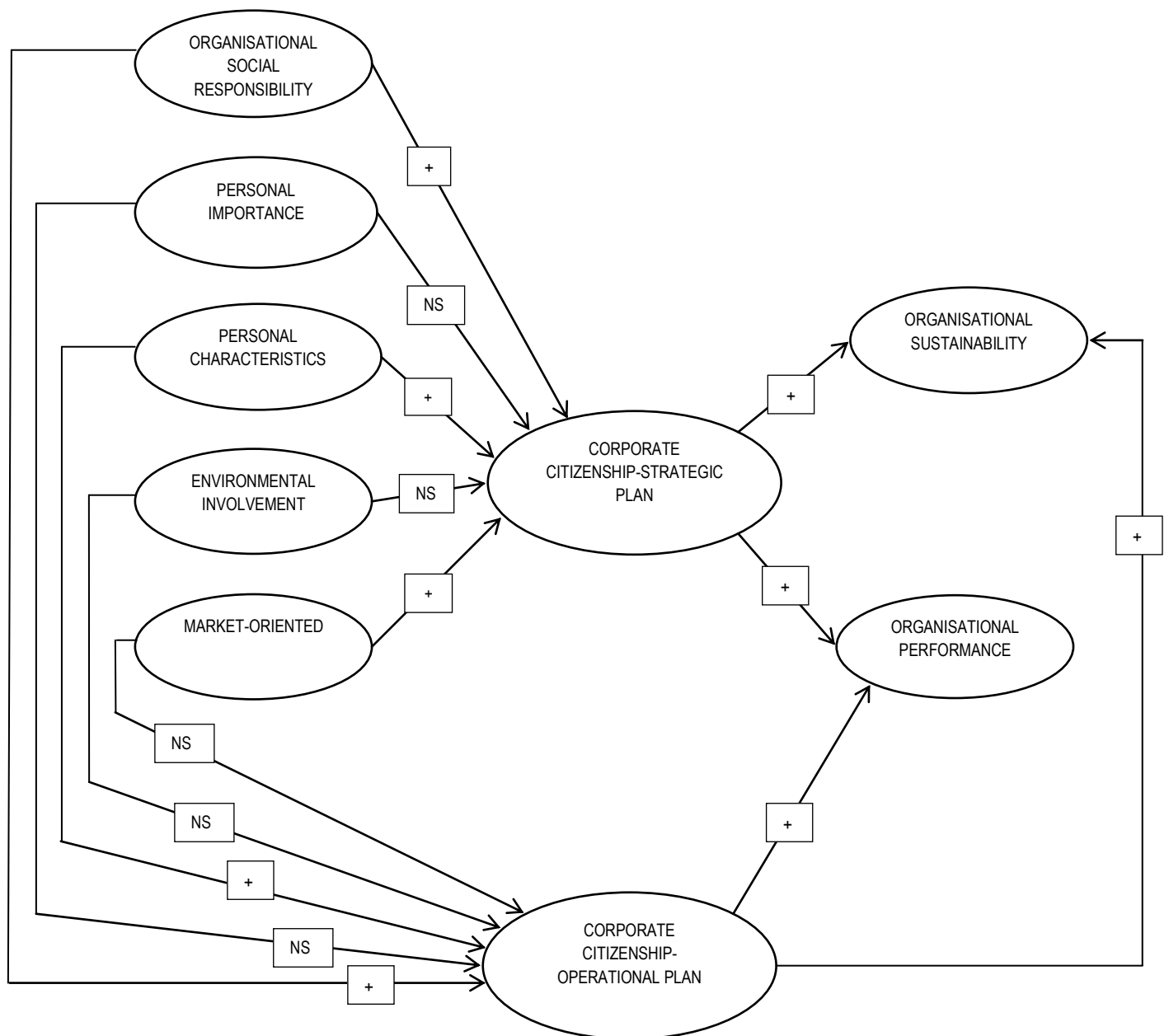
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Involving stakeholders in organisational strategies is considered a good policy which provides organisations with competitive advantages (Walsh, 2005:426).
RQ6: Does CC behaviour enhance the organisational image?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An image of an organisation signifies the quality of the service provided by the professionals within that organisation and a positive organisational image may strengthen the self-perceived integrity of professionals (Empson, 2004:759). Kotler & Lee (2005:297) develop a framework that explains why charitable activities are good for an organisation's image from a marketing perspective. A positive organisational image may have a substantial influence on organisational identification, especially for professional knowledge workers (Frandsen, 2012:5).
RQ7: Does CC behaviour improve organisational sustainability?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The satisfaction of human needs has taken center stage globally. Voluntary sustainability reporting has emerged as part of this trend and has rapidly diffused among large organisations (Kolk, 2004:51 and 2004a:59, 2005:145, 2006a:34, Waddock, 2006:313). Organisational sustainability is increasingly being taken up by organisational activities and the term sustainability initially appears to come into recognition in 1987, at which time, the perception and study of sustainable development had almost not left the sphere of environmentalists and ecologists (Zadek, 2001:122). Management's support of employees' sustainability activities contributes to a culture of sustainability. Practitioners and researchers both point to the commitment of senior management and the board as critical success factors for embedding sustainability (Bansal, 2003:514). Sustainability reporting is one such tool for communicating organisational performance with respect to organisational CC practices (Ekwueme <i>et al.</i> 2012:709).

Source: Own construct

9.4 SUMMARY OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

In this study, the variables highlighted in Figure 9.1, below, show that there are seven (7) influences on perceptions of CC behaviour. The influences are categorized into seven (7) factors, namely, organisational; social responsibility; personal importance; personal characteristics; environmental involvement; market orientation; organisational performance and organisational sustainability.

Figure 9.1: Empirical Evaluation of the proposed influences and outcomes on perceptions regarding CC behaviour



Source: Own construct

9.4.1 The empirical findings and implications based on management and employees' perceptions of CC behaviour

9.4.1.1 Organisational social responsibility (OSR)

- **The influence of OSR towards CC behaviour related to strategic planning**

The empirical findings of the study indicate that there is a significant correlation between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to strategic planning. Organisational Social Responsibility (OSR) refers to organisational strategies that are effected in a manner that is ethical, society-friendly and beneficial to the community in terms of development (Ismail, 2009:199). Moreover, the definition is concerned with the relationship between an organisation and the local society in which it resides, or its stakeholders (Crowther & Aras, 2008:10). In this study, it is a course that an organisation may take to behave responsibly and, basically, it focusses on the relationship that an organisation develops with its stakeholders.

The empirical findings reveal that employees have similar values to that of the organisation regarding CC initiatives, and these values are clearly defined. Values, for instance, are of interest because when stakeholders accomplish enviable standards through CC initiatives, they are likely to identify with and trust the organisation; these are indicators of the quality of the relationship with the organisation (Bartel, 2001:379, Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001:225). The empirical results further reveal that management believes that their organisations inspire employees to participate in CC initiatives and their values are clearly defined in terms of good CC behaviour.

Furthermore, the results indicate that management believes that a socially responsible organisation has to be held accountable for its actions regarding the promotion of ethical and moral values in order to implement CC initiatives in the areas in which they operate and, at the same time, their participation in CC results in good economic returns for stakeholders. Furthermore, corporate volunteering (CV) seems to be a promising management concept to achieve both high moral standards of business conduct as well as economic success.

Fundamentally, these are issues of justifying the morality of economic activities in order to have a theoretical basis for analyzing social relations between organisations and society (Ismail, 2009:203). In addition, Birch regards CC as an innovation in the sense that CC causes an organisation to see itself as part of the public culture (Birch, 2001:53). Consequently, management perceived that being responsible brings changes in the perception of CC by looking beyond passive philanthropy. Studies reveal that these are overviews of economic theories given by Andreoni (2006:1201), Vesterlund (2006:568), and Meier (2007:1203). CC is therefore a discretionary activity beyond that which is expected of business, i.e. it is a choice to put something back into the community (Matten & Crane, 2003:4).

This limited view tends to present the new contribution of CC to discussions on organisational philanthropy as its strategic focus, in contrast to organisations which appeal to charity simply for the sake of it (Matten & Crane, 2003:4). In this context, philanthropic endeavors such as CV are promoted as innovative forms of CC by which organisations actively express their commitment to society in general (Matten & Moon, 2008:335, Porter & Kramer, 2002:56). In addition, empirical results reveal that organisations go beyond what is mandated by law to make an optimistic impact on the general public and the surroundings and, in doing this, employees are pleased to be associated with organisations that participate in CC initiatives.

This notion is supported by Maignan and Ferrell (2004:3) who propose that the level to which stakeholders wish to associate with the organisation is based upon the degree to which they concentrate on matters that are important to the stakeholder group. Therefore, CC is generally seen by socially responsible organisations as fuelled by issues of self-interest, including the insight that a constant social, environmental, and political environment ensures a cost-effective organisation (Windsor, 2001:39, Wood & Logsdon, 2001:83).

- **The influence of OSR on CC behaviour related to operational planning**

The empirical results demonstrate that there is a significant link between organisational social responsibility and CC behaviour related to operational planning. The findings of the study indicate that organisations contribute to educational institutions in the form of scholarships, research programs and they promote CC behaviour by offering training opportunities as well as encouraging employees to participate in their local communities. The empirical findings in this study further reveal that management encourages their employees to participate in local community activities through devoting their time and expertise to these efforts. The empirical results of the study reveal that CC, that is, socially responsible organisations should strive to reduce unemployment rates in the country.

Consequently, a commitment to improve community wellbeing through discretionary organisational practices and contributions of corporate resources is supported in the scholarly literature of Kotler & Lee (2005:297). The organisational social responsibility (OSR) is thus perceived as an important component of the dialogue between organisations and their stakeholders (Berger *et al.*, 2007:132, Smith 2003:52). Some authors, for example, depict CC as resulting from the necessity to conform to existing social norms, while others limit the scope of CC to voluntary initiatives aimed at furthering the general good beyond the minimum required for the organisation to continue to exist (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001:117).

9.4.1.2 Personal characteristics

- **The influence of personal characteristics on CC behaviour related to strategic planning**

The empirical results show that there is a significant correlation between personal characteristics and CC behaviour related to strategic planning. Personal characteristics are broad concepts that can be thought of as a way of organizing and grouping the consistencies of an individual's reaction to situations, such as person's traits, attitudes and habits (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:105).

Personal characteristics also refers to features that consist of expansive areas of concentration with features that include broad areas of interest and high energy levels (King & Gurland, 2007:1252). In competitive knowledge-driven organisations, management is more vital than before and entails more than just obtaining the right practical proficiency. Furthermore, it is in this regard that personal traits, personal actions, and organisational features interrelate to encourage its development (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004:42).

However, management is required to recognize their own thoughts and those of others to stimulate themselves and successfully administer interaction, augment self-esteem and enthusiasm, develop output, encourage superior organisational and teamwork, and increase the retention of top talent (Al-Khouri, 2010:6). The empirical findings of this study show that individual employees and managers are sensitive to the needs and feelings of others regarding being a good corporate citizen. The empirical findings of the study indicate that all employees deserve to be treated fairly and respectfully, regardless of gender or ethnic background and should care for the community so as to be socially responsible. This obligation serves all stakeholder interests, which is often called stakeholder management (Post, *et al.*, 2002:200, Bowie, 2004:48), this is generally compared to the standard form of organisational governance, in which shareholder interests are prioritized. Furthermore, the study reveals that personality has an influence on one's orientation and commitment to CC.

Furthermore, the study discloses that self-concept is considered important because it helps to explain CC behaviour. In support of this, Taylor, Lerner, Sherman, Sage & McDowell (2003:165) establish that those advancing greater self-enhancement experienced more encouraging emotional and social outcomes. The empirical results also reveal that employees are willing to accept job assignments and exercise a great deal of effort, beyond what is expected, in order to participate in initiating and implementing CC initiatives. This commitment is prejudiced by the organisation's standard and practices, particularly the organisational environment (Kaliprasad 2006:20), in terms of CC related behaviour.

- **The influence of personal characteristics on CC behaviour related to operational planning**

The empirical outcomes illustrate that there is a significant correlation between personal characteristics and CC behaviour related to operational planning. The empirical findings of the study reveal that management has responsibilities to conduct business with sensitivity in their area of jurisdiction (Seibert, Stridh-Igo & Zimmerman, 2002:143). The study findings further reveal that individual employees and managers always seek to incorporate sustainable business practices to improve environmental impact and to support the community. Furthermore, results show that hiring people from distressed communities alleviates poverty. This notion is supported by Johnson, Rynell & Young's (2010:1) assertion that the need for undeviating municipal occupational establishment efforts is greater now than it was at any other time during the previous seven decades.

The study also reveals that working as a team is better for executing CC behaviour. This notion is supported by transcendence (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004:26) when suggesting that the spirit at work, at the personal level, reflects a distinct state that involves philosophical feelings of well-being, a certainty that one's employment makes a contribution, a sense of correlation to others and widespread rationale, an awareness of a connection to something larger than oneself, and a sense of perfection.

The study findings reveal that employees are willing to associate themselves with companies that are socially responsible and, at the same time, their commitment to serve in such organisations will inspire their colleagues to promote CC. Employees typically prefer to work for socially responsible firms (Smith, 2003:19). Bolino & Turnley (2003:60) posit that engaging citizenship behaviours is simply seen as an integral aspect of their jobs.

9.4.1.3 Market Orientation

- **The influence of market orientation on CC behaviour related to strategic planning**

Market orientation, in this study, refers to the way in which an organisation conducts its organisational activities based on the assimilation and synchronization of all marketing activities in an effort to maximize long-term profitability. The empirical findings of the study reveal that there is a significant correlation between market orientation and CC behaviour related to strategic planning.

The findings of the study show that organisations supply accurate information, ensure transparency, are honest about all contracts, and are efficient and practice safety in regard to their products. Furthermore, the study reveals that management has a process to ensure effective feedback consultation with all stakeholders. The study also reveals that organisations adopted a philosophy of societal marketing to enhance the well-being of the society. According to Keelson (2012:38), societal marketing philosophy emphasizes the need not only to consider the consumer in product decisions but also his/her direct environment. The suitability of the community marketing viewpoint is assumed from the fact that it supports the socially responsible actions of the institute (Keelson, 2012:38).

Furthermore, the study discloses that the latest information technology and social media are often used to create value for all stakeholders. In this manner, if customers can obtain dependable value in the course of action of product/service utilization, it is likely to generate a good trade name, trustworthiness, increased earnings and greater competitiveness for the organisation (Chi, Yeh & Tsai, 2011:96). The empirical findings in this study reveal that organisations show tolerance towards different cultural groups, build and nurture employee diversity and they ensure that steps against all forms of discrimination at the work place are taken, including offering a good workplace balance for employees.

Joshi & Roh (2007:1) found a fairly equal number of studies reporting positive and negative effects of race and ethnicity, diversity across employee and organisational performance, processes and attitudes. In this study, the empirical findings reveal that management should ensure that organisations meet the requirements of employment health and safety laws, and they should indicate information to the fact that ethical decision-making procedures are in place in a code of ethics. This notion is supported by Carasco & Singh's (2003:71) study that suggests that the globalization of markets is pressuring organisations to develop codes as public statements of core principles that are universally applicable. In a study of various Codes of Conduct, Singh (2006:17) establishes that these codes tend to incorporate enforcement and conformity procedures.

Whilst, Carrol's (2004:117) study suggests that ethical responsibilities embrace those activities and practices that are expected or prohibited by society even though they may not be codified into law. Thus, it is considered an organisation's initiative to be socially responsible to the extent that organisations are allocated to activities that are intended to improve societal welfare (Bhattacharya, Korschun & Sen, 2009:257). The empirical findings of the study further reveal that that the organisation strives to expand international trade with various countries. Carrol (2004:117) posits that senior managers want a useful outline for thinking about large-scale organisational ethics, thus, organisations in diverse industries are undoubtedly realising that the civic bodies insists that they balance profits with CC.

Moreover, organisations are expected to be good corporate citizens through philanthropic initiatives, and are expected to contribute financial and human resources to the global community and to give back so that the quality of life may be enhanced and sustained (Carrol, 2004:117).

9.4.2 Management and employees' perceptions of CC behaviour

9.4.2.1 CC behaviour related to strategic planning

Strategic plans classify a set of purposes and objectives that concretize the results that the organisation anticipates to accomplish by the end of the planning period (Coblentz, 2002:2). The empirical findings of the study reveal that management believes that CC should be a priority for all organisations and there should be written guidelines and policies for the implementation of CC in organisations. Shapiro (2004:55) suggests that when strategic planning is done, the department should move into the next phase of planning which turns a strategy into implementation. Thus, without the strategic planning phase, it is very likely that the organisation will end up performing a range of activities that may not always add up to a co-ordinated effort (Coblentz, 2002:2). Furthermore, the empirical findings reveal that management believes that stakeholders play an important role in shaping CC policies within the organisation.

The study results reveal that there is total commitment, from all in the organisation, to CC behaviour planning strategies and that the vision and mission is centered on conducting business in a socially responsible manner. The empirical results of this study indicate that management believes that the implementation of CC strategies benefits the organisations and society at large. The study findings reveal that the public has a right to expect management's actions to be CC oriented. The empirical results further reveal that management believes that CC behaviour does a great deal more for the communities than is realized; moreover, engaging in CC initiatives reduces business risks for organisations. Therefore, the job of leadership is not just to generate a profit, but to make a meaningful contribution to society (Dess & Picken, 2000: 19). In addition, a survey conducted by McWilliams, Siegel and Wright (2006:1) revealed a growth in strategic management practices that reach beyond the organisation's core business; notably, there is a tendency towards strategic corporate philanthropic engagement.

9.4.2.2 CC behaviour related to operational planning

Kaplan & Norton (2008:72) refer to operational planning as the conversion of strategic goals, both short and long term, into management strategies. Thus, successful organisational change requires a good plan and outstanding follow-through on execution. Operational planning drives the creation of budgets, considering the operation and involvement in the initiatives and lower-level projects that include: time frames, human capital, technology requirements and, in many cases, dependency on other projects or programs (Waterhouse, Terlaje, Mitiliu & Dukuno, 2012:78).

The empirical results of this study reveal that management believes that organisations have CC management in place. The empirical findings further indicate that management perceives of top management as highly supportive of the CC engagements of organisations. The empirical results of this study are in line with a survey conducted by Matten & Moon (2008:335, Scherer & Palazzo, 2007:1096) which highlights that organisational action is increasingly demanded in the face of governmental cutbacks and enterprises are challenged to act as so called institutional citizens. Thus, organisations are expected to make a virtue out of necessity and turn this virtue into strategic advantages; sufficient empirical support for this relationship exists in research of Windsor (2001:39) and Porter & Kramer (2002:56).

The study findings further reveal that CC behaviour makes a tangible contribution to the organisation's bottom-line. Substantial evidence for this relationship exists in previous studies by Hess, Rogovsky & Dunfee (2002:110) and Peterson (2004a:371, 2004b:615) who, for example, associate corporate volunteering (CV) with expressions of good CC. This display of organisational community involvement is publicly more visible and tangible than other forms of citizenship behaviour. The research findings of the study reveal that organisations are perceived by management as promoting CC behaviour. The study findings further reveal that management believes that organisations have the financial resources as well as the human capacity to engage in CC initiatives.

This implies that philanthropic endeavors are promoted as innovative forms of CC by which organisations actively express their commitment to society in general (Matten & Moon, 2008:335, Porter & Kramer, 2002:56). Similarly, Julius (2007:450) suggests that organisational decision making is easier when the interests of all stakeholders coincide.

9.4.3 Management and employees' perceptions of CC behaviour outcomes

- **The influence of perceptions regarding CC behaviour on strategic and operational aspects of organisational performance outcomes**

The empirical findings of this study show that there is a constructive affiliation linking perceptions regarding CC behaviour and organisational performance. Organisational performance is linked with personal growth, performance, proficiency, knowledge and experience (Covey, 2004:53, Jones, George & Hill, 2000:25). The results show that management regards CC behaviour as creating an environment which maximizes competitive advantage, improves organisational visibility in the society, enhances the growth of the organisation, improves the quality of community life and improves profitability (Roman, Piana, Lozano, de Mello & Erdman, 2012:26). Organisational performance can be distinguished in terms of both financial and non-financial aspects, whereas financial reporting is the most common form of measuring performance (Chenhall & Langfield-Smith, 2007:266). Furthermore, the study reveals that engaging in CC initiatives defines business strategies which are aligned with societal needs and this could increase the retention of talented employees who possess valuable core competencies and skills required by the organisation. The focus on welfare systems could also lead to improved organisational efficiency, ultimately capturing the public image that increases recognition amongst international business partners. According to Fauzi *et al.*, (2010:13), the outcome of management processes underpins the measurement of organisational performance.

Furthermore, the empirical study reveals that engaging in CC activities could assist the organisation in being regarded as a leader, amongst its competitors, in the development of human capital. Julius (2007:450) asserts that this implies that all stakeholders should favor local community activities to avoid the danger of pollution or other negative impacts that could damage the organisation's reputation. In order for CC to be prioritized, organisations have to include CC in their strategic plans, thus obtaining total commitment from all stakeholders of the organisation. This notion has been supported by Freeman (2006:9) who purports that the organisation and its stakeholders are indeed embedded in a network of relationships and have to be co-actors of CC policies, strategies and programs.

Furthermore, stakeholders could play a pivotal role in shaping CC policies within the organisation. During operational planning, strategic goals translate into management strategising around the execution of tasks (Kaplan & Norton, 2008:72). Empirical findings by Basil, Runte, Easwaramoorthy & Barr (2009:387) and Peterson (2004a:371, 2004b:615) follow a utility rationale and associate organisational volunteering with the accomplishment of valueable organisational objectives such as the enrichment of worker incentives and obligation, or reputation gains with regard to future employees and clients. Therewith, this manifestation of organisational social participation is openly more perceptible and substantial than other forms of citizenship behaviour such as organisational contributions or the establishment of foundations. In this context, philanthropic endeavors could be used as innovative CC initiatives.

- **The influence of perceptions regarding CC behaviour on strategic and operational aspects of organisational sustainability outcomes**

The empirical findings of this study show that there is a positive relationship between perceptions, CC behaviour and organisational sustainability. Organisational Sustainability can be defined as meeting the requirements of an organisation's direct and indirect stakeholders without compromising its ability to meet the needs of future stakeholders as well (Dyllick, & Hockerts, 2002:131). In this regard, Marrewijk and Verre (2003:107) assert that sustainability can be referred to as an organisation's activities, typically considered voluntary, that demonstrate the inclusion of social and environmental concerns in organisational operations and in interactions with stakeholders. Sustainability reporting is seen as a device to match organisational performance with organisational CSR practices (Ekwueme *et al.*, 2012:709).

Strategic plans frequently define a set of goals and objectives that the organisations expect to achieve by the end of the planning period. Kuosmanen & Kuosmanen (2009:235) state that sustainability is by and large accepted as one of the key factors in the long-term business strategy of an organisation. The results show that management believed that engaging in CC initiatives will develop strategies that are more sustainable and, ultimately, more value creating. A sustainable organisation has a process in place to develop strategic plans that define how the organisation will carry over a set period of time (Coblentz, 2002:2). In this study, it was revealed that organisations are expected to take responsibility for the ways in which their operations affect the societies and the natural environment at large (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:8). The empirical study also reveals that engaging in CC initiatives can ensure the advancement of human well-being, thus resulting in an enhanced organisational image among customers (Coblentz, 2002:20). A sustainable organisation needs to be financially, morally and institutionally strong.

Furthermore, the study finds that organisations continue to apply innovative approaches and are committed to continually improving energy efficiency as well as investing in community projects to improve the organisation's image. Transparency and accountability are essential components of a successful sustainability strategy (Ekwueme *et al.*, 2012:79). The results of this study reveal that top management is supportive of CC engagement and has a suitable CC management process in place. The empirical results of this study are in line with surveys conducted by Matten & Moon (2008:335) and Scherer & Palazzo (2007:1096) which highlight that organisational action is increasingly demanded in the face of governmental cutbacks and this challenges organisations to act as so-called institutional citizens.

In addition, McWilliams *et al.* (2006:1) revealed that there is a notable intensification of premeditated administration practices beyond the organisation's mainstay trade; remarkably, there is a detailed propensity to tactical organisational altruistic commitment. Thus, organisations are expected to make a desirable quality out of inevitability and turn this virtue into planned reward (Windsor 2001:39 Porter & Kramer 2002:56). The study further reveals that organisations promote CC results in producing tangible contributions to the organisation's bottom line. Substantial evidence for this relationship exists in previous studies (Herzig 2006:651 Peterson 2004b:615, Geroy, Wright & Jacoby 2000:280, Hess *et al.*, 2002:110).

The demonstration of organisational community participation is more evident and substantial than other forms of citizenship behaviour, such as organisational contributions or the institution of foundations. In this context, philanthropic endeavors are endorsed as groundbreaking forms of CC by which organisations enthusiastically put across their devotion to the general public (Matten & Moon, 2008:335, Porter & Kramer, 2002:56). Subsequently, the results show that most organisations which participated in this have the financial resources as well as the human capacity to engage in CC initiatives. The results further show that management perceived that engagement in CC initiatives will assist in developing strategies that are more sustainable and, ultimately, more value creating.

Respondents agree that sustainability is a strategic management approach which integrates economic, environmental and social performance that helps the organisation to remain profitable so as to sustain the organisation's long-term survival. In this case, organisations are expected to take responsibility for the ways in which their operations affect society and the natural environment at large (D'Amato *et al.*, 2009:8). This notion is supported by Coblenz (2002:2) who cites that a sustainable organisation needs to be institutionally, financially and morally strong to ensure the long-term sustainability of the organisation. Transparency and responsibility are necessary components of a successful sustainability strategy (Ekwueme *et al.*, 2012:79).

9.5 RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN ZIMBABWE

9.5.1 Organisational Social Responsibility

In this study organisational social responsibility embraces the standards, norms, or prospects related to what consumers, employees, shareholders and the community consider reasonable and impartial, or which protect the stakeholder's moral right. CC embraces a multiplicity of activities extending from cash or gift donations to volunteering programs for socially responsible products and services. Therefore, the organisations can improve their social responsibility by doing the following:

- Progress beyond a vision of moral principles as indispensable for upholding the character of the organisation, through maintaining the values regarding CC initiatives and encouraging the workforce to display the same values.
- Continue to inspire employees to participate in CC activities, because the more committed an organisation is to the extension and profundity of CC programming, the more hands-on employees can be and, at the same time, the higher their commitment.
- Make explicit the ethical and moral values for implementing CC activities.

- Participate in programs that alleviate poverty and strive to reduce unemployment rates in the country by contributing towards subsistence programs; for example, an employee may come up with the idea to open up an office in a neighborhood with a high unemployment rate and offer training for low-wage employees.
- Encourage employees to participate in local community activities such as providing time and expertise to the general public in an effort to help solve social problems around a range of issues including the environment, education, health and development.
- Provide opportunities for employees to get involved in influencing the core proficiencies of the organisation by means of generating organisational value and positive social change. These changes foster the perception of CC as looking beyond passive philanthropy.
- Offer training opportunities to members of the local community; this can be accomplished in various ways, including providing access to more socially responsible products and services such as apprenticeship, work experience for young or disadvantaged and vulnerable groups from specific social settings.
- Contribute to educational institutions in the form of scholarships and research programs, the development of infrastructure such as building schools, libraries or low cost housing schemes. This may however come in the form of financial gifts or other assistance which is volunteered by an organisation in order to support the local community and counterbalance any negative impact of the organisation.
- Participate in activities that go beyond what is required by the law in order to impact positively on society and the environment. Such undertakings may take account of cash donations, event sponsorship, grant making and charitable employee donation programs.

- Engage in philanthropy, even though it has not directly gained economic returns, which helps to create and build the image or reputation of the organisation and enhances the organisation's long term competitive place in the market. In addition, it also helps to intensify worker trustworthiness and consumer fulfillment by addressing poverty, inequality and environmental degradation.
- Ensure ethical responsibility by presenting an organized voluntary action to achieve the social goals which extend beyond legal responsibility.
- Emulate stakeholders, since they have tremendous influence on profitability. It is thus in the best interests of the organisation's bottom line to meet the expectations of these groups by way of enhancing employee values pertaining to CC initiatives. This inspires the very best in individual employee participation in CC initiatives.
- Engage in social responsibility activities; this encourages employees to define their values clearly in terms of CC behaviour. This action successfully motivates engaging and retaining a talented group of workers; hence, skillful individuals choose to work for such organisations because of their involvement in CC initiatives.

9.5.2 Personal Characteristics

There is a need to know that management and employees often evaluate their organisation's performance to determine whether their personal values conflict with those of the business at which they work and are progressively insisting that their workplaces are ethical, safe, provide family-friendly hours and support their local communities. Therefore, it is suggested that:

- Both management and employees show sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others regarding being a good corporate citizen since corporate social performance and cross-cultural sensitivity are positively related.

- Management and employees possess a responsible attitude towards conducting business with sensitivity in the world around them to the betterment of the organisation and society at large.
- Organisational staff strive to incorporate sustainable business practices into all of their actions; for example, improving their environmental impact and supporting the community.
- The workforce should display a willingness to put in a great deal of effort to go beyond what is normally expected in order to be successful in their CC activities; this is a sign of deeply caring for the community which will in turn allow the organisation to remain socially viable.
- The thought behind this is that, those organisations that are mindful of their employees' well-being, will give back as much or more in terms of both physical and emotional commitment towards the benefit of the organisation. This is possible when employees make a meaningful contribution to initiating and implementing CC projects.
- Both management and employee engagement ultimately comes down to an employee's desire and willingness to give discretionary efforts in their jobs. Considering self-concept is important in this regard because it helps to explain CC behaviour.
- In order to remain competitive in the market economy, organisations need to be sensitive to the concerns of a range of stakeholders; these concerns include helping the environment, sustainable advancement and caring about humanity in a broad-spectrum.
- There is an increase in demand for organisations to attend to social concerns, and organisations which are not sensible and socially responsible are losing the advantage to their competitors.

In this regard, organisations should treat all employees fairly and respectfully, regardless of gender or ethnic background; this encourages individual employees to take pride in conveying to friends and acquaintances that they are associated with such an organisation.

- Personality influences one's orientation and commitment to CC and workers with pleasant sentiments regarding their organisation's socially responsible undertakings are further engaged, confident and prospectively display an intention to stay with the organisation.
- Long standing commitment to serve in the organisation inspires other members of the workforce to promote CC, encourages team work for the effective execution of CC projects and encourages individual employees to accept any type of job assignment with the view of participation in CC activities.
- Personal characteristics encourage management to consider hiring from economically distressed communities in order to alleviate poverty.

9.5.3 Market Orientation

In this study, it is suggested that the focus of the organisation should be on adapting the products and services to the needs and expectations of its customers, therefore:

- It encourages being innovative as way of providing services to the poor and, in the face of such a seemingly impossible mission, organisations have been able to create new products which not only help the poor, but are also profitable by means of using the latest information technology which creates value for all stakeholders.
- Organisations are encouraged to take heed that market orientation (MO) is concerned with synchronized organisational aptitude invention, intelligence

dissemination and responsiveness to market data and information, for efficient and effective marketing management decisions.

- Organisations should have the latest information technology (IT) to acquire, process and communicate information using Facebook and other social media to engage with stakeholders regarding CC initiatives. The use of the latest IT creates value for all stakeholders and, at the same time adopts, a philosophy of societal marketing to enhance the well-being of the society.
- Organisations should be interested in the effects of their daily operations and in the costs of introducing market oriented programs which improves the safety and efficiency of products for customers and this indicates ethical decision-making procedures drawn from a ethics code.
- Organisations should discover that market orientation is indeed positively related to organisational profitability, measured by return on investment and linked with customer and employee satisfaction. The highest level of market orientation will lead to increased innovation and organisational learning that will, in turn, lead to better performance, as the organisation obtains more knowledgeable employees who make better products and provide a better service.
- Organisations should make it a culture where employees throughout the organisation are committed to continually creating superior customer value, or offer a sequence of marketing activities that lead to better performance such as actively offering a good work balance for its workforce by periodically availing flexible working hours, time off and leave.
- Organisations should provide competitive advantages if the top management's attitude towards employees is in the spirit of the market orientation rules. Such an organisation is more marketable and this builds and nurtures employee diversity within the organisation. This approach shows that organisations with a higher level of market orientation are able to become better accustomed to new

conditions and achieve lower market orientation in the case of higher levels of local self-government.

- Organisation should strive to expand international trade with various countries by utilizing safe technology in the design and manufacturing of products or services for their customers.
- Organisations should ensure that adequate steps are taken against all forms of discrimination in the workplace and in a marketplace. They should also show tolerance towards different cultural groups of customers and employees, like women, ethnic groups, disabled people and under-privileged individuals.
- Market orientation support, established on constructive peripheral relationships in different enriching settings, attract improved services from government.
- Organisations should ensure transparency in all their advertising and promotions, supply accurate information about their products and after sales obligations, and ensure honesty in all their contracts such as being fair in their purchasing policy for the benefit of their customers.
- Market oriented organisations perform better than organisations that are less market oriented by working with suppliers to ensure that they operate ethically and register complaints from customers quickly. Thus they have a process to ensure effective feedback consultation and/or dialogue with customers.

9.5.4 Organisational Performance

It is important for the organisation to know that CC can also contribute to its stock of intangible assets to financial performance and, ultimately, the survival of the organisation and that organisational reputation is a pivotal intangible resource that contributes to an organisation's competitive advantage.

CC is an excellent strategic tool and is able to capture different degrees of the organisation and reveals whether organisational structures and procedures are indeed designed in ways that allow an organisation to systematically realize CC. The study suggests the following:

- The top advantages to adopting a triple bottom line approach are increased revenue and market share, increased employee retention and attaining a favorable public image.
- A good organisation's reputation increases the chances for the organisation to earn above average financial returns and focus on the welfare system that improves organisational efficiency.
- Socially responsible organisations have a reduced risk of negative rare events and are regarded as cost effective leaders amongst their competitors; this maximizes competitive advantage in the process.

Organisations are encouraged to engage in ethical practices that enhance the growth of business, such as defining business strategies that are aligned with societal needs and focusing on safety that improves employee productivity.

- Organisations should improve the security of supply and overall market stability, and the effective managing of social, environmental, legal and economic risks.
- It is advantageous, for big and small organisations, to be socially responsible and conscious about the interests of stakeholders.
- Organisations that participate in socially responsible activities impact upon the financial performance of their business and are regarded as leaders in the development of human capital amongst competitors.
- CC increases recognition among international business partners and improves visibility in the society.

- Organisational commitment increases employee productivity and lowers turnover risk because the employees which are hired possess valuable core competencies and skills required in the industry.
- Organisations involved in improving the community's quality of life are also likely to gain sustainable profitability.

9.5.5 Organisational Sustainability

It is important for organisations to generate a sense of looking after the people and the community as well as the environment in order to realize relevant long-term business survival. The study suggests that:

- Organisations should provide assurance that they will remain profitable in order to maintain their long-term survival through developing strategies that are more sustainable.
- An organisation that is regarded as socially responsible can also benefit from its reputation within the organisation and the external community, this also ensures the advancement of human well-being.
- This will increase the ability to attract capital and trading partners and reveals organisational practices related to organisational sustainability so as to remain relevant in the future.
- Organisations should understand sustainability as a strategic management approach that integrates economic, environmental and social performance, and to develop strategies that are ultimately more value creating.
- Commitment of senior management and the board is a critical success factor for embedding sustainability.
- Management should address the motivation of organisations to get involved in social responsibility activities, and ways of implementing issues of sustainable supply chain management.

- Organisations should encourage the application of innovative approaches that result in investing in community projects that improve the organisation's image among customers.
- Organisations should strive to continuously remain committed to improving energy efficiency such as setting global targets for energy management and climate protection, as part of the climate and energy package, such as an energy efficiency plan, making effort sharing decisions, renewable energy directives and the legal framework. For example, tackling the climate and energy might guarantee the job creation, the generation of green growth and strengthening the competitiveness of the organisations in the country.

9.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

- The study has contributed to the existing body of knowledge by developing a hypothetical model which can be use in all organisations in Zimbabwe and in other developing countries where CC is not viewed as central to good business practice.
- The findings of this study could assist the convening of forums and exchange programs between organisations, academia and government in terms of information sharing and providing technical advice regarding CC practices.
- The study could assist the organisation to strengthen and acknowledge its role in developing society through good CC, which is exemplified by the organisation's capability to internalise CC programs in its policy formulation.
- The results of the study could assist the private consortiums that provide CC in the community to create opportunities for joint practices and resource sharing.

- The study could pressurize the government to play a significant role by having more regulations in place around CC issues, particularly those whereby organisations favor the voluntary approach.
- The study will open up an avenue for civil society to influence the development of CC amongst organisations through demanding that the state implements CC policies, and regulates and controls the organisational sector, since they are less involved.
- The study could influence global standards and frameworks like the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), the UN Global Compact (UNGC), and the International Labor Organisation's (ILO) formations so as to have a distinct impact on the country, as is the case in Europe and other developed states.
- The findings of the study can inform strategic policy formulation and the implementation of CC initiatives in developing countries.
- The results of the study provide operational guidelines for CC implementation in organisations.
- The results of the study could make organisations realize that local initiatives make businesses sustainable as they foster long-term community relationships and investment.
- The study could provide organisations with a unique opportunity to improve CC practice and introduce innovative ways of doing business.
- The results could assist organisations in using their capabilities to constructively contribute to the country's socioeconomic development through reciprocal engagement with stakeholders
- The measuring instrument and model developed can be used by organisations in other developing countries.

- The study provided practical guidelines for organisations to guarantee the successful implementation of CC.
- The research design and methodology used in this study can be safely used by other studies of a similar nature to conduct empirical research.

9.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study encountered some limitations as it was conducted at a point in time when Zimbabwe was facing economic policy instability, as a result of macroeconomic challenges. The country is faced with the unavailability and cost of funding, infrastructure, power shortages, high labor costs and inflexible labor laws. As a consequence of this, the respondents were hesitant to participate in the study, as they feared that the study might want to unveil the malpractice in organisations. Other respondents barred their employees from participating in this study by citing that they will issue out inaccurate information which will tarnish the image of their organisation(s), despite reading the attached letter from the university. The other limitation faced in this study was related to the number of questions on the questionnaire. The majority of the respondents complained that there were too many questions and suggested that the researcher should have a limited number of questions. The sampling techniques, non-probability sample based on convenience, was also a hindrance as it was not a representation of the entire population.

9.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has, to a certain extent, investigated management and employees perceptions regarding the CC behaviour in Zimbabwe and has created opportunities which can be explored in future research. Other researchers who are fascinated with the area of CC behaviour can exploit the model developed in this study to explore management perceptions regarding CC behaviour related to strategic and operational planning in other countries. Another research study could explore the impact of CC behaviour in respect of poverty alleviation since this study focuses primarily on moral and social responsibilities beyond profit maximization.

Research on other hand is considered essential in order to have a comprehensive image of the impact of CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. Other studies can examine the CC behaviour suitable for Zimbabwe, and Africa at large, as noted in the previous studies that some methods were more suitable for developed countries whilst others were more appropriate for countries with stable economic conditions.

9.9 CONCLUSION

The empirical results of this study demonstrate that the independent variables of the study, that is, organisational responsibility, personal importance, personal characteristics, environmental involvement as well as market-orientation all influence management perceptions of CC behaviour in Zimbabwe. Equally as important as this, the study reveals that perceptions of CC behaviour have an optimistic influence on the dependent variables of the study, namely, organisational performance and organisational sustainability as far as CC behaviour in Zimbabwe is concerned. It is imperative for organisations to consider these perceptions when engaging in CC activities. The conclusions of this study will assist organisations in both developed and developing countries which engage in CC behaviour to effectively implement plausible CC programs.

The results of the study offer organisations of all sizes compelling evidence for the establishment of an integrated corporate citizenship strategy as part of their overall organisational plan; this is particularly significant since there is a growing trend toward developing a strategic plan for CC in order to gain a reputation for being a good corporate citizen. This, ultimately, makes it easier for organisations to do business. The study also generates a suggestion for other researchers to fill in the gaps that still exist in the body of knowledge related to CC behaviour in Zimbabwe.

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APPENDIX A

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June 2014

Dear Participant

**RESEARCH PROJECT: PERCEPTIONS REGARDING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) BEHAVIOUR
IN ZIMBABWE**

Ms I Muzvidziwa is a registered PhD student in the Department of Business Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. She is currently busy with an empirical study investigating perceptions of corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour in Zimbabwe. Corporate citizenship refers to a business in good standing with the community, respecting its employees, its environment and other stakeholders. A good corporate citizen employs strong ethical standards and abides by all laws and regulations. It is envisaged that this study will provide useful insight into identifying key aspects related to behaviour in corporate citizenship in Zimbabwe.

The purpose of this study is to investigate corporate citizenship (CC) behaviour and its impact on organizational performance in Zimbabwe. The questionnaire consists of six sections. All data sources will be treated as confidential and would be used for research purposes only. The majority of the data will be reported in statistical form and no individual respondents will be identified. You can complete the questionnaire anonymously. Thank you very much for your willingness and time to complete this questionnaire.

Regards

Prof NE Mazibuko & Prof EE Smith

Research coordinators

Ms I Muzwidziwa

Researcher

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP (CC) BEHAVIOUR IN ZIMBABWE

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the statements in Sections A to E by means of a cross (X) in the boxes provided. The following scale is used: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly agree. Section F seeks to solicit biographical and data. Please indicate your response to the statements by making a cross (X) in the appropriate numbered box.

SECTION A

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS IMPACTING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

	MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Initiates a dialogue with employees on important decisions regarding work processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Strives to promote the well-being of the workforce (e.g. health safety to provide sufficient protection for employees).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Ensures adequate steps are taken against all forms of discrimination in the work place (e.g. women, ethnic groups, disabled people, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Actively offers a good work-balance for its employees (e.g. flexible working hours etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Encourages employees to develop relevant skills and long-term careers (e.g. offering training programmes).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Makes regular donations to charities in the local community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Facilitates participation in business networks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Contributes to the development of infrastructure such as building schools, libraries or houses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Changes the outlook towards corporate citizenship by looking beyond passive philanthropy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Contributes to educational institutions in the form of scholarships and research programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Negotiates employee benefits with all role players (e.g. housing, comprehensive insurance cover for health/accident etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Works with suppliers/vendors to ensure that they operate ethically.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Improves the safety and efficiency of products for customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Responds to community or interest groups regarding issues they care about (e.g. health, corruption, poverty, human rights etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Consults with government in terms of socially responsible investment programmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
16	Participates in social activities by holding the organisation accountable for its actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Believes that the general public will bear the cost of social involvement because these costs will be reflected through our pricing strategies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Has an explicit ethical and moral value for implementing corporate citizenship activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Has never incurred fines nor penalties for violations of environmental regulations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Indicates ethical decision-making procedures in an ethics code.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Ensures honesty in all its contracts (e.g. fair purchasing policy).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Ensures transparency in all its advertising promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Supplies accurate information about products, including its after sales obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Provides clear labelling services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Adopts a philosophy of societal marketing to enhance the well-being of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Has a process to ensure effective feedback consultation and or dialogue with customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Register and resolve complaints from customers quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING EXTERNAL FACTORS IMPACTING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

	MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Participates in corporate citizenship resulting in good economic return for shareholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Strives to reduce unemployment rates in the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Attempts to alleviate poverty by means of contributing towards subsistence programs (e.g. training for low-wage employees).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Strives to expand international trade with various countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Postpones price increases during inflationary periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Discourages additional regulation of the economic system by the government.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Enjoys government privileges by getting financial assistance for engaging in corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Meets requirements in terms of employment, health and safety laws.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Goes beyond what is required by law to make a positive impact on society and the environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	MY ORGANISATION ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
10	Takes into consideration new laws and enforcements when planning new products and services programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Uses the latest information technology to acquire process and communicate information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Uses Facebook and other social media to engage with stakeholders regarding corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Uses the latest information technology to create value for all stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Drives its corporate citizenship agenda through various information technology platforms.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Utilises safe technology in designing and manufacturing of products or services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Attempts to reduce its environmental impact (e.g. energy conservation, waste management, recycling, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Reduces costs by managing its environmental impact (e.g. by reducing energy consumption, pollution, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Considers the potential environmental impact when developing new products and services (e.g. assessing energy usage, recyclability, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Provides clear and accurate environmental information on its products to customers and suppliers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Have well-defined policies to protect the natural environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Offers training opportunities to people from the local community (e.g. apprenticeships, work experience for young or disadvantaged groups, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Encourages employees to participate in local community activities (e.g. by providing time and expertise).	1	2	3	4	5	6	6
23	Shows tolerance towards different cultural groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Builds and nurtures employee diversity within the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Provides in-house training programmes for HIV AIDS care givers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING PERSONAL FACTORS IMPACTING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

	I believe that ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My values are very similar to those of the organisation regarding corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My organisation inspires the very best in me to participate in corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My values in terms of good corporate citizenship behaviour are clearly defined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I would compromise personal values when it comes to achieving organisational goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Stakeholders are aware of my values towards corporate citizenship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Working in a team rather than as an individual is better for executing corporate citizenship projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	One should treat all employees fairly and respectfully, regardless of gender or ethnic background.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	One should care deeply for the community so as to be socially responsible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9	Personality influences one's orientation and commitment towards corporate citizenship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Considering self-concept is important because it helps to explain corporate citizenship behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I will accept almost any type of job assignment in order to participate in corporate citizenship activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to be successful in corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	My long-standing commitment to service will inspire my colleagues to promote corporate citizenship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I am glad that I have chosen to work for this organisation because it is involved in corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I have a responsibility to conduct business with sensitivity in the world around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I always seek to incorporate sustainable business practices into all of my actions (e.g. improve environmental impact and to support community).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Hiring people from economically distressed communities alleviates poverty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I show sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others regarding being a good corporate citizen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Purchasing from women-owned suppliers uplift the welfare of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	My organisation believes that ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
21	I am the only talented staff member who can lead any corporate citizenship project in our organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I can make a meaningful contribution towards initiating and implementing corporate citizenship projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I should be part of higher level decision-making concerning initiatives of corporate citizenship in our organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	If I am not at work my department's corporate citizenship team spirit is reduced.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	If I resign as a member of the staff I ought to be consulted on a suitable replacement in my corporate citizenship project team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

	My organisation believes that ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Corporate citizenship needs to be a priority.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Corporate citizenship does a great deal more for their communities than it is realised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Corporate citizenship should be completely voluntary (no laws or regulations should govern it).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	There should be total commitment from all to the agenda of corporate citizenship of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5	There should be written guidelines and policies for the implementation of the corporate citizenship in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The public has a right to expect my actions to be oriented towards corporate citizenship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Stakeholders play an important role in shaping corporate citizenship policies within an organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Its vision and mission statement is centred on conducting business in a socially responsible manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	It is profitable for my organisation to implement strategies of corporate citizenship as it will help the society and my business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Engaging in initiatives of corporate citizenship reduces business risks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	My organisation believes that ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
11	It promotes commitment to corporate citizenship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Corporate citizenship makes a tangible contribution to organisation's bottom-line.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	It has human capacity to engage in corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	It has financial resources to engage in corporate citizenship initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Top management is highly supportive of corporate citizenship engagement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	It has a suitable corporate citizenship management process in place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E

IMPACT OF CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES

	If my organisation is socially responsible ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Its involvement in improving its community's quality of life will also improve sustainable profitability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	It will participate in socially responsible activities which impact the financial performance of business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Its involvement in ethical practices will enhance growth of business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	It will focus on safety that improves employee productivity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	It will focus on welfare systems that improve organisational efficiency.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	It will define business strategies aligned with societal needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	It maximises our competitive advantage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	It is regarded as a cost effective leader among competitors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	It increases the retention of talented employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Its employees possess valuable core competencies and skills required in the industry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	It is regarded as a leader in the development of human capital among competitors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	It captures a favourable public image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	It increases recognition among international business partners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	It improves organisational visibility in the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		S	D	S	N	S	A	S

	If my organisation is socially responsible ...							
15	It will result in greater organisational image among customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	It will invest in community projects to improve the company's image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	It will develop strategies that are more sustainable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	It will develop strategies that are ultimately more value creating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Sustainability will be understood as a strategic managerial approach, which integrates economic, environmental and social performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	It will ensure that we remain profitable to sustain the organisation's long-term survival.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	It will ensure an advancement of human well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	It is committed to continuously improving energy efficiency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	It will ensure to apply innovative approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your position in the organisation

Senior Management	1	Middle Management	2	Supervisory	3	Employees	4
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2. Please indicate your gender

Female	1	Male	2
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3. Please indicate your age group (Years)

21 – 30	1	31 – 40	2	41 – 50	3	51 – 60	4	>60	5
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4. Please indicate your highest educational qualification(s)

'O' Level	1	'A' Level/Diploma	2	Bachelor's degree	3	Post graduate degree/diploma	4	Other (please specify)	5
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5. Please indicate your period of current employment (Years)

1 – 5	1	6 – 10	2	11 – 15	3	16 - 20	4	21 and above	5
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6. Please indicate the sector of your organisation

Manufacturing	1	Financial	6
Agriculture	2	Natural Resources	7
Mining	3	Information Communication Technology	8
Tourism	4	Infrastructure Development	9
Energy	5	Other (Please specify)	10

7. Please indicate the number of employees in your organisation

≤50	1	51-100	2	101 – 150	3	151 – 200	4	>200	5
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8. Please indicate the years of existence of your organisation

1 – 5	1	6 – 10	2	11 – 15	3	16 – 20	4	Over 21	5
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9. Please indicate the annual turnover of your organisation

< US\$ 500 000	1
US\$ 500 000 – 999 999	2
US\$ 1 000 000 – 1 499 999	3
US\$ 1 500 000 – 1 999 999	4
> US\$ 2 000 000	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION

APPENDIX C

ETHICS CLEARANCE FOR TREATISES/DISSERTATIONS/THESES

Please type or complete in black ink

FACULTY: _Business and Economic Sciences_____

DEPARTMENT: _Business Management _____

I, (surname and initials of supervisor) Mazibuko N.E. _____

the supervisor for (surname and initials of candidate) Muzvidziwa I. _____

(student number) 211077550_____

a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management with a thesis entitled (full title of thesis): Perceptions regarding corporate citizenship behaviour in Zimbabwe considered the following ethics criteria (*please tick the appropriate block*):

	YES	NO
1. Is there any risk of harm, embarrassment or offence, however slight or temporary, to the participant, third parties or to the communities at large?		X
2. Is the study based on a research population defined as 'vulnerable' in terms of age, physical characteristics and/or disease status?		X
2.1 Are subjects/participants/respondents of your study:		
(a) Children under the age of 18?		X
(b) NMMU staff?		X
(c) NMMU students?		X
(d) The elderly/persons over the age of 60?		X
(e) A sample from an institution (e.g. hospital/school)?		X
(f) Handicapped (e.g. mentally or physically)?		X
3. Does the data that will be collected require consent of an institutional authority for this study? (An institutional authority refers to an		X

organisation that is established by government to protect vulnerable people)		
3.1 Are you intending to access participant data from an existing, stored repository (e.g. school, institutional or university records)?		X
4. Will the participant's privacy, anonymity or confidentiality be compromised?		X
4.1 Are you administering a questionnaire/survey that:		
(a) Collects sensitive/identifiable data from participants?		X
(b) Does not guarantee the anonymity of the participant?		X
(c) Does not guarantee the confidentiality of the participant and the data?		X
(d) Will offer an incentive to respondents to participate, i.e. a lucky draw or any other prize?		X
(e) Will create doubt whether sample control measures are in place?		X
(f) Will be distributed electronically via email (and requesting an email response)?		X
Note:		

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If your questionnaire DOES NOT request respondents' identification, is distributed electronically and you request respondents to return it <i>manually</i> (print out and deliver/mail); AND respondent anonymity can be guaranteed, your answer will be NO. If your questionnaire DOES NOT request respondents' identification, is <i>distributed via an email link and works through a web response system (e.g. the university survey system)</i>; AND respondent anonymity can be guaranteed, your answer will be NO. 		
--	--	--

Please note that if **ANY** of the questions above have been answered in the affirmative (**YES**) the student will need to complete the full ethics clearance form (REC-H application) and submit it with the relevant documentation to the Faculty RECH (Ethics) representative.

and hereby certify that the student has given his/her research ethical consideration and full ethics approval is not required.

U. Mazurko

SUPERVISOR(S)

U. Mazurko

HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

[Signature]

STUDENT(S)

28/11/2014

DATE

28/11/2014

DATE

28/11/2014

DATE

Please ensure that the research methodology section from the proposal is attached to this form.

APPENDIX D

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• Port Elizabeth • 6031 • South Africa • www.nmmu.ac.za



**Nelson Mandela
Metropolitan
University**

for tomorrow

26 November 2014

To Whom it May Concern

I herewith confirm that I have proofread the following dissertation:

Title of study: *Management perceptions regarding corporate citizenship
behaviour in Zimbabwe*

Student Name: Itai Muzvidziwa

Student Number: 211077550

Qualification: PhD

I suggested relevant changes, where I saw fit, using the "Track Changes" function in MSWord; the student could thus either accept or reject the suggested changes at her own discretion.

I trust that this is in order.

Kind regards,

Nancy Morkel

MA English (NMMU), PGDHET (UFH), BA Hons English (UPE), BA MCC (UPE)

nancy.morkel@nmmu.ac.za