

**Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility
Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in
Harare, Zimbabwe**

by

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**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctorate in Business Leadership**



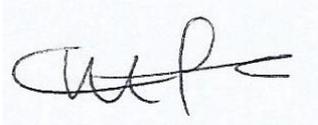
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Declaration

I, Maxwell Chufama, declare that this thesis entitled '*Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe*' is my original research except where otherwise indicated. The thesis has not been submitted prior at any university for any form of examination or qualification. In areas where the thesis contains other peoples' ideas or information, the ideas or information have been acknowledged by means of complete reference. Tables or diagrams that have been taken from other sources either as they are or changed to suit the study, were referenced respectively.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'M. Chufama', is placed over a light blue rectangular background.

Date: 19 December 2019

Acknowledgements

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Abstract

The study was conducted in Harare as regards Zimbabwe's mobile telecommunications sector, examining the influence of a selected factors on consumers' awareness of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and the effects that CSR awareness has on consumers. The practice of CSR influences a number of business aspects including firm financials, corporate image, corporate reputation and market share. This study has been ignited by the fact that little evidence exist in studies covering the precursors and effects of CSR awareness from the consumers' perspective. More so, that Zimbabwe's mobile telecommunications sector is currently the fastest growing sector accompanied with numerous CSR activities.

The present study therefore sought to answer the questions which includes; (i) does ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector? (ii) what is the effect of age, gender and level of education on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector? (iii) what is the influence of consumer awareness of CSR on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector? (iv) what is the effect of corporate image on consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector? (v) what is the effect of consumer attitude on purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector? (vi) what is the effect of purchase intention on actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector?

A mixed research study was carried out using a self-administered questionnaire on 1,100 mobile telecommunications sector consumers in Harare, Zimbabwe. Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS with AMOS while qualitative data was analysed using NVIVO. The study results indicate that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity positively influence consumer CSR awareness while age, gender and level of education do not influence consumer CSR awareness. CSR awareness proves to have a direct influence on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and not on actual purchase behaviour.

The study findings show a direct positive relationship among corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. The study recognized that respondents are aware of CSR in the form of firm donations, assistance towards social causes, improving the environment, building or renovating facilities, good services, affordable prices and promotional programs. Study results points out that respondents are aware of CSR through platforms such as advertising, sending text messages, firms' ethical or professional conduct, campaigns and exhibitions.

List of Acronyms

ACR	Association for Consumer Research
AERA	American Educational Research Association
AGM	Annual General Meeting
AMA	American Marketing Association
ANCOVA	Analysis Of Covariance
ANOVA	Analysis Of Variance
ATO	Attitude Toward Object
B C	Before Christ
BPM	Behavioural Perspective Model
CA	Company Ability
CBI, UK	Confederation of British Industry, United Kingdom
CCID	Company Consumer or Customer Identity
CDMM	Consumer Decision Making Model
CED	Committee for Economic Development
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CER	Corporate Environmental Responsibility
CRM	Customer Relationship Management
CrM	Cause related-Marketing
CSI	Corporate Social Investment
CSO	Corporate Social Orientation
CSP	Corporate Social Performance
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSRep	Corporate Social Reporting
EI	Environmental Involvement
ELM	Elaboration Likelihood Model
FIFA	Federation Internationale de Football Association
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IoDSA	Institute of Directors in Southern Africa
ISO	International Standards Organisation
JCR	Journal of Consumer Research
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis Of Variance

NBA	National Basketball Association
NFL	National Football League
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNISA	University of South Africa
US (USA)	United States (of America)
USD	United States Dollar
POTRAZ	Postal and Telecommunications Regulatory Authority of Zimbabwe
RBZ	Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe
R&D	Research and Development
SBL	School of Business Leadership
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SJT	Social Judgement Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SR	Social Responsibility
TBB	Theory of Buyer Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
WBCSSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Social Development
WOM	Word Of Mouth
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistical Agency

Terminology

Actual purchase behaviour	-the act of getting or acquiring a product or the mannerism exhibited in the act of getting or acquiring a product (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2014).
Consumer attitude	-favourability or dis-favourability tendencies of consumers towards a brand, organisation or object (Sahney, 2012).
Consumer rights awareness	-consumer knowledge of privileges or organisations protecting consumers and the exercise of consumer rights and privileges in the marketplace (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012)
Corporate image	-the mental picture or impression that a firm has attained in the society (Lee, 2018; Stoyanov, 2017).
Corporate social responsibility awareness	-information or knowledge that society has on firms' social responsibility initiatives and socio-environmental behaviour (Kotler & Keller, 2015).
Ethical consumerism	-consumer tendencies to prefer ethical firms and brands that are produced, marketed, distributed, consumed and disposed ethically (Thornton, 2012)
Generosity culture	-the emulation by societies of bigheartedness as a value system component (Craig, 2013; Woo & Jin, 2016)
Purchase intention	-the likelihood or willingness that a customer buys a product (Lee & Lee, 2015)
Socio-environmental awareness	-consciousness of issues that affect society and the environment (Butcher & Xu, 2014; Creel, 2010; Sands & Lee, 2015)

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Chapter One: Introduction and Overview

1.1 Introduction

This chapter serves to give both an introduction and overview of the study. The chapter presents the background to the study, problem statement and objectives which were used to guide the study. The chapter further presents the method of investigation, scope and significance of the study, the rationale for selecting the mobile telecommunications sector and lastly, an overview of the entire study is outlined.

1.2 Background to the study

In the 21st century, management is gradually realising that there is an extended obligation in business, beyond set laws, firm growth and economic profits (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Park, Lee & Kim, 2014; Solomon, Russell-Bennett & Previte, 2013; Tibah, vanRijnsoever & Hekkert, 2018, Watson Group, 2015). As such, social responsibility is becoming central to business functioning, more so for big brands. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is generally defined by many scholars as actions by corporates that are aimed at furthering the social good (Brammer, Jackson & Matten, 2012; Chan, 2014; Yoo & Lee, 2018). Furthermore, CSR is viewed as the firms' accountability regarding ethical, environmental, social, human rights and consumer concerns in business practices and core strategy (Bigne-Alcaniz, Curras-Perez & Ruiz-Mafe, 2012; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Gallardo, Sanchez & Castilla, 2015; Tarus, 2015). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) can be evidenced in various forms such as public accountability, corporate governance, corporate sustainability, corporate social performance, corporate social responsiveness and corporate citizenship (Ali & Frynas, 2017; Bystrom & Malstad, 2013; Chang & Cheng, 2017; Elving, 2010; Tong, Wong & Hsiang, 2017). Some of these variables will be discussed at length in the literature review chapter.

In this study, it is important to note that consumers play an integral role in influencing corporates to behave ethically when conducting business. They do this by choosing where to buy and such consumers are referred to as ethical consumers. According to Kotler and Keller (2015) consumers exercise their rights by buying ethically, that is, consumers can choose to buy from firms who have a strong social and environmental orientation. Cole (2017) explains that ethical consumers are consumers who believe in the moral and supportive behavior of firms. Ethical consumerism ranges from ethical sourcing or shopping, ethical purchasing or moral purchasing to ethical consumption

(Čerkasov, Huml, Vokáčová & Margarisová, 2017; Cole, 2017; Thornton, 2012). From the latter, it is clear that ethical consumers carefully consider the impact of their purchase decision and assumed negative products are not preferred (Cole, 2017). Moral boycott and negative buying therefore occurs as a result of buying unethical products while positive buying occurs when ethical products or firms are favoured (Thornton, 2012). Either of the two ends can affect the bottom-line of a business. Cole (2017) intimates that positive or negative consumer attitude, purchase intention and purchase behavior emanates from ethical consumerism. Davies, Lee and Ahonkhai (2012) and Isaacs-Morell (2013) believe that ethical brands or brands that do the right thing have a larger market share. With consumers becoming more ethically oriented (Deng, 2012; Isaacs-Morell, 2013; Singh & Malla, 2017) firms are naturally forced to behave morally or ethically or engage in supportive activities in order to attract and satisfy ethical consumers. Ethical consumerism is therefore an important element in understanding consumer reactions (Carrington, Neville & Whitwell, 2010; Cole, 2017; Karaosman, Morales-Alonso & Grijalvo, 2015; Schmeltz, 2012).

Brammer et al., (2012) add that consumers play a role in a corporate's attention to CSR. A consumer according to Alsmadi and Alnawas (2012) is anyone including all of us, from the president of a country to the people on the market, and all consumers have rights. Consumer rights hinge on the knowledge and mindfulness of people on what constitutes rights (Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015; Kolk, van Dolen & Ma, 2015). In the 21st century, consumers have a heightened sense of CSR through understanding their rights (Bello, Jusoh & Nor 2016). Consumer rights awareness refers to a consumer's understanding and knowledge of his/her rights with respect to corporates, their offerings and services supported by information on appropriate consumer protection agencies (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012; Bello et al., 2016; Solaiman et al., 2012). According to Alsmadi and Khizindar (2015) consumer rights awareness places consumers in a position to make informed decisions, judgements or evaluations. A similar view is held by Bello, Suleiman and Danjuma (2012) who further assert that consumer rights awareness and protection are even discussed under consumerism. Consumerism is defined as planned and organised movement by citizens, government and agencies to improve powers and rights of consumers in relation to sellers (Solaiman, Yasmin & Haque, 2012). Firms need to understand that consumers who are aware of their rights are in a better position to understand, differentiate, judge and evaluate corporate initiatives such as CSR (Toal & Broomes, 2017). With a heightened awareness of consumer rights, it makes sense for corporates to become more CSR oriented in line with the expectations of their consumers. Bello et al., (2016) concurs that consumer awareness of rights is a crucial component in relationships that consumers create and develop with firms. Kotler and Keller (2015) observe that consumer rights differ across countries

due to laws, cultures, economies and demographic factors such as age, gender, education and personalities.

Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) indicate that increased consumer rights awareness tally with an understanding of socio-environmental protection and conservation. People stand, speak on behalf or defend the environment and the rest of the society against any danger or potentially hazardous activity by firms (Shah, 2011). Consumers' quest for socio-environmental sustainability pushes them to be aware of issues that promote or hinder sustainability (Butcher & Xu, 2014; Flammer, 2013; Pesmatzoglou, Nikolaou, Evangelinos & Allan, 2014). Oleszko-Kurzyna (2014) provides key guiding socio-environmental topics which include market environment, public environment, employment, relations with investors, environmental protection, society protection and ecological management. As consumers become aware of societal and environmental protection or conservation, they become assertive on corporate behavior towards the society and environment (Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015). Thus, corporate initiatives such as CSR towards the environment have to be implemented by firms to enhance sustainability (Butcher & Xu, 2014). Chan (2014) also advises that since most consumers' understanding of CSR initiatives is biased towards socio-environmental issues, firms therefore need to study consumer awareness of socio-environmental issues.

To understand consumer awareness of CSR, culture is another crucial component that plays a big role in what kind of initiatives a corporate can implement and how these can be communicated. Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) explain that consumers identify with a company that has similar values to their values. A similar view is held by Solomon et al., (2013) that consumers relate self or societal values to company values through the concept of consumer-company identity. For example, a people's ability to be generous is enshrined in the cultural system and values of a society (Jin & Woo, 2016; Karaosman, Morales-Alonso & Grijalvo, 2016). Generous societies therefore seek alignment of their self or societal values to corporate behavior, that is, when the individual or society values generosity, they expect firms to be generous too. Eccles, Ioannou and Serafeim (2012) expand that collectivist cultures are known for being generous and accommodative than individualistic cultures, therefore, collectivistic cultures easily accept CSR in the form of generous gestures. This is because in these societies, people accept gifts, donations and various forms of help in cash or kind (Kotler & Keller, 2015), as a way of supporting and sustaining each other's basic livelihood (Kim & Lee, 2009). Giving societies therefore believe that firms as legal corporate

citizens, should give back to the community and observe basic community values, like the rest of other human citizens (Minor, 2011). It is important therefore for firms to note that CSR forms such as philanthropic initiatives appeal more to consumers with generosity values and such consumers are on the lookout for firm behaviour that tallies with their principles.

Firms that are responsible develop a positive corporate image while firms that are considered irresponsible are followed by a negative corporate image, likewise, this influences the nature of attitude that consumers develop towards the firm (Chan, 2014; Maldonado-Guzman, Pinzón-Castro & Leana-Morales, 2017; Stoyanov, 2017; Watson Group, 2015). Notably, consumers expect firms to be accountable or responsible and need to be aware of firm activities with regards to this (Chung, Yu, Choi & Shin, 2015; Kotchen & Moon, 2012; Min, Ai, Choo, Wah & Yang, 2012; Rahim, Jalaludin & Tajuddin, 2011). This makes CSR an important brand or corporate image building marketing strategy. Kotler and Keller (2015) contend that a consumer is one of the most important stakeholders because consumers have the capacity to influence change in companies through their purchasing power and preferences. Chan (2014) concurs with Srinaruewan (2013) that consumers are willing to positively reward corporates that are responsible and those that are irresponsible are punished. CSR is not just a social exercise but is believed to touch on corporate image before influencing consumer attitude (Green & Pelozo, 2014; Shabbir, Shariff, Yusof, Salman & Hafeez, 2018).

Firms aim to attain larger market share through understanding consumer attitude (Galalae & Voicu, 2013; Sahney, 2012). That being the case, consumer attitude is an important element to investigate and comprehend for corporate strategic marketing (Galalae & Voicu, 2013; Pant, 2017). Consumer attitude is the favourability or unfavourability tendencies a consumer develops towards an object influenced by internal and external factors (Wongpitch, Minakan, Powpaka and Laohavichien 2016; Solomon et al., 2013). Wongpitch et al., (2016) developed six constructs as fundamental basis to measure consumer attitude which are altruistic motive, self-interest motive, attitude toward the firm, product quality, attitude toward the products, and buying intention. Apart from Wongpitch et al.,'s (2016) six attitude constructs, Solomon et al., (2013) allude that consumer attitude touches on congruence of consumer self values with firm values or consumer-company identity. The attitude consumers develop, play a vital role on the overall consumer behavior (Choi, Feng, Liu & Zhu, 2017; Solomon et al., 2013). Schiffman, O'Cass, Paladino and Carlson (2014) proclaim that understanding consumer attitude, assists in predicting consumer behaviour.

Another variable that is important in consumer behaviour is consumer intention. Tian, Wang and Yang (2011) discuss consumer intention as a predictor of consumer actual reaction. This view is supported by Solomon et al., (2013) who state that purchase intention leads to actual purchase if the consumer has the buying power. Lee and Lee (2015) say that purchase intention leads to the search for money to buy the goods. Nanda (2015) describes purchase intention as a well thoughtout, deliberate or conscious plan towards making an effort to buy. There is a connection between CSR with purchase intention, consumer attitude and purchase intention (Bystrom & Malstad, 2013; Chen et al., 2015; Eshra & Beshir, 2017; Gigauri, 2012). Chen et al., (2015) believe that the connection between CSR and purchase intention is mostly positive. CSR starts by improving corporate image, then positively affects consumer attitude and purchase intention leading to actual purchase (Ali, 2011; Shafiq, Raza & Zia-ur-Rehman, 2011; Wongpitch et al., 2016). Consumer attitudes therefore positively predict purchase intention (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Heidinger, 2012; Wu, Tsai & Tai, 2016). The more consumer attitude goes in favor of a corporate, the higher the chances that the consumer buys the corporate's product (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2016). Bigne-Alcaniz et al., (2012) are of the same view that a favorable consumer brand attitude positively influences consumer purchase intention. The underlying beliefs, assumptions and likings expressed through attitude increase the likelihood of an individual exhibiting intentions towards a brand (Kim & Kim, 2016; Tseng & Chen, 2008). Consumer purchase intention is correlated with firstly consumer awareness of the firm's CSR and secondly consumer attitude formation (Bigne-Alcaniz et al., (2012). Nanda (2015) argues that a consumer who is aware of a firm's CSR develops a positive attitude leading to positive intention. This view is supported by Sweetin et al., (2013) who states that consumers are willing to buy a firm's products when they have been exposed to the firm's CSR efforts. Just as much as consumers have positive attitudes towards firms that are involved in positive social activities, Kang et al., (2016) believe that consumers are willing to punish firms that are socio-environmentally irresponsible. A number of scholars found that consumers have a tendency of both consciously and sub-consciously reacting to the ethicality of a firm (Ali & Frynas, 2017; Nanda, 2015; Singh & Malla, 2017). It is therefore prudent for firms to understand the formation of consumer purchase intention.

According to Gigauri (2012) when consumers develop positive attitudes and intentions, the end result is an actual purchase. Consumers buy more of a product with a price that carries a component or percentage to support societal need or cause (Lobo, Meyer & Chester, 2014). Actual purchase behaviour is further expressed in ways such as re-purchase, willingness to buy on premium price, loyalty and recommending (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Sahney, 2012). Solomon et al., (2013)

refers to actual purchase behaviour as a collection of all consumer tendencies in final purchase. According to Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) consumer purchase behaviour includes mannerisms that a consumer exhibits in the purchasing decision process including post-purchase behaviour. Chen et al., (2015) debate that purchase behaviour is an aspect comprising more elements other than simply the actual purchase. Ahearne, Bhattacharya and Gruen (2010) contend that firms need to find ways to understand how CSR can be inextricably connected to consumer buying decisions. Singh and Malla (2017) agree with Pawlak and Zasuwa (2011) that research in consumer reaction to CSR, especially studies relating to the actual purchase are relatively new. As such, more research needs to be done on consumer reaction to CSR.

Since the formal inception of CSR in the United States in 1950, every Fortune 500 companies and numerous small-medium sized enterprises (SMEs) have some sort of CSR statement and practices (Moon, 2015). The CSR imperative exists in various kinds of reports, mission statements, vision statements, broad values, operations and initiatives which radically changes the corporates' appeal to consumers (Butt, 2016; Moon, 2015). Martinuzzi et al., (2011) affirm that CSR information is disseminated through channels such as corporate articles, reports in magazines, newspapers, product packaging, the internet and public media broadcast statements. CSR communications form the basis of change in consumer appeal and attitude. The emphasis of CSR is not only on business operations but also on the impact of a business on society, care about consumer concerns and collaboration with numerous stakeholders (Davies et al., 2012; Isaacs-Morell, 2013; Kakava, Mbizi & Manyeruke, 2013; Walker & Kent, 2009; Pivato, Misani & Tencati, 2006; Saat & Selamatb, 2014). While many big corporates engage in CRS, the opposite is true of small companies and/ or companies in developing countries. Research shows that local firms in developing countries leave the CSR job to the hands of foreign based companies and multinational firms as if it is their dire obligation (Caroll & Shabana, 2010; Chan, 2014). According to the Institute of International Education (2016), the CSR challenge for local firms in most developing countries is the issue of not implementing CSR, therefore not realising CSR benefits. Chung, Jung and Young (2018) together with Wu and Lin (2014) believe that firms which do not implement CSR stand to incur disastrous results and consumer boycott. Society and the environment will continually be the playground of business and businesses that show awareness and take action to conserve need to be duly rewarded (Michaels & Grüning, 2018; Sweetin et al., 2013).

A lot of debate however is taking place among scholars as to whether corporates should communicate their own CSR initiatives or not and if so how. Some scholars believe it is a

corporates' responsibility to inform the general public and target markets about the good the firm is doing (Lobo et al., 2014; Martinuzzi, Krumay & Pisano, 2011; Raza, Bhutta, Iqbal & Faraz, 2018) while others believe third parties should be responsible for CSR communication (Munoz-Torres, Fernandez-Izquierdo, Rivera-Lirio & Escrig-Olmedo, 2018). Both approaches have benefits and consequences which will be discussed in this study. What can be said is that communicating CSR initiatives however is a double-edged sword, with a capacity to boost the image of the company or to destroy it especially if the consumers view the message as a public relations exercise for the firm's benefit.

The discussion above shows that CSR has potential to remain ever-changing, dynamic and unpredictable in its form and practice. Barnett and Salomon (2012) refer to this as the continued modernisation of CSR (van Doom, Onrust, Verhoef & Bugel, 2017; Wisdom, Lawrence, Akindele & Muideen, 2018). Kang, Germann and Grewal (2016) admit that CSR has become increasingly important in today's business practices as a social duty that a firm has to perform. That being the case, it makes good sense for firms to contribute towards social and environmental responsibilities (Čerkasov et al., 2017; Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, Murphy & Gruber, 2014; Torrico, Frank & Tavera, 2018). Additionally, it is important and necessary for researchers to interrogate this phenomenon as it has a wide-ranging impact in the business world and society as shown above.

1.3 Statement of the problem

There are few consumer behaviour studies that capture the views or voices of consumers on what consumers consider as CSR best practices (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016; Popa & Salanta, 2014). CSR studies relating to consumer behaviour are evident mostly in developed countries and literature does not provide significant attempts specific to developing countries (Ali, 2011; Barnett & Salomon, 2012; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Examining Apple's Core, 2012; Isaacs-Morell, 2013, van Doom et al., 2017). Moreso, CSR and consumer behaviour studies in the emerging and developing countries are mostly evident in other nations outside Africa (Rahim et al., 2011, Shabbir et al., 2018). There is a dearth of CSR and consumer behaviour studies carried out specifically in developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Eshra & Beshir, 2017; Institute of International Education, 2016; Rahim et al., 2011). The current inconsistent, unclear and incomplete knowledge regarding CSR and consumer behaviour in developing countries requires studies to be carried out, with particular focus on sub-Sahara Africa.

Furthermore, literature does not provide evidence of research on ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture as precursors or antecedents of CSR awareness in sub-Saharan Africa. Antecedents are factors positively or negatively influencing CSR awareness, thus, this study focuses on ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture. Cole (2017) is of the view that consumers who believe in ethical consumption, ethical purchase, ethical sourcing and ethical shopping (also termed ethical consumers or green consumers) have an influence on firms' attention to CSR. Nevertheless, the extent to which ethical consumerism influences CSR awareness on the part of consumers has not been well articulated in literature (Ali & Frynas, 2017; Cole, 2017; Wisdom et al., 2018). As consumers comprehend their rights, they also develop a sense of CSR awareness. Consumer rights have been studied in conjunction with consumer protection (Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015). Bello et al., (2016) support Alsmadi and Khizindar (2015) that consumer rights awareness improves consumer CSR alertness. However, Toal and Broomes (2017) advocate that studies need to provide an understanding of how consumer rights awareness leads to consumer CSR awareness.

Globally, efforts are underway by local, international and global firms to protect and conserve the socio-environment (Choi et al., 2017; Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Munoz-Torres et al., 2018; Sands & Lee, 2015). Oleszko-Kurzyna (2014) observes that when firms start to promote their business through socio-environmental consciousness and reporting, consumers become aware of their efforts. Little has been done to express how consumer socio-environmental awareness influence consumer awareness of CSR. Societal values such as generosity cause consumers to support firms practising CSR in the form of philanthropy (Jin & Woo, 2016; Karaosman et al., 2016; Kotler & Keller, 2015). Consumers generally relate or identify with a firm that follows societal values (Elbedweihy & Jayawardhena, 2014; Michaels & Gruning, 2018). According to Marumbwa (2013) a firm adopting societal values into its practical CSR strategy attains consumer appeal, however, there is a dearth of studies measuring how a generosity culture leads to heightened CSR awareness.

In addition, there is little knowledge on the influence of CSR awareness on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. Consequences are the consumer behaviour results of CSR awareness and this study focuses on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. Research on the effect of CSR on corporate image from consumers' perspective, is in its infancy stage (Green & Peloza, 2014; Kotchen & Moon, 2012;

Lee, 2018; Walker & Kent, 2009; Torrico et al., 2018). Ali (2011), Shafiq et al., (2011) and Wongpitch et al., (2016) believe that CSR has a direct link to corporate image. However, few studies have attempted to connect CSR awareness to corporate image and to illustrate how the developed corporate image leads to consumer attitude (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Chan, 2014; Stoyanov, 2017; Watson Group, 2015). Research still shows that consumers are willing to reward a firm that does good to the society through positive consumer attitude (Chan, 2014; Lii et al., 2013; Yuan-Shuh, Kuang-Wen & May-Ching, 2013). There is insufficient empirical evidence from developing countries unveiling the connection between CSR awareness and consumer attitude (Mangnale, Potluri & Degufu, 2011; Martinuzzi et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2016). In the light of the background extended above, the challenges and gaps in literature, this study investigates how CSR awareness influences consumer attitude with particular reference to Zimbabwe, a developing sub-Saharan country. The study used respondents drawn from Zimbabwe's mobile telecommunications sector.

The goal of understanding consumers is to provoke actual buying (Sahney, 2012). Thus, the study addresses the existing link between purchase intention and CSR awareness. This is because marketing is effective by achieving actual purchase (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Wongpitch et al., 2016). A number of scholars are of the view that positive purchase intention has been associated with consumer CSR awareness (Bystrom & Malstad, 2013; Chen et al., 2015; Eshra & Beshir, 2017; Gigauri, 2012). This view is contradicted by Pan (2017) who argues against the fact that CSR awareness instills consumer positive purchase intention. Pawlak and Zasuwa (2011) opine that consumer studies relating CSR awareness to actual purchase are also relatively new. It is not yet clear whether CSR awareness can affect consumer actual purchase and therefore it is the aim of this study to addresses that.

Furthermore, there is need to carry out research on the relationship between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. This is because, the nature of relationship between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour is still unclear (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Lee & Lee, 2015). Gigauri (2012) reasons that consumer actual purchase is related to purchase intention, while purchase intention is linked to consumer attitude. Kotler and Lee (2005) suggest that consumer attitude is directly linked to corporate image. Pan (2017) concurs with Tian et al., (2011) in using purchase intention as an ultimate predictor of consumer actual purchase, while Bigne-Alcaniz et al., (2012) proclaim that a positive consumer brand attitude positively influences consumer purchase intention. The current research hopes to clarify the kind of relationship that exists between these variables.

This study was conducted in Zimbabwe's mobile telecommunications sector due to the following reasons stated. Firstly, that there is insufficient literature regarding consumer awareness of CSR and consumer behaviour in developing countries in general (Ali, 2011; Barnett & Salomon, 2012; Brewer & Rojas, 2008; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Examining Apple's Core, 2012; Isaacs-Morell, 2013). Secondly, literature does not have evidence on consumer awareness of CSR and consumer behaviour studies specific to Zimbabwe (Eshra & Beshir, 2017; Institute of International Education, 2016; Rahim et al., 2011). Thirdly, the mobile telecommunications sector of Zimbabwe is currently experiencing an increasing growth rate and actively conducting CSR (Chimhangwa, 2014; Econet Wireless, 2015; Kufandirimbwa, Kabanda, Hapanyengwi & Kabanda, 2013; Marumbwa, 2013; Nyawuyanga, 2015; POTRAZ, 2017; RBZ, 2016). Lastly, the researcher is a resident in Zimbabwe, thus making the execution of the study more feasible.

1.4 Research objectives

The primary research aim of the study is to investigate the antecedents and consequences of consumer awareness of CSR. The secondary research objectives of the study are as follows;

- i) To determine the influence of ethical consumerism, rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- ii) To determine the effect of age, gender and level of education on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- iii) To determine the effect of CSR awareness on corporate image, attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour on consumers in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- iv) To test the effects of corporate image on consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- v) To test the effects of consumer attitude on purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- vi) To test the effects of purchase intention on actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector.

1.5 Research questions

The primary research question of the study is; what are the antecedents and consequences of CSR awareness of mobile telecommunications consumers in Harare, Zimbabwe? The secondary research questions of the study are as follows;

- i) How does ethical consumerism, rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector?
- ii) How does age, gender and level of education affect consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector?
- iii) What are the effects of CSR awareness on corporate image, attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour on consumers in the mobile telecommunications sector?
- iv) What are the effects of corporate image on consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector?
- v) What are the effects of consumer attitude on purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector?
- vi) What are the effects of purchase intention on actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector?

1.6 Research hypotheses and research model

This section provides the research model and the research hypotheses that have been formulated regarding this study. The diagrammatic representation of the research model is tagged with H1 – H12 as indicators of the hypotheses statements of this study. The section will start by giving the hypotheses and then the diagrammatic representation of the research model as follows.

1.6.1 Research hypotheses

H1. Ethical consumerism positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H2. Consumer rights awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H3. Socio-environmental awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H4. Consumer generosity culture positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

- H5a. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to age.
- H5b. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to gender.
- H5c. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to level of education.
- H6. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects corporate image in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- H7. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- H8. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- H9. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- H10. Corporate image positively predicts affects attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- H11. Consumer attitude positively affects purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- H12. Purchase intention positively affects actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector.

1.6.2 Research model

The researcher developed a research model in an effort to map out and explain the proposed relationships that exists between the main constructs of the study. Figure 1.1 illustrates the research model proposed for the current study and the associated hypotheses.

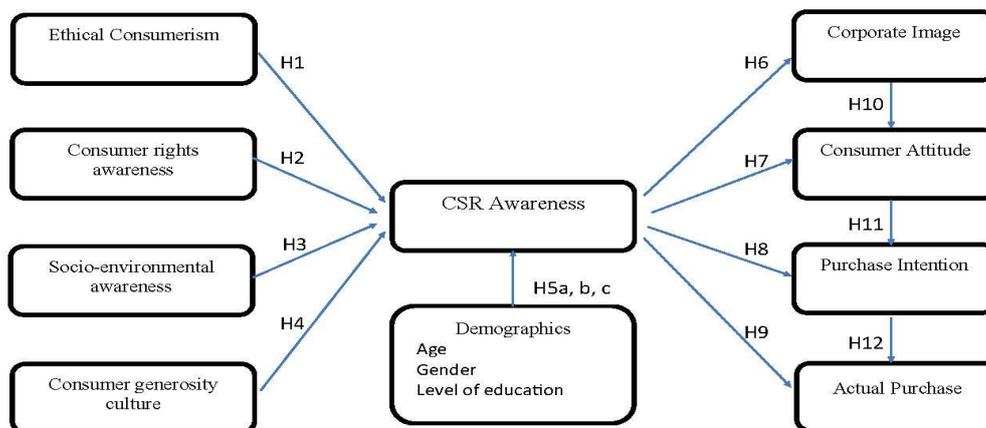


FIGURE 1.1: RESEARCH MODEL OF THE STUDY

Source: Literature Study

1.7 Overview of the method of investigation

This study adopted a pragmatic research paradigm and in sync with that, the study adopted a cross-sectional, mixed research approach. The researcher utilised a self-administered questionnaire which comprised closed-questions (making the bulky of the questions) and two open-ended questions. The questionnaire was developed with the guide of other scholars or researchers who carried out similar studies and the instrument was pilot tested on 25 respondents with minor challenges experienced. The questionnaire was administered to 1,100 mobile telecommunication consumers in Harare. The consumers were conveniently identified and incorporated in the study as they walked in the streets or found available at the mobile telecommunication firms' service centers. The study targeted consumers who are mature, independent or able to make their own purchase decisions (18 – 65 years). Since one questionnaire with both closed-ended and open-ended questions was used, the participants used were concurrent, that is the same consumer would answer both the closed-ended and open-ended questions at the same time. Closed-ended questions yielding quantitative data were analysed using SPSS with AMOS while two qualitative open-ended questions were analysed using NVIVO. These will be explained in detail in the methodology chapter.

1.8 Scope of the study

The present research study investigated the influence of consumer awareness of CSR on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour towards mobile telecommunication firms. As such the study falls within two fields, that is organisational behaviour and marketing strategy. The key constructs of the study include factors promoting or hindering consumer CSR awareness (ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture), consumer CSR awareness and consumer-based consequences of CSR awareness (corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase).

The research survey was conducted within a period of three years, that is, 2017 to 2019. The research study was conducted in Harare the capital city of Zimbabwe, a developing country in Africa. The study was confined to Harare and it addresses concerns and recommendations by Opoku and Akorli (2009) that there is little that has been done to study consumer behavior in developing countries in general, and in sub-Saharan Africa in particular.

The research study was restricted to three main mobile telecommunication firms in Zimbabwe, which are Econet Wireless Zimbabwe, Telecel Zimbabwe and NetOne Zimbabwe. The selected firms have undergone over two decades of increased subscribers, high financial performance and significant CSR investments (Econet Wireless Zimbabwe, 2017; POTRAZ, 2015; RBZ, 2016). Such progress and developments make the study more interesting and more revealing in knowledge on consumer behaviour, the intent and impact of the CSR. The researcher is a Zimbabwean resident, therefore has access to local knowledge and information that facilitates understanding of the firms or consumers in the localities. This helped in arriving at informed interpretations and conclusions of the research study.

The targeted unit of analysis constituted adult consumers of the mobile telecommunication sector (18 - 65 years). The selected consumers were deemed to be sober minded, mature, had the capacity to buy mobile telecommunication products on their own and in a position to make their own independent buying decisions. More so, Harare being the capital city of Zimbabwe comprises the largest and mixed population characteristics of consumers with varied views and they have been greatly exposed to the economic and social activities of mobile telecommunication firms.

The mobile telecommunications sector was selected for this study due to overwhelming subscriber base, high financial performance, being the fastest growing and most stable sector in the country, and as such, society expects CSR from the sector (Econet Wireless Zimbabwe, 2017; POTRAZ, 2015; RBZ, 2016). Notably the world around, the use of mobile telecommunications services accompanied with the internet is ever-rising to influence nations' socio-economic factors. Literature acknowledges that soon mobile telecommunications services will control the hub of economies through the internet and big-data (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Dlamini, 2016; Gray, 2011; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Tu, 2014). Therefore, consumption decisions and behaviour in the mobile telecommunications stand to drive societies and economies.

1.9 Significance of the study

The study brings to the current body of knowledge an understanding of antecedents and consequences of consumer CSR awareness. Antecedents in this study are surveyed and discussed with respect to ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity. Consequences in this study are surveyed and discussed with respect to

corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. The study underscores the influence of demographic factors such as consumer age, gender and level of education on consumer CSR awareness. The study clarifies the interrelatedness that exists between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. Mobile telecommunications sector management or practitioners need an understanding of consumer behaviour and the CSR practices that can be implemented to achieve favourable consumer responses.

The study focuses on a developing nation, Zimbabwe, which aids global and transnational firms' management or practitioners who now consider developing countries as investment or market destination (Martins, Hor-Meyll & Ferreira, 2013; Raithel, Sarstedt, Scharf & Schwaiger, 2012) and therefore need to understand consumers in the developing countries. As stated before, consumer behaviour researches in developing countries are in infancy stages (Ali, 2011; Barnett & Salomon, 2012; Brewer & Rojas, 2008; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Examining Apple's Core, 2012; Isaacs-Morell, 2013; Klein, Ettenson & Krishnan, 2006) and Schiffman et al., (2014) reason that a consumer in developing countries may exhibit different characteristics from the developed countries' consumer. Kotler and Keller (2015) agree with Klein et al., (2006) that developed countries now present a shrinking market while developing countries are emerging as greener markets for investment and consumer markets. Understanding developing countries' consumer markets enables global and transnational firms in effective CSR and marketing strategies.

Furthermore, consumers and the general society benefit from CSR initiatives and investments that address the rampant, current or foreseeable practical problems. Instead of relying on what is in literature, industry best practices, adopting other countries' or sectors' practices and management bias, the study captures current, imminent community problems. The study is beneficial in that management and practitioners will better understand the real problems in societies as the study captures the views or voice of consumers regarding the mobile telecommunications sector's CSR initiatives, practices and implications. The study also provides mobile telecommunications firms' management and practitioners with CSR suggestions to formulate CSR policies that are relevant and significant to the community they operate in. Practically, the mobile telecommunications sector's CSR initiatives or policies become a direct solution to consumer problems through amassing consumers' ideas and expectations. Overall, the study is a springboard framework for CSR best practices in Zimbabwe.

1.10 The rationale of using the mobile telecommunications sector

The research study specifically used the telecommunications industry for the purposes of this study because of its continued rapid expansion and growing CSR activities for the past two decades (Econet Wireless, 2015). The telecommunications industry has been experiencing more than hundred percent growth rate in a troubled economy for over two decades to the extent that the economic and industry reports, bulletins and publications have severally indicated the dominance of the telecommunications sector (Afzal, Chandio, Shaikh, Bhand & Ghumro, 2013; Chimhangwa, 2014; Nathan Associates Inc, 2007; RBZ, 2016). The telecommunications sector currently resembles an oligopolistic competition market, that is, few major players closely observing and following each other. Notably, the mobile telecommunication sector's leading mobile telecommunications firms tend to be highly contributing to the society through many forms of CSR programs (Econet Wireless, 2015; Nyawuyanga, 2015). The mobile telecommunication sector, like other sectors of the economy such as banking and mining has also become a force to reckon with in terms of reputation building and soliciting stakeholder sympathy through corporate behavior such as CSR (Nyawuyanga, 2015).

The researcher was motivated to look at the telecommunications sector due to the fact that there are other studies that have documented similar sector investigations (Asamoah, 2015; Forsido, 2012; Kufandirimbwa et al., 2013; Martins et al., 2013; Marumbwa, 2013; Mohamed & Sawandi, 2007). These studies can be used to enable a comparison of results in the sector. With regards to developing nations, these studies include research done by Ali, Rehman, Yilmaz, Safwan and Afzal (2010a), Ali, Rehman, Yilmaz, Nazie and Ali (2010b), Ali (2011), Molsescu (2015) and Anim and Agbemabiese (2015). Ali et al., (2010a) carried out an investigation on the causal relationship that exists between CSR, service quality, customer satisfaction and customer retention in the Pakistan cellular industry. Ali et al., (2010b) investigated the determinants of customer retention in the cellular industry. Ali (2011) also studied the role that CSR plays in building corporate reputation and customer purchase intentions. Molsescu (2015) did a case study of the Romanian mobile telecommunication industry on the impact of customer's perception of CSR on corporate brand loyalty. Anim and Agbemabiese (2015) also carried out a case of La Nkwantanag Madina Municipality on the influence of CSR awareness on consumer purchase decision of a telecommunication network in Ghana. These studies were carried outside sub-Saharan Africa, which makes it important to research into CSR activities and initiatives in the region. The researcher thus focuses specifically on the Zimbabwean mobile telecommunications sector consumer responses towards firm CSR initiatives. The fact that consumers are aware of the mobile

telecommunications sector CSR initiatives and consumers deliberately search for firm CSR activities suggest that consumers use such information in evaluating firm behaviour which influence them.

The selected country, Zimbabwe, is undergoing economic sanctions which have a direct impact on average individual income earnings. That being the case, it is safe to assume that the majority of Zimbabweans cannot afford mobile phones because the cost of mobile telecommunications products and services can be presumed to be on the high and unbearable for an average Zimbabwean consumer (Chimhangwa, 2014; Dangaiso, 2014; Nathan Associates Inc, 2007). The reality on the ground is however contrary to this assumption. Besides the assumed consumer abuse through charging high prices and possibly making unjustifiable profits accompanied with alleged poor services and customer care, it is interesting that consumers have continued to increasingly use the mobile telecommunications products and services (Dangaiso, 2014). Whenever the firms in the mobile telecommunications sector introduce new products or services on the marketplace, customers have over time easily, quickly adopted and consumed the products or services. Not much research has been done as to what motivates such behaviour in light of the highlighted negatives. When organisations, become a typical success story like what is happening in the Zimbabwean mobile telecommunications sector, consumers naturally expect a return of the favor (CISCO, 2016; Deng, 2012; Hantula & Wells, 2013), therefore this study explores CSR initiatives in this sector.

It is important to note that CSR is not a new phenomenon in Zimbabwe, neither is it exclusive to the telecommunications industry. CSR has been seen greatly in the mining sector due to the nature of the industry operations and returns (Iyanda, 1999; Makore & Zano, 2012; Murisa, 2010). With time, CSR grew in the banking industry as a matter of building corporate reputation and attracting consumers. Firms increasingly communicated CSR to make consumers aware of their CSR actions. Firms are incorporating CSR motives and communication in their advertisements and websites to ensure that CSR initiatives are exposed to the public. The mobile telecommunication sector in Zimbabwe also exercises CSR mainly touching on education, poverty eradication, entertainment, critical information dissemination, social and environmental interventions. Econet Wireless, being the largest mobile telecommunications firm appears to be the largest contributor in the CSR field (Econet Wireless, 2015; Nyawuyanga, 2015). The mobile telecommunications sector also engages in CSR so as to build reputation, attain customer and other stakeholders' sympathies as shall be shown in the following chapters.

1.11 Structure of the thesis

The study comprise eight chapters;

Chapter One introduces the study and comprises of the research problem, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, research model and hypotheses, an overview of the method of investigation, scope of the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study and the structure of the thesis. The study investigates the antecedents and consequences of consumer awareness of CSR in the telecommunications sector in Zimbabwe.

Chapter Two reviews literature underpinning the study. The chapter interrogates literature on marketing, consumer behaviour and CSR grounding before driving into the study's main constructs. The study constructs are categorised as antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR communications or awareness and consequences of CSR awareness. The literature also reviewed the relationship that exists between constructs of the study (antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR awareness and consequences of CSR awareness) and touches on empirical evidence from other countries.

Chapter Three presents theories from consumer behaviour schools that form part of this study. This comprises relevant theories and models profound to the study and a survey of associations between the variables in the theories or the progressive development of the theories. Previous research models tested overtime became a basis for creating a model that will be tested in this study. This study borrowed mainly from the cognitive and humastic schools of consumer behaviour.

Chapter Four focuses on the development of the research model or conceptual framework and hypotheses of the study. The research model explains the relationship that exist between the main constructs and variables of the study, while the hypotheses statements are intellectual guesses that have to be proven the extent/ degree of truthfulness after the study is completed. In this chapter, the study's research questions were tallied with research hypothesis(es) and the manner in which these were derived was explained, with supporting evidence from scholars in literature.

Chapter Five outlines the research methodology which comprises the data collection design, the data collection methods and the justification of the options chosen. The chapter covers aspects which include the research philosophy, research strategy, research design, population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection methods, measurement and scales, design of the instrument,

reliability, validity, sensitivity, proposed data presentation and analysis methods, ethical considerations and due diligence. The study uses a mixed method approach.

Chapter Six presents the findings of the study. Both quantitative and qualitative results are presented in line with the research methods. The quantitative section presents findings from closed-ended questions, which forms the major part of Chapter Five. These mainly include response rate analysis, socio-demographic profile of the respondents, descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, testing of hypotheses, factors analysis and structural equation modelling generated using SPSS and AMOS. The qualitative section presents findings from open-ended questions as emerging themes, quotable quotes, word frequency, word tree and word cloud analysis generated using NVIVO.

Chapter Seven discusses research results using literature as a point of reference, insinuation and conclusion. The discussion of results was mainly aligned to research hypotheses as portrayed in the research model.

Chapter Eight comprises conclusions and implications of the study. The conclusions of the study are guided by the research objectives or questions, hypotheses and behaviour of variables, which are shown in the research model, individually or in association. Chapter Eight also explains the importance of the study to academic or theory, practice or policy, methodological procedures and future research avenues. Practical implications and recommendations of the study are drawn from research findings and conclusions. Research limitations are highlighted indicating options or recommendations for future research.

1.12 Chapter summary

Chapter One introduced the study and covered fundamental issues such as background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, research model or conceptual framework and hypotheses statements. Other aspects covered include an overview of the method of investigation, scope of the study, significance of the research, limitations of the study and the structure of the thesis document. The next chapter reviews relevant literature in line with the research topic, aims and objectives.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter introduced and provided an overview of the research study. The study investigates selected antecedents and consequences of consumer awareness of CSR. In line with this aim, this chapter reviews literature on marketing leading to consumer behaviour in relation to CSR. The chapter begins by presenting a literature overview on marketing, driving into the emergence of consumer behaviour and supported the field of consumer behaviour by building literature around it. This is followed by an in-depth review of the following CSR constructs: CSR concept and development, CSR communications, factors promoting and hindering consumer awareness of CSR, effects of consumer awareness of CSR and the relationship between consumer awareness of CSR, corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. Lastly, the chapter focuses on CSR theories and conceptual models that were developed in relation to CSR and consumer behaviour.

This chapter is vital because it creates a foundation and springboard for the study, at the same time assisting in the identification of areas covered and the creation of the knowledge gap. Conducting a literature survey also refines the research problem and when a research problem has been understood it assists in the generalisability of the study (Creswell, 2014: Randolph 2009 in Makanyeza 2014). Furthermore, a Literature review informs and creates a basis for the current study, meaning that the current study is guided by previous research studies or a body of knowledge resulting in generativity (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). A literature survey is also necessary to create a structure for the theoretical framework, methodology and discussion of findings (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). In line with these views, this chapter will review previous research by other scholars, showing gaps that exist in literature and reiterate the focal point of the study within the larger framework of research within the field. The next section defines what marketing is.

2.2 Overview of marketing

The goal of defining marketing and explaining the progression of marketing is to find the roots or main field from which both CSR and consumer behavior emanated as corporate strategies and critical study areas respectively. Kotler (2000) defines marketing as identifying, anticipating and analysing consumer needs and wants. Marketers are determined to understand consumer needs or wants and provide a solution in the form of a good or service (Hanekom, 2013). The definition

identifies the marketer, the organisation and the customer as the main players in the business field. In 1935, AMA gave a simple explanation of marketing as an organised performance of business activities and managing customer relationships (Gundlach, 2007; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). The definition provides a broad spectrum of an understanding of business and customers rather than simply marketing. The definition highlights the importance of relationship management in the context of a customer as an important stakeholder. In 1985, AMA added that marketing is involved with the pricing, promoting and distribution of a product for exchange with customers to satisfy their needs and wants (Gundlach, 2007). Their definition provides a practical and theoretical understanding of the 4ps of marketing as the fundamental basis of marketing principles and execution. Kotler and Keller (2015) explain that marketing exists at the level of management firstly, involving scientifically selecting markets, persuading and sustaining customer base, then secondly at the societal level, giving room to society to be involved in value creation, provision and exchange. In all the definitions presented above, the customer is pivotal and therefore understanding the customer becomes more critical for strategy formulation.

2.2.1 The dawn of marketing

Marketing is assumed to have developed uniformly across cultures and markets (Agarwal & Bayus, 2002). The evolution of marketing can be attributed to many factors, some common and others unique to different environments. Ferrell, Hair, Joe Jr, Marshall, Creg and Tamilia (2015) agree with Kotler (2000) and Tadajewski (2009) that these factors include academic training, personal traits, occupational assignments, business experience, family backgrounds and other macro environmental forces such as politics, economics, technology and socio-environment of the different nations. What can be deduced from these factors is that marketing professionals, customer needs and the society at large, have a continuous impact on the discipline and profession of marketing.

With regard to the development of marketing as a discipline and profession, many scholars are of the view that the roots of marketing can be traced back to the 1900s, though many acknowledge that the exchange of goods as a means of trade existed long before this era. Shaw (2015) and Bartels (1962) explain that marketing practice started from way back, called the pre-academic era, and from 1900, marketing existed both in practice and the academic field. The practice of marketing started in simple activities such as when people produce and whenever they had a surplus they would engage in trade (in that time it was barter trade) (Tamilia, 2009). Keller and Kotler (2015) believe that the practice of selling and advertising has been there since the beginning of trade itself.

However, marketing became more prominent in the period after 1900, following the practices in the industrial revolution and mass production that led to the identification and separation of buyers and sellers (Shaw & Jones, 2005). In its development, the field of marketing has courted a lot of controversy and the controversy surrounding the development of marketing led to the consensus that marketing development can be simplified into marketing theory and marketing practice as shown in Table 2.1 below (Bartels, 1976; Tadajewski, 2009).

TABLE 2.1: THE DAWN OF MARKETING THEORY AND PRACTICE

Marketing theory	Before 1900 – 1910	Period of discovery. Teachers in marketing sought facts about the activity. Marketing was assumed borrowed from economics related to commodity markets, distribution and world trade.
	1910 – 1920	Marketing conceptualised. The development and classification of definitions and concepts in marketing.
Marketing practice	1920 – 1930	Marketing integration. The realisation that some of the practices already in business are marketing and marketing principles were postulated. Integrating the marketing general body of thought and practice.
	1930 – 1940	Marketing development. The development of new areas of marketing and new explanations adopted, marketing variables tested and quantified.
	1940 – 1950	Marketing re-appraised. The needs of marketing knowledge caused a re-definition of concepts and terms in marketing theory and practice.
	1950 – 1960	Marketing re-conception. Managerial decision making, societal issues and the quantitative analysis of marketing supplemented marketing. The field of management and other social sciences added concepts into marketing.
	1960 – 1970	Marketing differentiated. Important concepts in marketing started to stand alone as separate fields to be studied e.g. environmentalism, internationalism.
	1970	Marketing socialisation. The integration of society and marketing, and an understanding that marketing functions has an impact on society

Source - Hermans (2009): The History of Marketing Thought

According to Kotler (2000), marketing started with an era considered as the production era, that occurred between 1870 to 1930. As quantity demand exceeded supply, firms aimed at improving production quantities and profit was gained through economies of scale (Jones & Richardson, 2007). The sales era followed after the production era, and the sales era spanned between 1930 – 1950 (Kotler, 2000). Supply exceeded demand caused by the previous era's landmark improvements in

production quantity through advancements in production technologies and systems (Jack, Higgins, Ellis, Fitchett, Lim, Tadjewski & Saren, 2010). Jones and Richardson (2007) acknowledge that competition started to rise and firms were now getting conscious of customer requirements. The product era developed as a result of firms trying to produce quality in order to overcome competition, impress the customer, and gain a market share. The product era focused on improving the quality of goods and services as a strategy to achieve sales. The product era was followed by the marketing era, which started to be noticed intensively in the 1970s (Jack et al., 2010). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) noticed that the marketing era became the most important philosophy and production orientation with its focus on requirements of the customers and customer relationship management. Keller and Kotler (2015) referred to this era as a period where firms produced what they can sell and not selling what they have produced. The emergence of the marketing concept ushered in the need to study consumer behaviour. The marketing concept was followed by the societal concept, which views a company as an entity which has to be conscious of the socio-environment impact of its products, services and operations (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010).

2.2.2 Historic stages of the development of marketing

According to Sheth and Gardner (1982), marketing theory and practice dates back to the period before the onset of the 19th century. This view is supported by Shaw and Jones (2005). Sheth and Gardner (1982) add that marketing activities started being recorded and documented properly in the early 1902 in the United States. Shaw and Jones (2005) supported by numerous authors such as Bartels (1962), Bartels (1976), Demirdjian (1979), Domegan (2010), Ferrell et al., (2015), Hermans (2009), Tadjewski (2009), Tadjewski and Jones (2014) and Varman (2015) identify four distinct eras in the history of marketing, which are;

- a) Before 1900, referred to as the Pre-Academic Marketing Thought;
- b) 1900-1955, referred to as Traditional Approaches to Marketing Thought;
- c) 1955-1975, referred to as the Paradigm shift based on Alderson's work, and
- d) 1975-2000, mostly following Phillip Kotler and many co-authors writings, referred to as the time of the Paradigm Broadening.

Table 2.2 below supports the historic stages of the development of marketing by giving finer details of mainstream marketing schools of thought that developed overtime.

TABLE 2.2: MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS OF MARKETING THOUGHT

School	Selected marketing pioneers	Question(s) addressed	Level or focus of analysis	Key concepts and theories
Marketing functions	Shaw 1912, Weld 1917, Cherington 1920, Clark 1922, Converse 1922, Maynard, et al. 1927	What activities (i.e. functions) comprise marketing?	Macro: -Marketing Middlemen	Value added by marketing activities
Marketing commodities	Shaw 1916, Cherington 1920, Copeland 1924, Breyer 1931	How are different types of goods (i.e. commodities) classified and related to different types of marketing functions?	Macro: -Trade flows -Types of goods	Classification of goods: -Industrial and consumer -Convenience, shopping and speciality -Products and services -Search and experience
Marketing institutions	Weld 1916, Nystrom 1915, Clark 1922, Maynard, et al. 1927, Breyer 1934, Mallen 1967, Stern 1969, Bucklin 1970	Who performs marketing function on commodities?	Macro: -Retailers -Wholesalers -Middlemen -Channels of distribution	Channels of distribution: -Market gaps and flows -Parallel systems -Depots -Transactions and transvections -Sorts and transformations -Postponement and speculation -Conflict and cooperation -Power and dependence
Marketing management	Alderson 1956, 1965, Howard 1956, Kelley and Lazer 1958, McCarthy 1960, Kotler 1967	How should managers market goods to customers (clients, patrons, patients)?	Micro: -Business firm as seller/supplier -Any individual or organisation as supplier	-Marketing mix -Customer orientation -Segmentation, targeting and positioning
Marketing systems	Alderson 1956, 1965, Boddewyn 1969, Fisk 1967, Dixon 1967	What is a marketing system? Why does it exist? How do marketing systems work? Who performs marketing work? Where and when is it performed?	Micro: -Firms and households Macro: -Channels of distribution -Aggregate marketing systems	-Interrelationships between parts and whole -Unity of thought -Marketing systems -Micro and macro marketing -Societal impact
Consumer behaviour	Dichter 1947, Katona 1953, Engel, et al. 1968, Kassarian and Robertson 1968, Howard and Sheth 1969, Holloway, et al. 1971, Cohen 1972	Why do customers buy? How do people think, feel, and act? How can customers/ people be persuaded?	Micro: -Business buying -Consumer buying -Individual or household consumption	-Subconscious motivation -Rational and emotional motives -Needs and wants -Learning -Personality -Attitude formation and change -Hierarchy of effects -Information processing -Symbolism and signs -Opinion leadership -Social class -Culture and sub-cultures
Macro marketing	Alderson 1965, Fisk 1967, Dixon 1967, Hunt 1976, Bartels and Jenkins 1977	How do marketing systems impact society and society impact marketing systems?	Macro: -Industries -Channels of distribution -Consumer movement -Public policy -Economic development	-Standard of living -Quality of life -Marketing systems -Aggregate marketing performance
Exchange	Alderson 1965, Kotler 1972, Bagozzi 1975, 1978, 1979, Shaw and Dixon 1980, Houston and Gassenheimer 1987, Wilkie and Moore 2003	What are the forms of exchange? How does market exchange differ from other exchanges? Who are the parties to exchange? Why do they engage in exchange?	Macro: -Aggregations of buyers and sellers in channels Micro: -Firms and households -Any two parties or persons	-Strategic and routine transactions -Social, economic and market exchange -Barter and market transactions -Generic exchange
Marketing history	Hotchkiss 1938, Bartels 1962, 1976, 1988, Hollander 1960, 1983, Shapiro and Doody 1968, Savitt 1980	When did marketing ideas, practices, theories, and schools of thought emerge and evolve?	Macro: -Thought and practice Micro: -Thought and practice	-History of marketing practice -History of marketing thought

Source - Shaw and Jones (2005): A history of schools of marketing thought

The consumer behaviour field emerged within the history of the development of the marketing thought. Scholars agree that consumer behaviour emerged during the marketing systems stages, especially on the onset of micro marketing.

2.2.3 Consumer behaviour's place in marketing (definition and importance)

Sheth and Gardner (1982) in support of Bartels (1951, 1962) submitted a well-dressed version of the emergence and growth of the marketing theory with respect to time periods. The time periods include the discovery of marketing (1900-1910), its conceptualisation (1910-1920), re-appraisal of the marketing thought (1940-1950) and re-conceptualisation of the marketing ideology (1950-1960). These time periods are similar to the thoughts presented in the previous section. Studying the history of the marketing thought encompasses going through marketing development, integration and reappraisal stages (Bartels, 1976; Shaw and Tamilia, 2001). In the first half of the 20th century, two important axioms appear to have dominated regardless of the fact that they may offer divergent viewpoints (Ferrell et al., 2015; Sheth & Gardner, 1982). As stated in the previous section, the first assumption emerged from the economic viewpoint of marketing which holds the belief that marketing is an economic activity or a subset of the discipline of economics (Sheth & Gardner, 1982; Tadajewski, 2009). That being the case, the marketing principles and concepts which operate in the marketing institutions, functions, products, managerial and socio-environmental perspectives could only be explained, understood and practised in the constraints of economic behaviour. This view divorced marketing from non-economic activities or domains such as religion, fine arts, intangibles such as ideas, politics and public services. The second assumption is the belief that marketing emerged in consideration of the fact that in all marketplaces, the originator of marketing undertakings and programs is the marketer rather than the consumer. This line of belief was opposed by a number of scholars who held the view that the marketer needs to understand customer behaviour through market research (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006; Solomon et al., 2007). Tadajewski and Jones (2014) concur that scholars challenged the notion that the marketer is the expert of marketing and marketing programs, and therefore brought a different view that understanding the consumer is more powerful in crafting marketing programs. This is because consumer behaviour is viewed as an input factor into the broad and desirable marketing strategies (Kotler, 2000), and to influence, manipulate and control any forms of market behaviour (Bray, 2008). A marketer has to be well versed with consumer psychology and conduct backwards or reverse planning, that is from the market to the factory (Bray, 2008; Kotler, 2000; Petkus, 2010; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006; Shaw & Tamilia, 2001).

The contesting perspective that marketing did not solely or only emanate from economics led to the emergence and expansion of two important axioms in marketing (Tadajewski & Saren, 2008). The first axiom was that marketing emanated from activities involving the exchange of value, prompting three distinct but related schools of marketing thought (Sheth & Gardner, 1982; Tadajewski & Saren, 2008);

- a) The Macro-marketing School – views marketing programs with a broader, or macro, or societal perspective rather than firm or micro perspective (Witkowski & Jones, 2006; Wooliscroft & Lawson, 2010). In the Macro-marketing School, management should have the ability to control the controllable variables and at the same time be able to plan and manage the uncontrollable (exogenous factors).
- b) The Consumerism School - is of the idea that consumers have rights and they need to be protected against a firm's activities (Richarme, 2005; Solomon et al., 2013). This view is concurred by Shaw and Tamilya (2001) who state that the idea that consumers need to be protected paved way for the consumerism school. Sheth and Gardner (1982) acclaim that in the early 1970s authors such as Schumpeter, Keynes, Houthaker and Modigliani founded consumer protection grossly premised on the concepts and principles of welfare economics.
- c) The Systems Approach - advanced the idea that the activities of delivering a product to a consumer should be viewed as a continuous process (Ferrell et al., 2015; Hermans, 2009; Kotler & Keller, 2015). Kotler (2000) suggests that businesses need to tie the supply and demand functions or factors into one single holistic model. To increase efficiency in the processes, the systems approach resulted in the development of quantitative analysis which helped define, identify and analyse market problems in more formal and measurable ways (Domegan, 2010; Witkowski & Jones, 2006).

The second axiom or assumption was based on the balance of power paving way for more important lines of thought and brought three exclusive ideas or schools of marketing thought (Sheth & Gardner, 1982; Tadajewski & Saren, 2008);

- a) The Buyer Behaviour Theory – focuses on research and practice in trying to anticipate consumer behaviour (Shaw & Jones, 2005). Authors dominating in the period include Bauer (1967), Howard (1963), Howard and Sheth (1969), Bliss (1963), Britt (1966), Engel, Blackwell and Kollat (1968), and Nicosia (1966). Howard and Sheth (1972) developed complex models of consumer and organisational buying behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk,

2006). The models' common underlying belief was the use of psychological principles to understand consumer behaviour (Fagerstrom, 2005; Foxall, 2002; Richarme, 2005, Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006; Rohlt, 2015). The era is accredited for elevating the study of marketing from professional practice status to the highest level of scientific and psychological inquiry (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006).

- b) Behavioural Organisations – also known as the behavioural organisations approach (Shaw & Jones, 2005) centred on organisations, particularly channels of distribution and logistics. The main elements affecting buying behaviour were the aspects of power, conflict and interdependence. Etzioni (1961), Katz and Kahn (1966), Thompson (1967), March and Simon (1958), and Cyert and March (1963) believed that organisational behaviour can be understood or be explained using previously studied human group behaviour.
- c) Strategic planning – or the strategic marketing planning approach advances the view that the firm has to formulate a strategic fit, which is a be-fitting corporate strategy framed in light of the corporate mission, vision and values in the context of the company's micro- and macro-environment (Freeman, 1984). That is, the organisation has a task of analysing the changing environment and dynamically adapting (Cassels, 1936; Drucker, 1974).

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010) most literature in this era was developed from consulting organisations and their customers such as the General Electric, Stanford Research Institute and the Boston Consulting Group (BCG). The work of consulting firms and their clients has been most valued for corporate practical decisions (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Their emphasis was a development of strategic marketing planning from the angle of strategic management or strategic planning (Graf, 2009; Kotler, 2000; Talwar & Ali, 2013), as shown in Figure 2.1.

Talwar and Ali (2013) in support of Kotler (2000) stress that in strategic planning there is an emphasis on power balance between internal and external factors. The external factors are regarded as market values, competition, technology, resources, regulations while internal factors are regarded as products, services, distribution, promotion (Kotler, 2000).



FIGURE 2.1: THE PLACE OF STRATEGIC MARKETING PLANNING IN CORPORATE PLANNING

Source - Drummond, Ensor and Ashford (2008): Strategic Marketing: Planning and Control

2.3 Consumer behaviour

Khaniwale (2015) states that consumer behavior is the study of individuals in their capacity, or acting in groups, or organisations and the processes they utilise to select, secure, use, and dispose off goods, services, experiences, or ideas to satisfy needs. This view is concurred by Solomon et al., (2013), Lobo et al., (2014) and Bray (2008) who use similar words to define consumer behaviour as the study of processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose off products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires. Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) defines consumer behaviour as encompassing the behaviours that people display when they are actively searching, purchasing, utilising, evaluating and disposing goods and services that have satisfied or from which they expected satisfaction. The definitions give room to issues that arise or may arise after purchasing and using the products which had been initially neglected by former consumer behaviour scholars (Shaw & Jones, 2005). Sahney (2012) stresses that in consumer behaviour there is need to study the processes an individual or groups go through to get a good, service or experience and how the process of utilising these products would impact the consumer

and society. Consumer behaviour discipline blends components that exist in the fields of psychology, economics, sociology and social anthropology (Bray, 2008; Foxall, 1997; Foxall, Oliveira-Castro, James & Schrezenmaier, 2011; Schiffman et al., 2014). Kotler (2000) and Sahney (2012) propose that the study of consumer behaviour should embrace customer behaviour analysis in line with three distinct important roles an individual can play, which are a consumer being a user, payer and buyer.

2.3.1 The dawn of consumer behaviour

For over 300 years, the field of consumer behaviour has been an area of interest to many. Early economists such as Nicholas Bernoulli, John von Neumann and Okar Morgenstern were investigating the concepts of consumer decision making (Bray, 2008; Foxall, 2005; Richarme, 2005). Cassels (1936) suggests that the ground breaking finding by the early economists at the time was the Utility Theory that calculated human behaviour from an economic perspective focusing on the purchase cost and consumption satisfaction level. Consumers buy a product or make choices based on the favourability of the final result or what they expect to get. If the outcome to be produced or achieved is positive, then the consumer will buy and use the product, in that respect the consumer is very rational and self-centred (Bray, 2008; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006). Previous economists viewed individuals as rational beings while modern views or studies acknowledge various socio-psychological factors affecting the individual before, during and after purchase (Sahney, 2012). Socio-psychological factors evolved as a number of scientific research methodologies were carried out and paradigmatic approaches used (Bray, 2008; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Solomon et al., 2007). Solomon et al., (2007) explain that scientifically consumers go through need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, building of purchase intention, the act of purchasing, consumption and disposal, re-use or recycling of products.

The branching of the marketing theory and practice through the consumerism school of thought brought the emergence and development of critical studies in consumer behaviour (Ferrell et al., 2015; Hermans, 2009; Kotler, 2000). Consumer behaviour's major thrust is to unearth the consumer's black box. The consumer black box has underlying forces that can be used to identify, explain, interpret or predict human conscious and subconscious behaviour when faced with internal or external environmental variables, prompts or stimuli in business activities (Bray, 2008; Campitelli & Gobet, 2010; Foxall et al., 2006; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006). The dawn of consumer behaviour studies in the marketing field has been a subject of intense debate as scholars argue

whether it is a field of psychology that encroached into marketing, thus, giving insights to marketers about the behaviours of people (Fagerstrom, 2005; Sheth, 1985). Kotler (2000) agrees with Sheth (1985) in suggesting that consumer behaviour emerged as a dire quest by marketers to 'unbox' the consumer's black box in order to understand the hidden consumer decision making process components. According to Domegan (2010) it is the marketer's quest to unpack the consumer black box which ushered in a dispensation of scientific and psychology inquiry into the marketing field.

2.3.2 Eclectic school of thought of consumer behavior

The initial ideas on consumer behaviour emanated from economics, as a consumer was taken to be a 'utility maximiser' (Arboleda & Escobar, 2011; Foxall, 1990; 1992; 1993b; 1996). Freud (1923) also discusses consumer behaviour as emerging from the field of psychology. With this point of view, Freud (1923) believed that consumers can be manipulated by both open and subliminal messages. Authors integrated various views and thoughts into comprehensive models of consumer buyer behaviour. This led to the initial development of models such as the Model of Consumer Behaviour by Engel et al., 1968 and the Theory of Buyer Behaviour by Howard and Sheth in 1969. The Consumer Behaviour School of marketing grew strong in the 1960s with the integration of cognitive psychology, risk taking, opinion leadership, information processing and other related ideas from psychology to sociology (Foxall, 1993b).

The Consumer Behaviour School deals with complicated issues of consumer psychology which makes the school a broad and complex marketing discipline (Shaw & Jones, 2005; Schiffman et al., 2014). What makes consumer behaviour an assorted idea is that it covers numerous individual consumer and social issues. The issues include buying (search and selection), consuming (use and disposal), consumer decisions as an individual and in groups, distinction between a buyer and consumer, a consumer and a customer with their characteristics, roles and influences (Sahney, 2012). Sahney (2012) supports Loudon and Bitta (1993) that consumer behaviour is an area that is still broadening and developing further than the traditional domains of marketing.

Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) agree with Galalae and Voicu (2013) that in consumer behaviour, it is critical to understand that computer information processing systems provide a platform for comprehending human complex choice mechanism. Foxall and Greenley (2000) assert that behavioural complexity is a collection of what is happening within an individual, the internal processing of information or the action of mental traits. This philosophical standing can never be

overcome by any amount of research or argument, in fact it can only be furthered by growing attempts to predict consumer choices using knowledge of attitudes, intentions and personalities.

2.4 Domains of consumer behaviour

Diverse approaches have been used to study consumer behaviour (Foxall (2002; 2004; 2007)). At least five classical approaches explain various positions and behaviours of individuals in the marketplace. Foxall (2007) says that a number of variables and circumstances have been accentuated differently to explain human behaviour and these are;

2.4.1 The Economic Man

Cassels (1936) says that man is economic by nature implying man would want to maximise on gains or benefits at little or no cost. Shaw and Jones (2005) and Richarme (2005) concur with this view with Richarme adding that consumer behaviour evolved with the need of man to be economic or rational with self-interest as the driving force. This variable is in line with The Utility Theory – Perfect Decision that upholds that man tries to maximise on gains and minimise on losses. Foxall, (1994) explains that The Utility Theory became the founding premise of human behaviour in the economic man or perspective. However, a ‘perfect decision’ is in most cases unrealistic as the world makes available limited information, time and motivation to a consumer (Foxall, 2005; Foxall & Yani-de-Soriano, 2005). In some cases the consumer is faced with other irrational influences such as social relationships, time pressure and societal-religious values (Bray 2008; Schiffman and Kanuk 2006). All these have an impact on what one purchases, what is purchased and at times when it can be purchased.

2.4.2 The Psycho-dynamic Approach

Bray (2008) and Foxall (2007) assert that Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) is the founding author of the psycho-dynamic approach. According to Sigmund Freud, biological influences through ‘instinctive drives or forces’ normally acting out of the conscious mind affect one’s way of behaving (Foxall, 2007; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006; Solomon et al., 2007). The psycho-dynamic approach’s key assumption is that individual behaviour is subject to the biological drives (the id, the ego and the superego) rather than cognition or environmental factors (Freud, 1923). The psycho-dynamic approach therefore is premised on the assumption that biological drives rather than cognitive or environmental stimuli determines an individual’s behaviour, even though this was discredited by

the ‘Little Albert’ experiment (Bray, 2008). The ‘Little Albert’ experiment involved teaching a small child (Albert) to be afraid of non-threatening objects as they were paired with very loud noises. The experiment showed that behaviour can be learned through external events, giving birth to behaviourism approach (Foxall, 2007). The behaviourist approach is discussed next.

2.4.3 The Behaviourist Approach

The behaviourist approach is founded on the principle that external factors to an organism are the causes of behaviour (Foxall, 1992). Everything that a living organism does which includes actions, thoughts and feelings fall in the description of what behaviour is (Foxall & James, 2001). Prominent authors of behaviourism include Burrhus Skinner (1904-1990) who originated the operant conditioning, John Watson (1878-1958) rejecting the introspective methods and Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) who suggested classical conditioning (Arboleda & Escobar, 2011; Khaniwale, 2015). Behaviourism exists only as part of a possible explanation of consumer dynamics and the fact still remains that there is a great deal to be unearthed regarding individuals’ responses when exposed to different or similar stimuli (Bray, 2008). Fagerstrom (2005) avows that a great achievement in the behaviourist approach is the confounding Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM), which is shown in Figure 2.2 below.

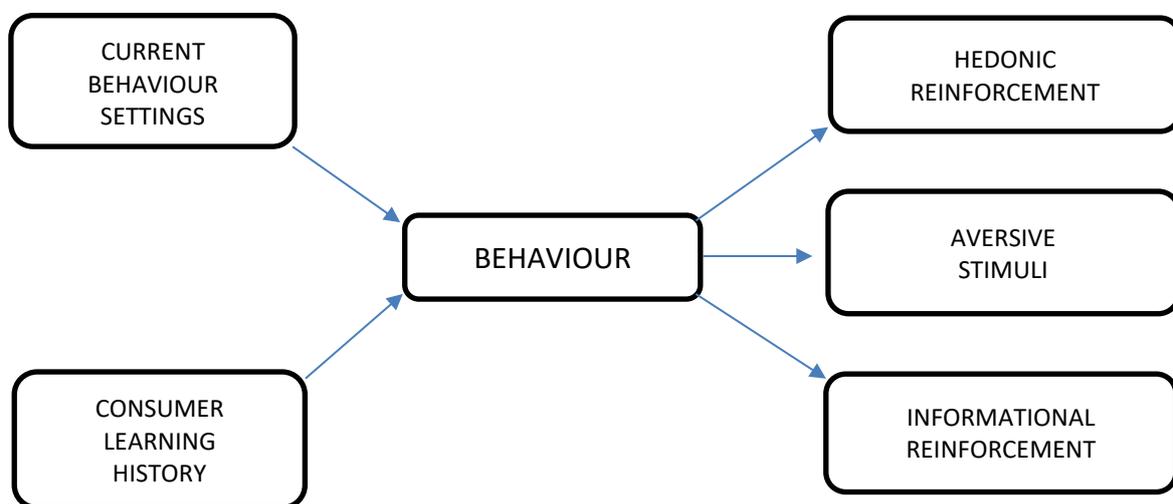


FIGURE 2.2: THE BEHAVIOURAL PERSPECTIVE MODEL

Source - Gordon R. Foxall (1993a): Consumer Behaviour as an Evolutionary Process

As shown in the diagram above, behaviour settings and learning history leads to at least three types of effective results, which are informational reinforcement, adverse consequences and hedonic reinforcement (Foxall, 1996). Hedonic reinforcement occurs when a consumer buys, owns and

consumes economic goods and derives satisfaction/ utility, informational reinforcement is derived through feedback from consumers' performance and adverse consequences occurs in the costs of consuming, relinquishing money, waiting in queue, fore-going alternative and so on (Fagerstrom, 2005; Foxall et al., 2011). The learning history is considered as the total-sum consciousness effect that results from rewarding and punishing outcomes of previous behaviour (Foxall, 1996). Foxall (1998) added to the learning history variables that affect momentary buying which include mood, ability to pay, health and deprivation.

Figure 2.2 supports Figure 2.3 below which shows that behaviour is defined in the context of open behaviour (where consumers are free to behave in a particular way, or have been positively reinforced to do so) and closed behaviour (the influence of agencies and other elements determining behavioural patterns in pre-purchase, purchase and consumption) (Foxall, 1996).

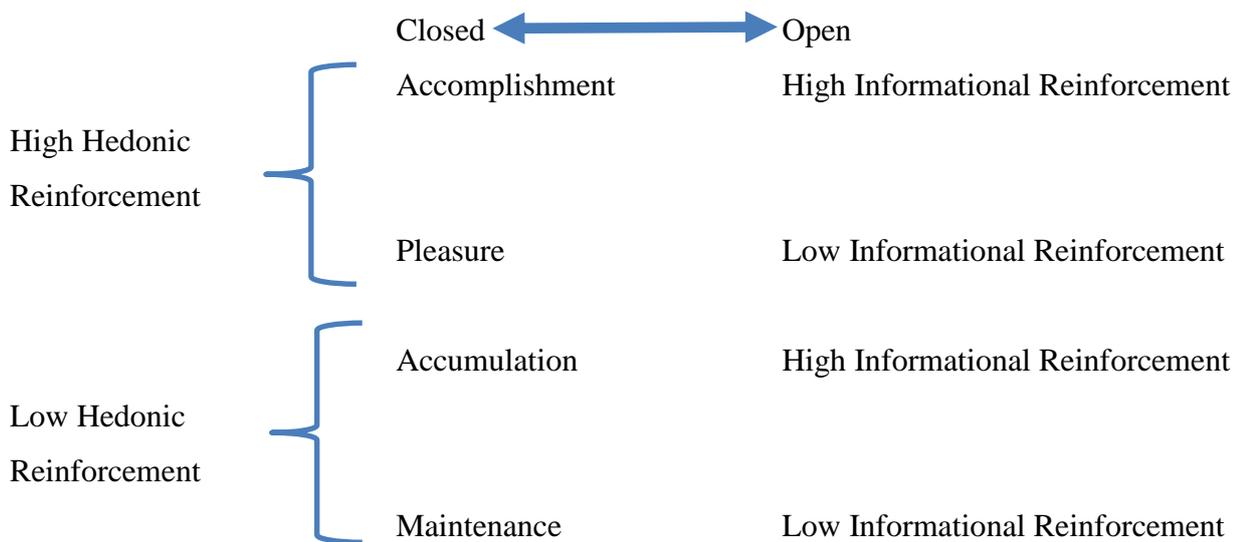


FIGURE 2.3: OPERANT CLASSES OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Source – Gordon R. Foxall (1993a): Consumer Behaviour as an Evolutionary Process

Four categories of operant consumer behaviour can be discussed from the environmental forces emanating from behaviour settings as shown on Figure 2.3 (Foxall & Yani-de-Soriano, 2005). Firstly, accomplishment behaviour signalling the purchase and consumption of products or services related to personal attainment. Secondly, pleasure behaviour in the range of luxury such as consumption of entertainment. Thirdly, accumulation behaviour an indication of a tendency to collect, save and engage in instalments buying. Lastly, maintenance behaviour engrossing activities necessary for one's continued physical and welfare survival such as purchase and consumption of

food. Maintenance behaviour also describe the ability to remain in a society by following laid down procedures and policies such as the payment of taxes.

Foxall (1998) disputes the fact that behaviourists use environmental stimuli as drivers of human behaviour and therefore purports findings such as the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) models as appropriate in telling the intentionality of an individual. To enable an understanding of mental processes, the cognitive approach came into picture.

2.4.4 The cognitive approach

The cognitive approach emerged as a result of the strong rise of the school of psychology towards the end of the 20th century, premised on the fact that a human mind operates like an information processor, similar to a computer. The cognitive approach was first decorated with the development of the Stimulus-Organism-Response model which later led Bray (2008) in identifying the analytical and prescriptive models of human cognitive behaviour (see detail of the cognitive approach on Chapter Three, Section 3.2 which is the consumer behaviour theoretical basis of the study on Subsection 3.2.1 which discussed the cognitive approach). The need to understand human behaviour without generalising led to the development of the humanistic approach.

2.4.5 The humanistic approach

Human beings need to be further understood in their individuality requiring more introspection into what causes people to behave differently under similar (or in some cases different) circumstances. Instead of assuming humans behave as computers that can gabbage in and gabbage out, it has been noted that different human beings gabbage in same information and gabbage out different behaviours. That is, human beings are unpredictable and behave differently even though they are exposed to the same conditions. Many aspects cause that which include intentions, desires, learning, goals, motivation and feelings. To explain such complex phenomenon, the humanistic approach developed theories which include the Theory of Trying, the Model of Goal Directed Behaviour, the Tri-component attitude model and the Multi-attribute attitude model (see detail of the humanistic approach in Chapter Three, Section 3.2 which is the consumer behaviour theoretical basis of the study on Subsection 3.2.2 which discussed the humanistic approach).

2.5 Consumer behaviour notions

This section highlights consumer behaviour aspects that have been covered frequently in literature or studied repeatedly in theory. These are major issues that scholars have looked at as important in

underscoring consumer behaviour dynamics. The elements that make up the main constructs of this study have been included in the consumer behaviour notions dealt with in this section.

2.5.1 Consumer perception

Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) say that consumer perception is considered as the selection, organisation and interpretation of marketing communications into a coherent picture and framework of one's comprehension of reality. Perception is the view that consumers have on reality in general and marketing is not an exception. Kotler and Keller (2015) suggest that marketers make an attempt to create a reality for consumers through various marketing communications. The main marketing communications used to foster an impression range from advertising, personal selling, exhibitions, direct selling, public relations, sales promotions and publicity (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). According to Solomon et al., (2007) marketers create an image of a brand that depict value, reliability and uniformity among people in an attempt to influence consumer perception. According to Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) a company or product's success depends largely on the way consumers perceive and process marketing stimuli designed to promote the company or product.

2.5.2 Consumer attitude

Solomon et al., (2013) assert that attitude is an individual's positive or negative feelings on an object. The same view is proffered by Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) that attitudes are predispositions towards specific brands, products or companies that causes consumers to respond favourably or unfavourably towards them. On one angle, consumer attitude is affected by a firm's behaviour while on the other hand, consumer attitude influences the consumer's appraisal of products or the company (Donald & Adam, 2004). A company's ethical behaviour is viewed as an important factor which influences consumer buying decision (Eccles et al., 2012). Isaacs-Morell (2013) claims that when a product has excellent attributes, then the firm would have already surpassed the hurdle of ethical responsibility and the attitude of consumers is that they appear to be less likely to further judge the ethics and conduct of a company.

2.5.3 Consumer loyalty

Stewart (1994) defines consumer loyalty as that deeply held devotion and commitment to buy or re-buy a product in the future. It represents the highest level of preference of one company or a product against another (Bray, 2008). It highlights that the consumer will keep on re-purchasing from this company in the future on the same or related products (Loudon & Bitta, 1989). Consumer loyalty is

evident in the highest favourability or liking of a product, seen in continual buying behaviour or consistent customer buying mannerism and it is the top target for companies (Kotler, 2000). According to Kotler and Keller (2015) attracting a consumer for repeat buying is one of the most crucial goals and at the same time a challenge for every company. Kotler (2000) believes that a consumer that is purchasing a company's product for long is inferring that they are persuaded of and identifies with the company.

2.5.4 Consumer evaluation

According to Frederick (1960) consumer evaluation occurs when consumers judge and choose on various alternatives based on available cues from marketers and using different information sources about a product and company. Favourable CSR relations lead consumers to make a positive judgement of the firm (Kang et al., 2016). It follows that a positive CSR association leads to favourable consumer judgement and response towards a company's product and service, while a negative association leads to negative consumer judgement and response. Sweetin et al., (2013) assert that a positive CSR enhances product evaluations whereas negative CSR harms company and product appraisal. According to Kotchen and Moon (2012) when a firm gives customers positive CSR information, the customers will react positively to the company.

2.5.5 Word-of-Mouth (WOM)

WOM is effectively informal ways consumers pass information concerning evaluation of goods, services, and companies (Kotler, 2000). According to Kotler (2000) WOM exists in both positive or negative perspectives. Both negative and positive perspectives are a reflection of consumer responses to a firm or product's performance (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) argue that if the company and product performance exceed or meet expectations, consumer shares their positive purchasing experience to others. On the other hand, Kotler and Armstrong (2010) claim that if the company or product performance is bad, consumers communicate the negative usage or purchasing experience to even many more peers than those they would recommended if the product performance was good.

2.5.6 Purchase intention

Buying intention is considered as a certain type of calculable consumer attitude (Wu et al., 2016), which practically signifies the action to be taken by a consumer who consciously plan to buy and use a specific brand (Dodds, Monroe & Grewal, 1991; Lachowetz, Clark, Irwin & Cornwell, 2002).

That is, purchase intention is an individual conscious determination to demonstrate behaviour ahead of attitude (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Carrillat, Lafferty & Harris, 2005; Schiffman ,et al., 2014). Purchase intention is a positive behavioral tendency exhibited by a person related to a focal brand or point, which signifies that a consumer has made an assessment of all possible brands within their choice range or choice set (Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000; Erdem & Swait, 2004). A favourable attitude on a brand increases the chances of consumer demonstrating buying intentions (Grimmer & Bingham, 2013). According to Tian et al., (2011) a firm achieves a good reputation by exercising social responsibility initiatives and it is for this reason Chinese enterprises transfer such positivity to link with the enterprise, its products and consumer purchase intentions.

2.5.7 Actual purchase and re-purchase

Blackwell et al., (2006) defines actual buying behavior as the present acquiring activities by a customer which include intention, willingness to buy and getting a product for consumption. According to Mollen and Wilson (2010) current purchasing behaviour is explained as the purchase time and effort including the purchased value and the purchased service or product type. Most researches have used Blackwell et al., (2006) purchase variables to explain actual purchase and re-purchase behaviour which comprise purchase frequency, purchase category and purchase amount. Kwon and Schumann (2010) discusses that a product's quality level, benefits or value forms the basis for consumer re-purchase behavior. Gronholdt, Martensen and Kristensen (2000) allude to the major variable of re-purchasing behavior as price tolerance leading to re-purchase intention, cross-buying intentions and buying recommendations. Wu and Lin (2014) suggest that any good that an organisation does to the society acts as a springboard for actual purchase and future intentions to patronise a firm's goods. Consumers in the developed world buy and re-buy from a firm that have attached CSR values and goals to the pricing system such as cause-related marketing (Barone et al., 2000). Kotler and Lee (2005) suggest that consumers also form a basis for purchase recommendations through programs that further the societal good by a firm.

2.5.8 Consumer emotions

Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) state that emotions and moods can be explained as psychological responses to human appraisals. Foxall and Greenley (1999) believe that emotions take two forms which are the psychological processing and physical reactions. Emotions create visceral reactions which are instantly tied to behavior in a very direct manner (Hantula & Wells, 2013). According to Hantula and Wells (2013) emotions may not result from a fundamental cognitive appraisal, so they

may create an irrational and unthoughtful behavior. The close link that exists between emotions and behavior greatly predicts marketing activities' success (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Positive experiences that foster positive emotions are attached to a product, company or marketing communications to invite positive coconsumer behaviour (Nelson, 1974). Lii et al., (2013) note that various forms of CSR initiatives such as contributions to alleviate natural disaster consequences by global firms have appealed to the global society's emotions. Thus, consumers perceive companies that participate in such activities positively.

2.5.9 Consumer Motivation

Blackwell et al., (2006) state that human behaviour in getting something begins with the realisation of a need or want, in order to maintain or to improve the current status. In other words, consumer needs and wants act as the driving force or inner reason causing humans to behave in a certain way (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Lachowetz et al., (2002) through a study on cause-related marketing identified a consumer type who is motivated by a firm which practices good behaviour. This consumer type also identified by Lachowetz et al., (2002) is driven by the need to support society by buying from firms or affiliating with firms that exercise CSR. Lii et al., (2013) add that this consumer type respects firms doing CSR and is willing to buy mostly from firms doing CSR with an assumption that some of the company proceeds are being directed to the social and environmental good. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) agree with Argandona (1998) that consumers have applauded firms doing CSR as a common good and ethical practice. When discussing consumer self values in line with firm values, Sharma and Mehta (2012) argue that the inner reason of consumer generosity can be seen in cause-related marketing as a consumer is prepared to pay a high price on products as long as the company engages in CSR or the portion of the price goes to donations.

2.5.10 Consumer-company identity

Chen et al., (2015) view consumer-company identity as how consumers isolate or identify with a corporate. According to Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), for consumers to support a firm, they need to identify with the firm and corporates need to make it easy for consumers to identify with their firms. Einwiller, Fedorikhin, Johnson and Kamins (2006) say that consumers have values which they want to see exhibited by a firm. Lii and Lee (2012) concur with Marin and Ruiz (2007) that when a corporate gratifies one or more consumer important self-definitional values or needs, the consumer becomes willing to associate with the corporate.

2.5.11 Recommendation/ Word-of-Mouth

Shimp, Wood and Smarandescu (2007) acclaim that with the new and old marketing channels, consumers view between 3000 - 5000 ads a month in America. According to Marian and Wright's (1994) Persuasion Knowledge Model consumers have the capacity to develop a radar-like capacity to identify or discern ads content which aims to lure and they develop skills to deal with such content. Consumers now recognise deceptive ads or product claims (Shimp et al., 2007). Firm marketing communications slowly wear out power to inform, persuade or educate (Fournier, 1994). Shimp et al., (2007) recognise that consumers are a critical piece of the marketing communications puzzle as they induce word-of-mouth advertising. Kotler (2000) argue that when a consumer recommends a product to another, the other consumer will believe that the product is highly authentic and reliable. Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) agree with Solomon et al., (2013) that firm products are highly regarded when celebrities recommend in the form of endorsements, testimonials, actors, experts or spokesperson. Kotler and Keller (2015) argue that when a consumer is satisfied with a product or firm, they recommend six more customers but when they are dissatisfied they tell eleven people.

Marketing strategies, including engaging in CSR and communicating CSR, are targeted to influence all or most of the outlined consumer behaviour notions. Firms achieve success when the notions are motivated or changed in favor of the firm. The next section gives insights into CSR as one of the tools that can be used in corporate marketing strategy.

2.6 Corporate social responsibility (CSR)

In this 21st century firms are inventing innovative business initiatives above simply providing the right products and economic interests, in identifying and responding to societal demands or expectations (Gigauri, 2012; Moon, 2015; Pirsch, Gupta & Grau, 2007). In simpler terms, that is CSR. Fredrick (2006) explains that CSR has been positively and fundamentally accepted by societies as a concept of firms doing good in the society. According to Kotler and Keller (2015) society has since stopped to be treated as a 'given' but rather need to be considered in corporate strategy. Thus, the success of an organisation largely rests on the stakeholders and their attitude towards the corporate (Popa & Salanta, 2014). Chan (2014) propagates that CSR has its very beginnings in North America, while Carroll and Buchholtz (2006) believe that CSR has its roots in Europe. Either way, the case is that CSR is fast spreading and becoming a global phenomenon, adapting to various national and societal aspects (Watson Group, 2015). Globally, there is increasing

burden for corporates to be socially responsible, therefore, acceptable or to achieve a favourable evaluation by consumers, employees, investors and the general society (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Pirsch et al., (2007) affirm that the need for positive firm evaluation is forcing corporates to be socially and environmentally conscious.

Kotler and Lee (2005) believe that organisations normally deploy CSR programs targeted at communities, workplaces, general environment and the markets they serve. Firms engage in self-regulated and society-regulated CSR initiatives, where society regulated CSR programs are governed by entities such as the government, civil society and international agencies (Brammer et al., 2012). Nevertheless, practising CSR has been under intensive negative scrutiny by shareholders specifically, ever since the formal inception and practice of CSR in business operations (Argandona, 1998; Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006; Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, 1984). This is because shareholders are more interested in the firm growth resulting in profitability which finally translates to dividends (Carroll & Buchholtz 2006). When firms started to engage in CSR, Harrison and Freeman (1999) claim that they were judged as having unclear motives, even if this could be as a result of local regulators set requirements. Milton Friedman argues that CSR can have two views, firstly that through profit-maximisation in free market business best serves society, and secondly that it is the state's matter and not business' matter to look at societal welfare (Carroll, 1999; Frederick, 1978; Moon, 2015). Barnett and Salomon (2012) believes that identifying societal values or challenges and making efforts to address them is significantly profitable in the long run.

2.6.1 Emergence and growth of CSR (historic era)

Moon (2015) and Carroll (2008) state that the history of CSR is long winding, covering wide issues, though CSR started getting stronger in the 20th century, specifically in the early 1950s. In contrast Heald (1970) argues that business has long been interested in societal issues from way back, longer than the 1950s. Carroll (2008) concurs and suggests that CSR practice started wayback since the onset of business. Carroll (2008) consequently starts to document CSR during the Industrial Revolution in the 1800s saying that this was the starting point of theoretical CSR.

Hay and Gray (1974) believe that CSR originated as simply SR meaning 'social responsibility'. The advent of the 'social responsibility' term was made possible by the fact that it was not yet the onset and dominance of organisations as 'corporates'. According to Carroll (1999) CSR's growth, manifestation and flourishing occurred initially in the spectrum of its definition or meaning and later in its practice. Kotler (2000) argues that there was an expansion of stakeholders' scope to include

other entities such as government, media, suppliers, distributors and so on, that had formerly been left out from a few that were considered necessary such as shareholders, employees and customers. CSR has grown to be a global phenomena in its scope rather than being confined to a certain geographical area and activities (Moon, 2015). Freeman (1984) suggest that it is clear today that CSR has encroached strategic decision making, corporate behaviour, corporate culture and corporate governance issues in practice. According to Pirsch et al., (2007) corporates have established managerial and organisational ways of implementing, controlling and reporting business' socially and environmentally conscious practices and policies.

Carroll (1999) affirms that in the US, increased evidence of early writings in literature about CSR dates back to the late 1990s, evidenced in the accumulation of sizeable articles about CSR. Moon (2015) suggests that Europe started widely appreciating and accepting CSR on the onset of the 21st century, evidenced by scholars and practitioners engaging in formal writings, researches, seminars, conferences and consultancies about CSR. Carroll (2008) opines that a little time later other areas such as Asia began to adopt CSR practices and policies. According to Eberstadt (1973) CSR is now being practiced world wide or globally, including developing countries though it has its grassroots mostly in the United States (US) and then Europe. It is against this background that marketing scholars and practitioners need to comprehend the emergence and development of CSR in these major places first (Lentner, Szegedi & Tatay, 2015), and then the emergence and development of CSR in developing countries, including African countries. The next section outlines the different historical eras of CSR.

Carroll (2008) supporting Murphy (1978) provides a summary and understanding of CSR using five historic eras. The five eras portray CSR definitions and concepts before and after the 1950s.

a) Philanthropic era

The period occurred up to the 1950s, and during this era firms made donations to individuals, groups or the society at large. Loison et al., (2009) assert that the dawn of formal writing and literature on SR (social responsibility) which is now CSR (corporate social responsibility) was marked by Howard R. Bowen in 1953. During that period Howard R. Bowen wrote a book entitled 'Social Responsibilities of the Businessman'. The biggest question asked during that time which still exists up to now, is: what are the societal responsibilities expected from businessman? (Frederick, 2006; Loison et al., 2009; Moon, 2015). Howard R. Bowen was the first to define SR (CSR) as the various

obligations of businessman to develop strategies, come up with decisions or follow certain actions that are desired and in tandem with societal objectives and values (Carroll, 1977; Carroll, 1979).

b) Awareness era

The period ranged between 1953 and 67, and at this point, businesses were becoming aware of their overall business responsibility and community affairs' involvement. The 1960s era stems up with wide attempts to formalise and define precisely what CSR means (Frederick, 1978). Early attempts were made by authors such as Keith Davis in the 1960s, saying that CSR involves actions and decisions that corporates take beyond their firm's direct economic or technical interests (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006). Keith Davis' definition of CSR went through extensive usage, especially that it has managerial implications, so the definition gives Keith Davis a second place to Howard R. Bowen the 'Father of CSR' (Carroll, 1991).

c) Societal Issues era

The period was between 1968 and 73 and companies focused on specific societal issues e.g. racial discrimination, pollution problems, urban decay and so forth, that were currently or would foreseeably affect society. The era was spearheaded by a book written by Morell Heald entitled 'The Social Responsibility of Business: Company and Community 1900-1960 (Heald, 1970). The book used the executives and managerial perspective in defining social responsibility, underscoring the various community programs that corporates had outlined or were getting engaged in (Carroll, 1994; Freeman, 1984).

d) Responsiveness era

The era occurred between 1974 and 78 and seemingly continued beyond. CSR emerged with yet a need to get into other important related areas, unearthing complementary or alternative concepts, models, theories and themes (Gigauri, 2012; Smith et al., 2001). Long term CSR managerial and corporate strategies were created, developed and implemented to address societal and environmental issues. The era is marked with new and further development of now well-known complementary themes and concepts to CSR such as public policy, business ethics, corporate social responsiveness, corporate social performance, stakeholder theory to mention just but a few (Carroll, 2006). The onset of 1980 saw the emergence of Thomas M. Jones' definition of CSR, that organisations have an obligation that spans entities in the society outside shareholders or that laid down by the union contract or law, where the responsibility is taken voluntarily and is quite broad on the interests

groups (Moon, 2015). Thomas M. Jones summarises the CSR concept saying that it is time CSR is seen not as an outcome but as a process, which needs continual implementation (Carroll, 2008).

e) Corporate citizen

According to Carroll and Buchholtz (2006), CSR further developed into the concept of corporate citizenship. The era occurred after the 1990s. The era was spurred by the rise of the realisation that a firm could register to become a separate legal persona, which needed to live and behave within the spectrum of societal values. The era therefore started with a considerable amount of research seeking to find the link between financial performance and CSR (Griffin & Mahon, 1997). Pivato et al., (2006) claim that slowly the traditional line of thinking was to associate Corporate Social Performance (CSP) to financial success. Recent researches and authors disagree by stating that inconsistent and inconclusive results were produced on the association between financial success and CSP (Waddock & Graves, 1997; Barnett & Salomon, 2012). Carroll and Shabana (2010) suggest that CSR affects many other facets of business besides finances, which means research needs to be carried out in order to substantiate the claims. Muirhead (1999) concurs that research needs to be done with respect to CSR and consumers, hence, the emergence of a stream of intensive researches on consumer behavior and CSR.

2.6.2 CSR in the 21st century

In the 21st century, CSR is assigned an extensive global expansion and operationalisation to other fields of business and societal facets (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Moon, 2015). Numerous CSR research started and continues to pave way for a body of empirical evidence bringing out new or modernised forms of CSR (Loison et al., 2009). Griffin (2000) observes that research in the fields of marketing, human relations and so forth furthered the understanding of both CSP and CSR to make the areas of CSP and CSR more singular and operational. Kotler and Lee (2005) claim that between 2000 and 2002 there were no new definitions or concepts of CSR, though major empirical research was done linking CSP and CSR to other business aspects. Jones and Murrell (2001) assessed the possibility that a company's public recognition can be an example of social performance and a favourable indicator of performance of the company to the stockholders. Smith et al., (2001) studied the degree to which different features and roles of stakeholders affected Corporate Social Orientation (CSO) perceptions on individuals. Zyglidopoulos (2001) explored the influence of calamities on company's reputation for social performance. Backhaus, Stone and Heiner (2002) learned that job

hunters take into consideration CSP by firms, in the study of the connection between employer attractiveness and CSP.

Schwartz and Carroll (2003) re-constructed Carroll's 1979 and 1991 CSR four categories into three main domains of legal, economic and ethical parameters, bringing down the original concept of philanthropy into ethics. The 2000th era ushered a huge search for CSR best practices and a book written by Kotler and Lee in 2005 highlighted finest practices for business audience. CSR was regarded as an innovative approach of doing business which brings success, by bringing proactive attitude and respect to stakeholders (Smith & Ward, 2006). Kotler and Lee (2005) provided 25 CSR best practices, with examples, that were placed into six major categories; (a) increasing awareness and concern for social causes (cause promotion), (b) aiding to causes based on sales (cause-related marketing), (c) behaviour change initiatives (corporate social marketing), (d) generosity to causes (corporate philanthropy), (e) workforce giving time and gifts to the community (community volunteering) and (f) discretionary practices and investments to support causes (socially responsible business practices).

CSR grew into a global phenomena, even though the concept has intra-regional and intra-country variations in practice (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Some initiatives are more voluntary while others are 'forced' or lawful (Pirsch et al., 2007). There are variations in levels of commitment and management practice in areas such as standards of labour, human rights, environment and fighting bribery (Smith & Ward, 2006). Corporates achieve legal and ethical compliances through being formally institutionalised, setting policies, standards, codes or adopting international standards, registering with independent organisations such as consultancies, auditors, professional societies and so forth (Lockett, Moon & Visser, 2006; Popa & Salanta, 2014).

a) Socially responsible consumers and investors

Mohr, Webb and Harris (2001) measured the extent of consumer CSR awareness, whether consumer purchase decisions are influenced by firm's CSR activities and the degree to which consumers contemplate about firms' impetus to become socially responsible. The study also analysed whether consumers expect firms to be socially responsible and the extent consumers expect firms to be socially responsible. They found that consumers favour businesses in general, whenever they engage in CSR or not. Kotler (2000) however believes firms are not wrong in pursuing economic interests though consumers want socially responsible firms too. Nanda (2015) however is of the view that the attitude of consumers toward socially responsible firms are more positive than toward

irresponsible firms. Nevertheless, Kang et al., (2016) reveals that consumers are conscious of the fact that socially responsible firms are also serving themselves too through practicing CSR. According to Dahl and Lavack (1995) such a perception is not harmful and will not change the favourable consumer evaluation of socially responsible firms.

Kotler and Keller (2015) acknowledge the emergence of consumers and investors who uphold firm socially responsible practices. Carroll and Buchholtz (2006) agree with Kotler and Lee (2005) on the rise of consumers (and investors) in the form of individuals or organisations that will not participate in any societally and environmentally harmful activity. Papoutsy (2000) argues that such consumers will not purchase products they consider harmful to humans in terms of right or wrong, good or bad and simply human values, morals and systems, for example, alcoholic beverages. Kotler and Keller (2015) believe that the same consumers do not purchase even non-harmful products as long as they understand that the corporate systems or operations are not doing any societal or environmental good e.g. using child labour in production or abusing workforce. In the capacity of an individual or organisation, the same will not invest in a company that they consider irresponsible. This group (customers and investors) is largely governed by societal values, religious and cultural values in making judgements of corporate responsibility or irresponsibility (Eccles et al., 2012; Kauffeld, Maholtra & Higgins, 2009).

b) CSR, a corporate culture

According to Gerry and Donald (2002) corporate culture comprise elementary assumptions, values and principles commonly shared by organisational members. The assumptions, values or principles are either expressly written down or implied by the behaviour of management in business operations (Eccles et al., 2012). Similarities develop in terms of the way people in the organisation see their organisation and the atmosphere of the organisation's operations, including the nature of customers and how to handle them. Kotler (2000) agrees with Gerry and Donald (2002) that corporate culture is the shared experiences, beliefs and norms that characterise an organisation. According to Kotler (2000) corporate culture is organically transmitted from the personality and habits of the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) to the company's facets, which is its stakeholders and largely employees. Corporate culture involves the way people dress, how they talk to one another and the way they greet or place importance to the customers (Wright & Ferris, 1997). Corporate culture proceeds to how the company treats societal and environmental issues. Corporates in this century are fast becoming active members in improving the society and environment (Lii et al., 2013) and active members in advocating against damages to socio-environment components, spearheading socio-

environmental sustainability (Griffin, 2000; Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2014). CSR concepts now exists in firm standards or principles through their mission, vision, broad targets or objectives and set values (Wright & Ferris, 1997). Rahim et al., (2011) avow that CSR idea developed into a naturalised exercise not necessarily guided by the conventions of any certified law or authorised body but more like a routine practiced and obeyed by a firm.

c) CSR, a sustainable competitive strategy

According to Backhaus, Stone and Heiner (2002), CSR initiatives can be connected with building firm competitive capacities. Firm CSR motivation and target is a major concern to stakeholders (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006). According to the Watson Group (2015), CSR's provision rests on product differentiation strategies, marketing to sales ratio, labour supply, government contracts, firm size, industrial life cycle and local versus global coverage. Thus, a multinational which spreads business reach tends to be more CSR active than a small local organisation. Market competition may drive out (or lower) the profit level of socially responsible companies while the profit rate of socially irresponsible firms can rise in the short run (Backhaus, Stone & Heiner, 2002; Orlitzky, Schmidt & Rynes, 2003; Saeiddia, Saeiddia & Saeiddia, 2015). Socially responsible firms gain high revenues with high costs of being socially responsible, while other firms, the socially irresponsible ones, have low revenue at low costs. When using the cost-benefit analysis, managers need to find the optimal level of a firm's CSR investment, therefore balancing the interests of CSR demand side (customers, employees, community and environment) and the supply side (shareholders) (Freeman, 1984).

d) CSR, the washing away of corporates sins

Sethi (1995) states that the early CSR work focused on the alleged corporates' wrongdoings in the form of how corporates affect specific social groups, the need to control corporates' activities through regulation, public pressure and judicial actions. Walker and Kent (2009) affirm that the agenda of corporates exercising CSR maybe centered on negating the deleterious impacts that the company and its products offerings would have on the socio-environment and consumers. Chan (2014) argues that the latter could explain the reason corporates, especially multinational corporates, have to take on CSR, no matter it being a 'cost-item'. Porter and Kramer (2006), however, argue against the latter saying that CSR in the modern corporates contradicts that assumption and tradition.

An investigation by Kang et al., (2016) to determine whether CSR is not a washing away of firms' sins and that companies thrive well by also doing good shows that CSR is done through four

mechanisms. The four mechanisms include the slack resources mechanism, good management mechanism, penance mechanism and insurance mechanism as shown in Figure 2.4 below.

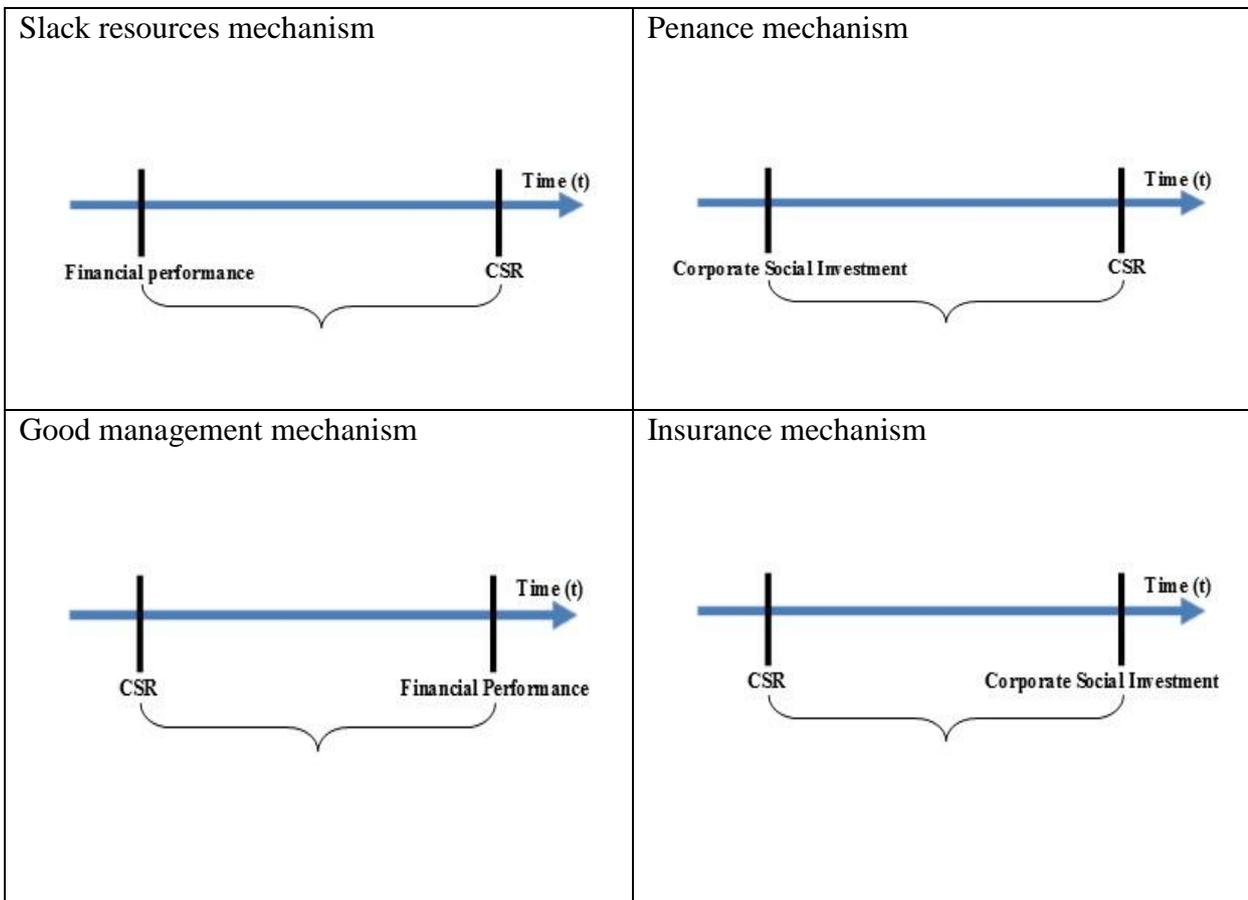


FIGURE 2.4: THE FOUR CSR MECHANISMS

Source – Kang et al., (2016): Washing away your sins? Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Social Irresponsibility and Firm Performance.

Slack resources mechanism involves corporates exercising CSR due to the fact that they are doing well, thus, have extra or slack financial resources (Orlitzky et al., 2003). In good management mechanism CSR is an element of good corporate management which enhances firm performance including financials (Hull & Rothenberg, 2008). Penance mechanism regards CSR as exercised by a corporate in order to offset previous corporate social irresponsibility (Kotchen & Moon, 2012). Under insurance mechanism the idea is that CSR develops a lake of benevolence to mitigate negativism in case something wrong happens or when a corporate is wrongly accused (Flammer, 2013). About the debate of the relationship of firm performance against CSR, Kang et al., (2016) believe that slack resources and good management relate CSR direct to financials whereas penance and insurance mechanisms links CSR to corporate social investments (CSI).

e) CSR in Multinational companies

Social responsibility is an attitude of corporates in society (Chan, 2014; Jayachandran, Kalaignaman & Eilert, 2013; Logsdon & Wood, 2002; Margolis, Elfenbein & Walsh, 2007; Reputation Institute, 2014; Schwab, 2008). Success in the society is achieved as corporates comply with laws, assume ethical behavior and take cognisance of environmental needs and interests of numerous partners (Chin, Hambrick & Trevino, 2013; Groening, Swaminathan & Mittal, 2015; Hull & Rothenberg, 2008; Mackey, Mackey & Barney, 2007; Oprea, 2005). Transnational corporates exist as a form of structure that balance up the economic - social equation of various nations they operate in (Tseng & Chen, 2008). Transnational or Multinational companies contribute positively through employment creation, investment and tax in nations (Chan, 2014; Lee, Stanculescu, Bunghez & Grozea, 2011). Transnational or Multinational companies have a high risk of leaving many unemployed when they decide to withdraw or reduce operations and can cause heavy depletion of natural resources when uncontrolled (Logsdon & Wood, 2002). Dimutri (2000) provides categories of transnational corporations, the manner of their design operations in Table 2.3 and societal expectations in Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.3: ORGANISATION CHARACTERISTICS OF TRANSNATIONAL CORPORATIONS

Design of Organisation	Ethnocentric organisation	Polycentric Organisation	Geocentric organisation
Identity	Same nationality as the mother company from the origin country	The same with the nationality of the host country	A true international company with national interests
Complexity of Organisation	Complex in the country of origin but simple at level of national units	Varied and independent	Very complex and Interdependent
Decisive Mechanism	“Hub” to the centre	Slight coordination to the centre	Tight cooperation between the general quarter and the national units.
Evaluation and Control	Performances and staff are evaluated according to the standards of the mother company	Local and diverse standards and evaluations	Selecting the adequate global standards for each national context
Recruitment and Training	Recruitment and training of key managers from the conationals of the country of origin and placing them in national positions	Recruitment and training of key managers from the co-nationals of the host country and placing them in management positions	Recruitment and training of key managers from the most competent, from the whole company irrespective of nationality and placing them in national leading positions
Information and Communication	High volume from the general quarter to the	Low volume between the general quarter	Informational and decisive flow

Flow	national units, under the form of indications and orders	and national units, insignificant volume between the national units	bidirectional between the national units/general quarter and national units
Motivation, Rewards and Sanctions	Concentrated on the level of the general quarter; low level of stimulation on the level on national units	Varied systems from one country to another in the same country	Mangers of the general quarter and of the national units are stimulated and rewarded according to the degree to which they meet their objectives
Degree of Expectation Regarding Community support	Low	Medium	Highest

Source - Dumitru (2000): Management International si Relatii Economice Internationale

TABLE 2.4: EXPECTATIONS OF SOCIETY, PARTNERS AND GOVERNMENT ON CORPORATIONS

The expectations of the society and partners on the corporations	The expectation of the corporation from the Governments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Profitability and long-term vision on investments. • Adherence to a set of governance principles • Payment of taxes • Production processes which should not be harmful to the environment • The existence of an ethical code • Social responsibility policy which should include: resources, social audit, management system for social responsibility, training. • Support of local communities, philanthropic contributions • Absence of corruption • Absence of transfer prices • Good working conditions and safety systems for the employees • Non-discriminatory recruitment and promotion of the employees 	<p><i>On a national level:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stable environment which should provide open markets • Clear investment policy • Safe legal frame and institutions which apply it, competent administrative apparatus without corruption • Democratic practices • Fiscal incentives for social responsibility practices <p><i>On an international level:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correct and transparent rules for the trade activity • Independent arbitration bodies for disputes • Availability of information regarding: investments, transfer of the best practices and funding the social responsibility actions

Source - Dumitru (2000): Management International si Relatii Economice Internationale

Table 2.4 outlines the various expectations of the society, partners and governments on corporations, at the level of transnational or multinational corporations.

f) CSR demand and CSR supply perspectives

CSR demand depicts the need for CSR or those entities that want firms to engage in CSR. McWilliams and Siegel (2000) hypothesise two main sources of CSR demand as mainly customers and stakeholders, which include employees, investors and the community. The nature of consumer

demand for CSR ranges from products or services with the right quality, socio-environmental consciousness and intangible attributes such as reputation (Donald & Adam, 2004). McWilliams and Siegel (2000) further suggest a new perspective of CSR demand, which is from the company's side advocating that corporates do CSR as a differentiation strategy.

The CSR supply perspective looks at the firm's side, its capacity and CSR strategies. Corporates engage in R&D to bring CSR innovatively in the form of recyclable products, organic pest control and so forth, which is evidently valued by consumers (Gigauri, 2012; Lai, Chin, Yang & Pai, 2010). According to Green and Peloza (2014) customers desire that products they are buying carry social responsibility attributes. Customers value goods they purchase knowing that they are responsibly produced, marketed and distributed. McWilliams and Siegel (2001) support the view that products and company attributes showing CSR consciousness create a good reputation for the company, and this further suggests that a corporate is reliable and honest.

2.7 Corporate Social Responsibility theories

As soon as one assumes CSR has been fully defined, new phrases such as corporate social performance, corporate sustainability, corporate social responsiveness and so forth emerge (Matten & Moon, 2008), showing that the CSR issues have not been fully resolved (Carroll, 2008). CSR can be illustrated in inclusive, concentric and hierarchical models as suggested by Eberstadt (1973). Bowen the father of CSR, defined CSR in the parameters of obligations, decisions and actions a businessman pursues in terms of societal objectives and values (Bowen, 1953). The CSR concept developed into two important angles in theory which are the stockholder and the social contract theory (Carroll, 2008; Freeman, 1984, 1999). These two angles formed the most basic schools of thought and investigations were carried out to find areas of commonalities and to determine which one outdoes the other in theoretical understanding of CSR (Bebbington, Larrinaga & Moneva, 2008; Kanji & Agrawal, 2016). The following sub-sections provide basic theories or models that have been used in literature to explain CSR.

2.7.1 The stakeholder theory

The stakeholder theory suggests that firms exercise CSR that is in line with taking care of the views or concerns of their stakeholders (Argandoña, 1998; Freeman, 1984; Post, 2003). Rahim et al., (2011) claim that organisations succeed and survive as they meet both non-economic (e.g. corporate social performance) and economic (profit maximisation) objectives (Pirsch et al., 2007). Early work

by Freeman (1984) defines a stakeholder as any group or individual affecting and/ or getting affected by the existence of a corporate. There are primary stakeholders which include employees, shareholders, customers, investors, suppliers and secondary stakeholders which are diverse, not directly involved in the corporate but can exert influence or are affected by the firm e.g. the media, government and the general community (Clarkson, 1995; Donald & Adam, 2004). Organisations take care of stakeholder interests in order to achieve a firm's economic well being, survival, competitive edge, trust and allegiance (Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997). Pirsch et al., (2007) believe that the stakeholder theory has a more revealing argument on what drives corporates to invest in CSR. The stakeholder theory articulates that a firm's success and survival is contingent with meeting economic and non-economic goals in line with the needs of the corporate's stakeholders (Freeman, 1984).

2.7.2 The Intersecting Circles Model

According to Schwartz and Carroll (2003), the CSR Intersecting Circles model incorporates some of Carroll's hierarchical parameters of CSR which are legal, moral, economic and ethical aspects of CSR. Schwartz and Carroll (2003) claim that none of the three components is more important than the other when it comes to CSR. Logsdon and Wood (2002) said that a business is a profit venture, but also a social creation, for the continued survival and thriving, society has to be willing to endure, tolerate or support. A business earns support through obligations and responsibilities it fulfills (Marin & Ruiz, 2007). The argument is that doing economic activities without moral or legal responsibilities is unacceptable (Meehan, Meehan & Richards, 2006), there should be an interlink between these facets as shown in Figure 2.5 below.

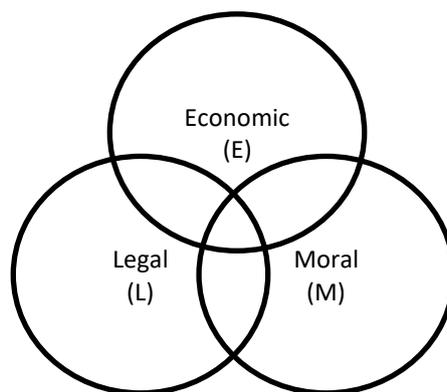


FIGURE 2.5: THE INTERSECTING CIRCLES

Source - Schwartz and Carroll (2003): Corporate Social Responsibility. A three-domain approach.

According to Kanji and Agrawal (2016) CSR is incomplete without the firm's philanthropic acts. In 1971, the Committee for Economic Development issued a statement leading to the growth of the Concentric Circles Model of CSR encompassing the philanthropic circle (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016). The statement encouraged corporates to have a more human view in their functions, positing that business social contracts are not only feasible but morally necessary. Figure 2.6 shows the important circles of this model including the philanthropic circle.

2.7.3 The Concentric Circles Model

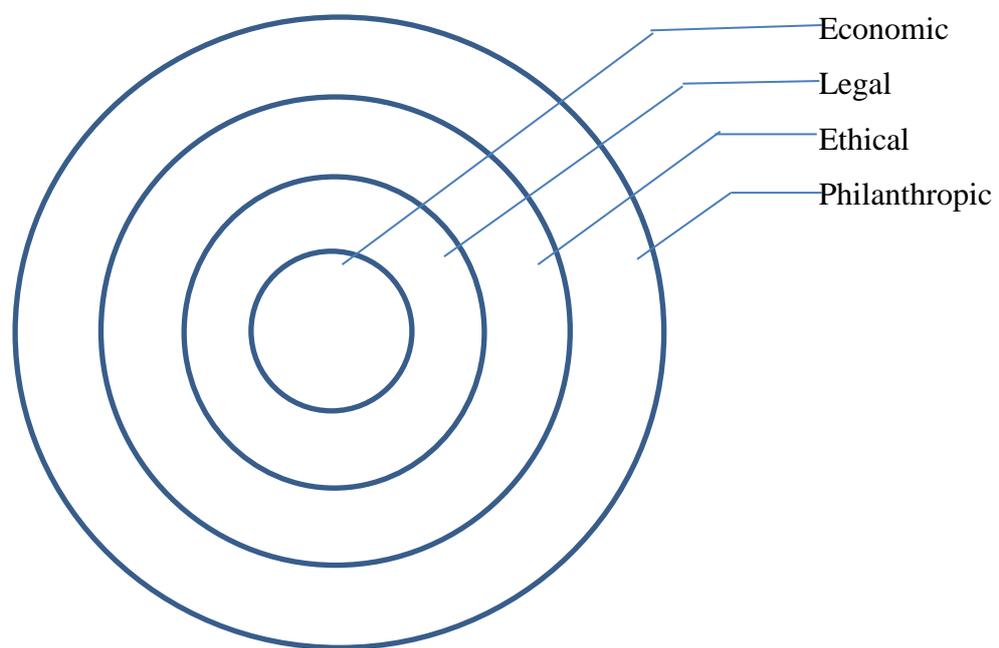


FIGURE 2.6: THE CONCENTRIC CIRCLES MODEL

Source - Kanji and Agrawal (2016): Models of Corporate Social Responsibility: Comparison, Evolution and Convergence.

According to Kanji and Agrawal (2016) the committee originally proposed a model with three rings that include economic (growth, stability, job, financial, products), ethical (conscious knowledge of ethical norms and standards in the process of exercising economic functions) and philanthropic activities (improving social environment with amorphous responsibilities). The idea that businesses need to operate legally from inception led to the development of the legal circle (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016). In order for a firm to embrace CSR in full, the four components (economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic) must be represented in the firm activities or operations.

2.7.4 3C-SR Model

John Meehan, Karon Meehan and Adam Richards developed the 3C-SR model in the 1960s, the model is shown in Figure 2.7 below.

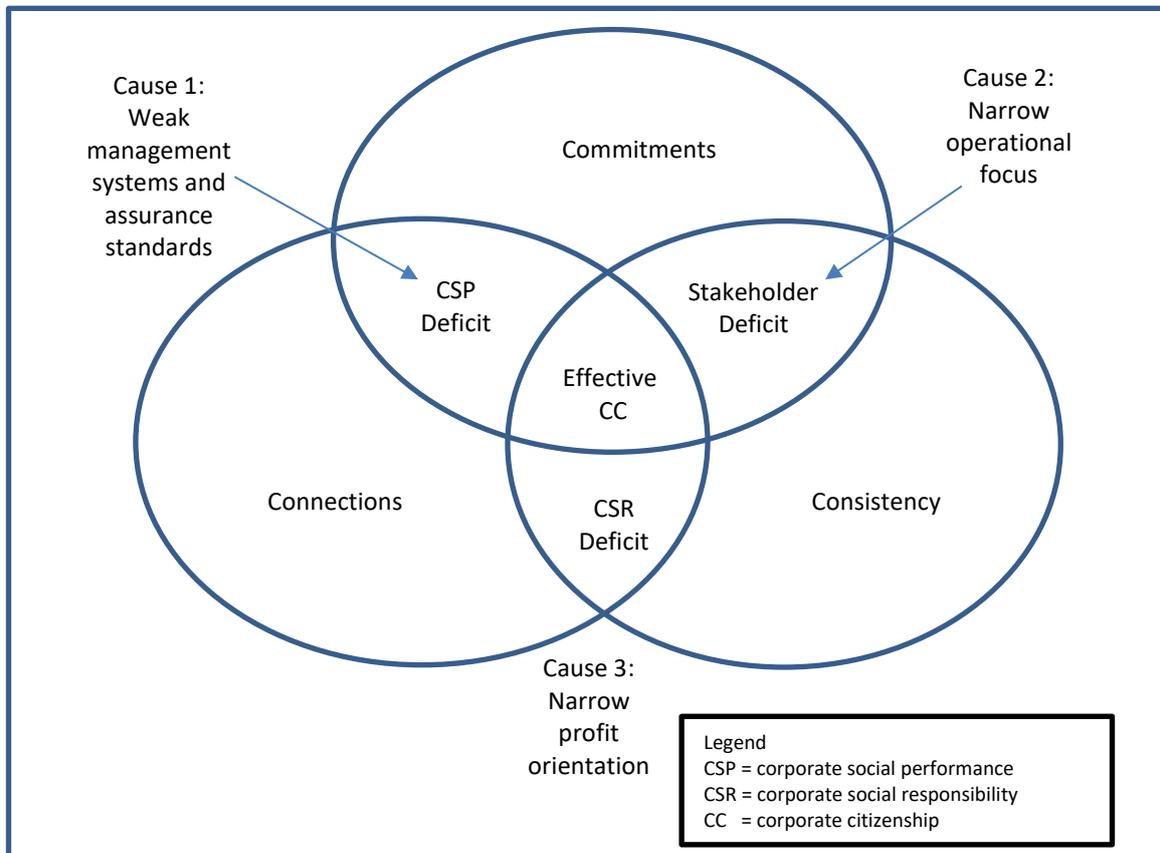


FIGURE 2.7: 3C-SR MODEL

Source - Kanji and Agrawal (2016): Models of Corporate Social Responsibility: Comparison, Evolution and Convergence

The model argues that CSR has three main components which are ethical and social *commitments*, *connections* with partners in the value chain network and *consistency* of behaviour to build trust (Meehan, Meehan & Richards, 2006). Commitments are formed from legal, ethical and economic dimensions of the business. Connections are defined in complex constellations of creating value chain in business operations. Consistency brings predictability, trust and loyalty. Business is required to walk-the-talk otherwise firms may fall into ill-fame through inconsistency of behavior (Park et al., 2014; Pivato et al., 2006). Figure 2.7 above shows the interconnectedness of the expected firm 3Cs.

To achieve effective corporate citizenship, where corporate citizenship is a platform for effective CSR, a firm must find activities that link the company connections, consistency and commitments in the marketplace.

2.7.5 Liberal Model

In 1958 Milton Friedman, an American economist challenged the CSR concept, setting forth the idea that corporates should solely be responsible to the owners (Friedman, 1971). His point was that business is required to make wealth as they obey the law, and the wealth enables tax payments and charitable activities to meet social ends (Argandona, 1998). The Liberal model discourages the imprisonment of firms by setting societal targets for firms. As firms achieve high profit, they ultimately meet social responsibility in one way or the other through direct or indirect organisation activities directed towards the community (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006).

2.7.6 Ackerman's model

Ackerman's model was proposed before the idea of putting CSR activities in terms of priorities, liabilities or responsibilities (Clarkson, 1995). Ackerman and Bauer (1976) provide phases that need to be followed in CSR implementation, which are;

- Phase 1: High level management have to recognise a societal problem
- Phase 2: Thorough investigation of the problem, seek solutions, even through professionals
- Phase 3: Implementing the proposed strategy

CSR is the task of high level management where high level management identifies, analyses a societal problem and set out proposals including organising resources. High level management ensures successful execution of the proposal. Ackerman's model guides the implementation of CSR rather than its formulation (Ackerman & Bauer, 1976). According to Kanji and Agrawal (2016) due to the fact that this model, also considered as a plan, was attempting to provide solutions to predicaments, other parameters and constraints of CSR activities may be practically excluded.

2.7.7 The pyramid model of CSR

Carroll proposed the idea of the totality of CSR, arguing that all responsibilities and obligations of a firm in different fields can be summarised (Carroll, 1991; Pinkston & Carroll, 1996). Carroll's pyramid shows CSR responsibilities going up with decreasing order of priority (using the company's perspective) and going down, there is decreasing order of priority (using the societal perspective) (Carroll, 1991) as shown in Figure 2.8 below.

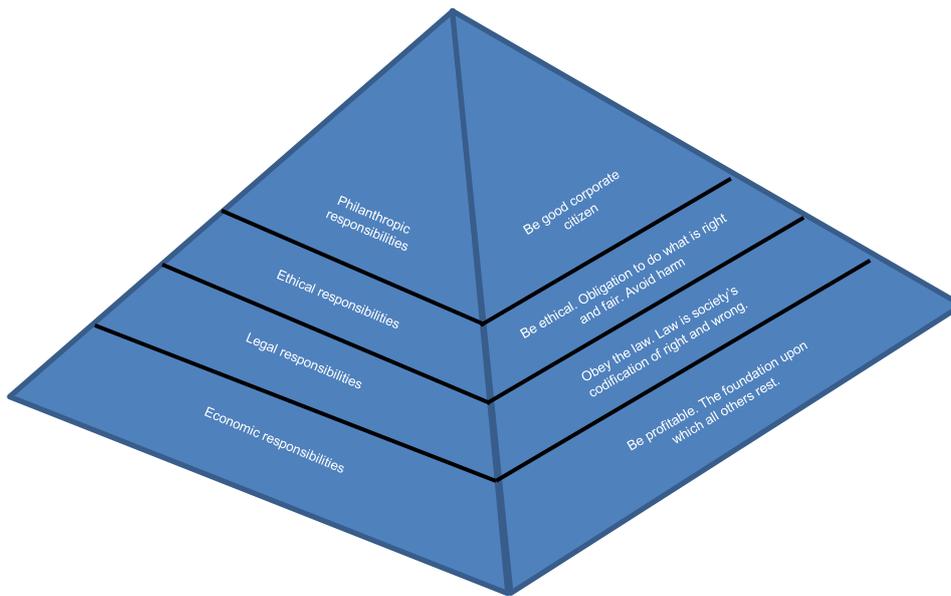


FIGURE 2.8: CAROLL'S CSR PYRAMID

Source – Carroll (1991): The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organisational Stakeholders.

Pinkston and Carroll (1996) argue that economic and financial responsibilities are the most important and without these, the others simply become unresolved responsibilities. Philanthropic responsibilities are considered discretionary and have been assigned the least priority (Carroll, 1999). Carroll's CSR pyramid is applauded for ensuring that firms understand that business have the capacity to focus on both social and financial concerns (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Carroll's pyramid is a replica of the Concentric Circles Model though it emphasises that economic responsibilities are the pillar and starting point of all other CSR responsibilities, represented by being at the broadbase of the triangle as shown in Figure 2.8 above.

2.7.8 Seth's three parameters

In 1975, Seth proposed a CSR three parameters model that comprise social responsiveness, social responsibility and social obligation as shown in Table 2.5 below (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016).

TABLE 2.5: SETH'S THREE PARAMETERS

Social obligation	Firms should be socially responsible and grow bigger within the set legal constraints (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006).
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Social responsibility	Firms should not only be successful within the confines of legal requirements but also in accordance with society salient norms, providing a balance on what the society wants from them and what they need from the society (Carroll & Shabana, 2010).
Social responsiveness	Firms are required to be accountable and have dynamic dialogue with stakeholders, involving them in decision making (Ackerman & Bauer, 1976).

Source - Kanji and Agrawal (2016): Models of Corporate Social Responsibility: Comparison, Evolution and Convergence.

2.7.9 International organisations' CSR engagement models

Table 2.6 shows accepted models of CSR, as a perspective from various countries, regions and important international organisations. CSR has been accepted in different perspectives, therefore may mean different things, principles and issues covered as shown in Table 2.6.

TABLE 2.6: INTERNATIONAL CSR ENGAGEMENT MODELS

European model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CSR is a win-win scenario, as corporates increase profitability at the same time increasing benefits to the society. • CSR is a consequence of attention paid to corporate governance and business ethics. • CSR benefits include; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ direct benefit reflected in profitability. ✓ reduction of costs associated with pollution, carbon and resources saving policy. ✓ image or reputation; consumers being attracted to corporates (and its products) promoting responsible attitude. ✓ strengthening the position and influence of the company.
United Nations model	<p>The Global Compact developed 10 basic principles based on human rights, labour standards, environment and fighting against corruption as follows;</p> <p><i>Human rights:</i></p> <p>1st Principle: Business should support and respect the human rights adopted internationally.</p> <p>2nd Principle: Business should make sure they are not accomplices to the abuses coming from the violation of the human rights.</p> <p><i>Labor:</i></p> <p>3rd Principle: Business should support the liberty of association and the effective acknowledgement of the collective negotiation right.</p> <p>4th Principle: The elimination of all forced types of labor</p>

	<p>5th Principle: Child labor abolition 6th Principle: Elimination of employment discrimination</p> <p><i>Environment:</i> 7th Principle: Companies are required to have a cautious approach regarding the environmental changes. 8th principle: Assuming the initiatives regarding the environment. 9th principle: Encouraging the development and the distribution of the "friendly" technologies regarding environment.</p> <p><i>Anti-corruption:</i> 10th Principle: Companies should fight against corruption under all its forms including bribery.</p>
The Management Model	<p>This model was also supported by the UN Global Compact and the following steps should be taken;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Adopting the UN Global Compact guidelines into the company systems. 2. Identifying the positives and risks on the areas covered by the guidelines. 3. Defining the objectives, strategies and policies. 4. Implementing the strategies and policies in the company along the activity chain which add value. 5. Measuring and monitoring the impact and the progress for the fulfilment of the objectives. 6. Communicating the progress and employing the stakeholders in the application of the strategies.
The Leadership model	<p>Emphasises the implementation of the Global Compact 10 Principles. A comprehensive approach of the objectives, participation to the UN Global Compact networks and the involvement of branches. Adoption of the Blueprint for Corporate Sustainability which emphasizes that the CEO, the Board of Directors and stakeholders be the nucleus of social responsibility and sustainability.</p>
The OECD Model	<p>With the support of 40 governments; 30 OECD member states and 10 outside members, the OECD in 1976 developed comprehensive guidelines supporting CSR for multinational enterprises, which starts with high level standards regarding employment of labour force and industrial relations.</p>
The Caux Model	<p>The Caux model has 7 general principles for the management of the organisation based on two ethical concepts, the kyosei, Japanese concept which means to live and work together; and the concept of human dignity. The Caux principles recognises both international and national laws; and the fact that certain behaviours even if they can be legal, can have negative consequences. Business responsibilities extends beyond shareholders but to all the stakeholders, and following laws in order to build trust.</p>

Source - Kanji and Agrawal (2016): Models of Corporate Social Responsibility - Comparison, Evolution and Convergence

The models articulated above serve as a platform to show the fluidity of CSR. The models indicate that various countries and organisations view CSR differently and thus came up with different CSR issues to consider. From the table above, it can be deduced that CSR is flexible and means different things in different countries.

2.7.10 Indian CSR models

The Indian Models of CSR are crucial for studying the emergence and development of CSR at both country and cultural level. The Indian people are widely known to be culturally sensitive with ethical values such as giving, helping and seeking peace with neighbors. This section gives a brief overview of the Ethical Model and Statist Model of India as follows;

a) Ethical model

This model has its base in the early 20th century and it is premised on Mahatma Gandhi's influence. The model was developed as a result of the need to demonstrate social development commitment by Indian industrialists. Mahatma Gandhi called for the need of trusteeship, where owners of corporates would manage wealth voluntarily on behalf of society. The Indian philanthropic story is graced with initiatives such as kind or cash donations, community investment trusts and supply of critical services which include hospitals, libraries and schools by corporates. Ambanis (Reliance) and Tatas have been seen doing so much to support philanthropic activities (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016).

b) Statist model

In New Delhi, 2008, on the CSR First International Summit that was organised by the Ministry of Corporate Affairs and ASSOCHAM, a consensus was reached to develop India's second CSR model (KPMG & ASSOCHAM, 2008) that balances social and economic objectives of firms and the country. The proposal was to co-exist or collaborate large, state-owned public firms and private-sector firms, in a socialist and mixed economy. The components of corporate responsibility relating to worker and community relationships are also engrossed in management principles and labor laws. This is considered as a state-sponsored corporate philosophy. The next section focuses on Australian CSR models.

2.7.11 Australia CSR models

Cronin (2001) opines that over several decades CSR evolved from the level of isolated concerns on particular tasks into an all-inclusive corporate plan. CSR operates on a theoretical continuum, further moving to a care for others then to profit interest, limited number of firms in this century can be found completely on one extreme (Birch & Batten, 2001). Corporates mix beliefs, motives and techniques when engaging in CSR (Lyons, 2001). Cronin (2001) says Australia CSR models articulate an understanding of corporate philanthropy though they are used to portray CSR as a whole too. The following are some of the Australian models;

a) Neoclassical or Corporate Productivity model

According to Cronin (2001) the Neoclassical or Corporate Productivity model perceives CSR as a profit driven strategy. Milton Friedman says that the philosophy behind the Neoclassical or Corporate Productivity model is the economy (Dumais & Cohn, 1993). The Neoclassical or Corporate Productivity model accepts CSR as long as the corporate's prime goal (profit) is not affected. This means CSR is to be avoided if it does not enhance the profitability of the firm. It is not possible with this approach to have CSR demands to emerge unchecked and unquestioned (Margolis & Walsh, 2001).

b) Ethical or Altruistic model

According to Logan (1997), corporate citizenship, which explains the interwoven relationship between the community and firms, is best described by the Ethical or Altruistic model. The creation, motivation and sustenance of corporates hinges on their philanthropic outlook (Cronin, 2001). Weiser and Zadek (2000) believe that limited firms fit this model though many firm efforts such as giving fall in this model. Cronin (2001) believes that majority small family firms were found fitting in this model even though their CSR programs were profit driven and bulk of their CSR were simply ethical or often religious based.

c) Political model

Logan (1997) talks of the need by firms to offset government involvement, at the same time protecting firm interest in the public policy domain. The Political model borrows ideas from the American firm CSR approach of minimising legislation, taxation and regulation (Cronin, 2001). To avoid or minimise legislation, taxation and regulation firms in America would self-regulate or create innovative, alternative plans. The justification of the Political model lies in the argument by Logan (1997) that for firms to have independent growth or prosperity, business leaders must understand

the reciprocity required in promoting social and economic development. Firms in Australia who adopted the Political model were seen engaging in uncountable social coalitions (McClure, 1999). Beesley and Evans (1978) believe that governments differ, one government can decide to foster a hostile climate to corporate giving, while the other can be supportive.

d) Stakeholder model

Cronin (2001) says that the Triple Bottom Line concepts of corporate citizenship and accountability are manifested in the Stakeholder model. The Stakeholder model proclaims that CSR is executed to meet various stakeholder interests. The Stakeholder model attempts to balance competing demands of numerous groups that support a firm, which include shareholders and customers. Using the Stakeholder model, Peters (2001) advocates for a communication scheme, involving all stakeholder consultation and evaluation of the corporate and society wellbeing. Zadek, Pruzen and Evans (2001) argue that new research on the connection between CSR and stock performance brought other stakeholder guided interests such as market, financial, reputation and human resource indicators of CSR. Gregg (2001) assumes CSR compromises the contractual performance and moral relationship existing particularly among owners, employees and customers.

2.8 Antecedents of CSR

This section focuses on issues and factors that influence independent and positive evaluation of a firm and its CSR activities. CSR can be evaluated with contempt, dislike and suspicion as found out by Chen et al., (2015) who say that a firm will not achieve positive results from CSR whenever consumers have contempt, dislike and suspicion. This section goes on to explain factors that can impede firms to deliver or engage in CSR.

2.8.1 The consumer demand side

Kotler and Keller (2015) acknowledge the existence of factors that influence consumers on their evaluation of a corporate and the genuinity of CSR programs. Dahl and Lavack (1995) state that engaging in CSR itself or communicating much about CSR by a corporate can be misjudged (self-praise dilemma), causing negative consumer attitude. Additionally, Donald and Adam (2004) stress that customers who are unaware of a corporate's CSR do not change their attitude to be positive towards the corporate because there are other issues they consider crucial. Factors that consumers consider in evaluating firms and CSR include brand image, brand prestige, corporate reputation, price or rate, products performance, convenience or availability, consumer ethnocentrism and

psychological distance (Porter & Kramer, 2006; Yuan-S huh et al., 2013). These factors are discussed below;

a) Brand image

A brand is a name, term, symbol, colour or logo that stands for a company and/ or its products (Kotler & Keller, 2015). A brand has a remarkable effect on the guarantee of quality for consumers and therefore, the attitude created by such effect results in consumer purchase or non-purchase decisions (Lichtenstein, Drumwright & Braig 2004; Solomon et al., 2007). According to Keller (1993), a brand image exists in the concepts, feelings and attitudes consumers hold for a brand. Vascellaro (2011) contends that a good image increases the chances of consumer preference for buying the product and reinforce the perception that consumers hold for quality. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) suggest that a consumer with a higher brand image perception automatically holds higher evaluations for the brand which further induces positive purchase behaviour. In other words, brand image may take high precedence in consumer evaluation. Consumers have a tendency to overlook or ignore firm CSR or other activities in decisions making process to purchase or not purchase products based on the image of a brand (Baek, Kim & Yu, 2010; Wu et al., 2016). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) support that a brand with a better image has considerably low risk perception, and the lower risk perception translates to higher consumer trust and real positive attitude towards the brand. Oberseder et al., (2011) concurs with Carroll and Shabana (2010) that on one hand brand image precedes evaluation of CSR despite extensive CSR efforts by a firm, while on the other hand CSR spruces brand image, brand evaluation and improve consumer attitude. Baek et al., (2010) propose that brand prestige is a relatively elevated standing of product ranking connected to a brand rather than brand image.

b) Brand prestige

Brand prestige is a comparatively high eminence of product ranking associated with a brand (Baek et al., 2010). In other words, brand prestige is the elite position a brand takes in the marketplace. Corporates engage in CSR in order to strengthen their prestige, while similar to brand image, brand prestige can positively or negatively stand in the way of CSR and firm independent evaluation (Curras-Perez, Binge-Alcaniz & Alvarado-Herrera, 2009). Social contribution or local community contribution elevates brand prestige and affects consumers' buying intention (Lee & Shin, 2010). Oberseder et al., (2011) argue that socially responsible corporates affect consumer attitude, that is, how consumers emulate the firm and brand prestige but does not necessarily influence actual purchase behavior. Kuenzel and Halliday (2008; 2010) confirm the positive relationship existing

between brand identification and brand prestige saying that when consumers perceive a reputable brand, they develop a high level of brand identification. Brand prestige or perceived brand prestige is a precursor of product evaluation, consumer attitude and buying intention (Elbedweihy & Jayawardhena, 2014; Moslehpour & Yumnu, 2014).

Brand prestige vs brand identification and purchase intention

Consumer brand identification and purchase intention are affected by brand prestige (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). Consumers develop a high degree of brand identification when they perceive that a brand is more recognisable (Moslehpour & Yumnu, 2014). Elbedweihy and Jayawardhena (2014) believe that brand prestige takes a position of an antecedent of buying intention, while Tseng and Chen (2008) advocate that a consumer develops increasing buying intentions when they also have higher perceived brand prestige.

c) Corporate Reputation

Helm (2011) defines corporate reputation as one of the socially shared impressions, that is, it is a collective concept. A collective concept is a shared impression in which an individual's perception relies on other peoples' views on the subject matter. Chen et al., (2015) state that corporates adopt CSR so that they spruce or boost corporate image or reputation. Barnett, Jermier and Lafferty (2006) believe corporate reputation stands to preclude positive CSR evaluation, that is, corporate reputation stands in the way of consumer independent evaluation of a company. A firm with a good reputation has positive acceptance of CSR (Park et al., 2014). Kang et al., (2016) agree with Yoon, Gurhan-Canli and Schwarz (2006) that corporates with a negative or bad reputation can use CSR as a shield or an instrument to cover sins. Walker and Kent (2009) declare that corporate executives should be in a position to understand that corporate reputation is a factor for success and the most valuable intangible assets.

Corporates cultivate relations with consumers through reputation building exercises, in order to bolster corporate reputation. Lewis (2001) suggests that when investing in strong and positive reputation programs, social responsibility programs bring positive will in employees, customers and other constituents enhancing long run profitability or viability. Walker and Kent (2009) trust there is a resilient connection between the corporate, its customers and the general community, therefore, social responsibility activities become popular for corporate reputation building. Lewis (2001) states that reputation is related to commitment and loyalty.

Consumers have an overall positive attitude towards corporates associated with addressing societal causes or doing activities that benefit the society (Perez, 2009). Corporates which use own resources in order to aid society or contribute to the social welfare have an improved overall reputation ranking (Helm, 2011; Yoon et al., 2006). In testing the relationship between CSR, consumer trust and corporate reputation, Park et al., (2014) made use of Carroll's CSR parameters in the form of ethical, economic, legal and philanthropic responsibilities. Park et al., (2014) noted that economic and legal responsibilities increase corporate positive reputation. Saeidia, Saeidia and Saeidia (2015) claim that reputation acts a competitive edge standing in the link between corporate performance and CSR.

i) CSR vs consumer attitude and corporate reputation

CSR is defined by Mohr et al., (2001) as those actions a corporate engages in to minimise or eliminate possibly dangerous effects and enhance positive long run consumer attitude and corporate reputation evaluations. Drucker (1974) says that business schools of thought, labour leaders, environmental activists and consumer advocators need to support social accountability and ensure corporates which are using scarce or diminishing natural resources, doing mass production damaging the eco-system, all forms of environmental degradation have to payback. Eccles et al., (2012) believe that corporate behaviour is directly linked to consumer attitude which leads to corporate evaluation. CSR adoption is now becoming unavoidable as there is rising expectations of corporate responsibility by societies (Ali, 2011; Ali et al., 2010b).

ii) Corporate reputation and purchase intentions

The corporate identity concept emerged after and overtook the corporate image concept in the 1950s (Bennett & Kottasz, 2000). Ali (2011) explains that corporate identity developed to corporate reputation in the 1970s and 1980s (Bennett & Kottasz, 2000). Ali (2011) submits that corporate reputation defines a collective set of beliefs or opinions about a company's capability and enthusiasm on meeting stakeholders concerns. This drives the way in which a firm can act in a given circumstance.

Corporate reputation can be good or bad, but good corporate reputation promote survival of a firm through improving buying intentions and actual buying behaviour (Barnett et al., 2006). Fombrun (1996) provides a framework of the relationship between CSR, corporate reputation and purchase intention as shown in the diagram below.

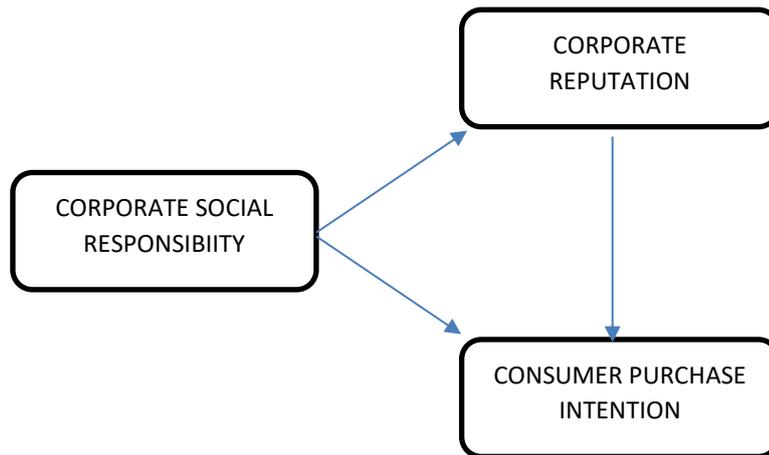


FIGURE 2.9: CSR, CORPORATE REPUTATION AND PURCHASE INTENTIONS

Source - Ali (2011): Influence of Corporate Social Responsibility on development of Corporate Reputation and Customer Purchase Intentions.

CSR impacts both corporate reputation and consumer purchase intention, at the same time corporate reputation separately influences consumer purchase intention as shown in Figure 2.9 above.

d) CSR and Social Interaction

Social interaction, referred to as the buyer-seller guanxi, translates to the Chinese way of creating social interaction, how the community believes in one another and how this affects trust (Wu et al., 2016). Wu et al., (2016) explains that among the Chinese people, the buyer-seller guanxi is a special social transaction relationship of mutual exchange through experiential and interactive marketing. That is, social interaction is concerned with human relations and their effect on business, for example, salespeople (seller) often stimulate potential purchase psychology through fore-taste or samples while consumers (buyer) acquire free opportunities through the promotion, that is why it is termed a ‘buyer-seller guanxi. Simpler, guanxi refers to the way a company connects with people. This has a direct impact on the way the company is perceived by the consumers. Companies with a good social standing are usually rewarded with customer loyalty.

Loyalty is evident in consumer repeated purchasing, approval or support to an enterprise through social interaction and word-of-mouth (Gronholdt et al., 2000). Jones, Mothersbaugh and Beatty (2000) affirm that a consumers’ proportion of a corporate’s products relative to entire customer purchases, intention to continue buying and intention to recommend others is a measure of the customers assurance to patronise the firm. Firms therefore should place attaining customers’

assurance at the prime level of marketing strategies in order to generate sustainable purchase behaviour and word-of-mouth (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010). Davis and Blomstrom (1975) state that social interactions can stand between firm CSR activities and consumer evaluation of a firm. Social interactions come in various forms and can go as far as other non-business factors. Social interactions such as dinner and the after dinner recognition enhances belonging (Salmones, Crespo & Bosque, 2005). Customers who feel far divorced from the corporate itself do not justify, support or have time to assess the corporate's social activities.

e) Psychological distance

Liberman and Trope (1998) say that psychological space and psychological distance show how close or far an activity, event or object feels from self. According to Yuan-Shuh et al., (2013) the key to psychological distance is that consumers consider a close activity, event or object as having critical, specific, concrete discrete or observable attributes or features. Liberman, Trope and Wakslak (2007) suggest that an event, activity or object that is distant is categorised in terms of intangible, abstract, unobservable and broad concepts. Yuan-Shuh et al., (2013) outline four manifestations of psychological distance which govern consumer evaluation, prediction and behaviour in decision making which are temporal distance, spatial distance, hypothetical distance and social distance. Spatial distance is the actual distance between a reference position, that is, the resident place of consumer against the location where the activity happens. Temporal distance is the real expanse amidst a point of reference, for example, today against the time at which the activity happens. Social distance occurs when a consumer perceives that the activity occurring has been endorsed by a firm or person that is similar or dissimilar to the consumer. Hypotheticality is the assumption which follows that the event is highly likely or unlikely to occur. The favourability of psychological distance leads to positive evaluation by a consumer, which is when the CSR is recent or closer to the consumer or is in line with consumer values or has high chances of occurring, the consumer positively regards the firm and therefore its CSR initiatives (Marrewijk, 2003).

2.8.2 The corporate supply side

McWilliams and Siegel (2001) suggest that a firm has both a CSR demand and supply side. The supply side looks at the firm, its resources and capacity to provide CSR. The following are factors that can hinder a firm in supplying CSR and attain consumer independent or positive evaluation.

a) Company ability

Lee and Qu (2010) suggest two fundamental issues that affect consumer perceptions of a corporate or products and these issues are Company Ability (CA) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Davis and Blomstrom (1975) explain that CA and CSR work together in association. McGuire et al., (1988) are of the view that CSR does not have a direct effect on a corporate's production. In turn, Lee and Qu (2010) define CA as a direct association to a corporate's expertise in manufacturing and supplying its outputs which include employees' expertise, expertise in manufacturing, customer focus and leading in industry. CA includes issues such as the propensity to provide or deliver quality services in the form of friendliness, professionalism and physical evidence (exteriors, equipment and interiors). Salmones, Crespo and Bosque (2005) state that in the hospitality industry, CA has been studied and taken as the main factor behind customer satisfaction and corporate evaluation.

CA is one of the parameters used by consumers as pillars to corporate image and reputation (Lachowetz et al., 2002). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) say that CSR tends to achieve positive effects on interested parties such as shareholders, workers and consumers. Kang et al., (2016) believe that the traditional view of CSR adoption by a firm is based on the slack resources mechanism, which entails that firms take up CSR when they have extra CA (firm resources). With this view, CA is a determinant of CSR adoption, firms with more capabilities are able to engage in CSR than firms that have less capabilities. According to Green and Pelozo (2014) large firms tend to have more capabilities or resources therefore engage or are expected to engage in CSR more than small firms.

b) Corporate values

Maignan and Ferrell (2004) suggest that CSR has high propensity to affect consumer attitude. According to Lee and Lee (2015) CSR heightens company-consumer or customer-identity (CCID) through consumer evaluation of self image congruency to corporate values. Yoon et al., (2006) indicate that the extent of overlay between a customer's self image or values with the company's image or values influences the strength of identification. Consumers' ability to identify with a company provides reasonable basis of comprehending that CSR is able to generate active supporters (Maignan & Farrell, 2004; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). In other words, CSR influences consumers' corporate evaluation mediated by consumer-company identity. As consumers develop positive identification, there are increased chances of positive purchase intentions, trust, word-of-mouth and customer loyalty that augment combating of negative publicity (McDonald & Rundle-Thiele, 2007).

Yoon et al., (2006) suggest that corporate values determine corporate image and consumers measure CSR in relation to their (consumers) values too. Corporate values determine CSR culture, CSR forms and CSR investment (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Chen et al., (2015) suggest that to maintain customers, corporates must make efforts in the corporate values system to ensure consumers identify with the firm. The identification assists the consumer in satisfying any of their central self-definitional values or needs (Lii et al., 2013). Identification is a psychological attachment serving as an idea of being part of or belonging to a greater social structure (Walker & Kent, 2009). This leads to higher consumer emotional involvement and personal commitment (James, Kolbe & Trail, 2007). Funk and James (2001) argue that consumers identifying closely with a corporate reveal deeply embedded values that define them, leading to a deeper sense of pride in the corporate. Identification is a predictor of the consumer affective, cognitive and behavioural bias (Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann, Tucker & Schrader, 1996). According to Heere and James (2007) identification is a new phenomena posing challenges in interpreting its incorporation with CSR, implying that further research needs to be done with respect to this area.

c) Company attitude and commitment

Perez (2009) points out that corporate attitude and commitment are valuable mediators of consumer company identification and purchase intention. Company attitude and commitment towards the society resides in corporate values and resources allocated to carry out CSR (Chin et al., 2013). Value systems form the bedrock of company culture, attitude and commitment towards the society (Groening et al., 2015). Cultural underpinnings of a group, organisation or society determines their attitude (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006). Commitment directed towards CSR from workforce rests in the relationship that subordinates have with seniors and the level of commitment that seniors have to the corporate values which engross CSR (Helm, 2011).

It is necessary to consider factors that hinder or promote CSR engagement and communication by a company from both the CSR demand-side (the consumer) and the CSR supply-side (the company), for these make up practical issues that hamper CSR capacity in the marketplace.

2.9 Antecedents of CSR awareness

This section focuses on antecedents of CSR awareness. Antecedents of CSR awareness are aspects or points that heighten or lower one's amount of existing CSR information by either active search or natural consequence of sitting as a gatekeeper of CSR information. The Ethical Consumer (2008)

explains that the antecedents are determinants of the extent of importance with which consumers use CSR initiatives and CSR information in the decision-making process regarding firm preference or purchasing firm products. CSR awareness therefore is affected by a number of factors and these can either increase or decrease one's assertiveness or aggressiveness in looking for firm CSR initiatives or CSR information (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). The factors or antecedents determine one's degree or extent of hunting for CSR initiatives or CSR information (Harrison, Newholm & Shaw, 2005). Important to this study are the following four antecedents; ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture.

2.9.1 Ethical consumerism

Ethical consumerism refers to consumer activism whereby consumers use their purchasing power to put pressure on companies that sell products to produce goods in an ethical manner. Ethical consumerism is concerned with the production of products in a manner that respects and protects the lives of people, animals and the environment. Tustin and De Jongh (2008) explains that ethical consumerism entails consumer preferences of a product or company that tallies with the consumer's ethical aspirations and the consumer's awareness of challenges that the planet is facing. The principle of ethical consumerism rose as a consumer pursuit on buying ethically, that is, finding organisations that produce, market and distribute products ethically (Cole, 2017).

Tustin and De Jongh (2008) believe that the term ethical consumerism is subjective at both the level of the consumers and the companies though the main thrust is on socio-environmental consciousness. The IGD Services Ltd (2007) assumes that ethical consumerism exists in the consumer actions in seeking to minimise social and/ or environmental damage in buying decisions. Consumers are becoming the drivers of the ethical agenda in economies or nations and therefore ethical consumerism, thus, creating either growth or non-growth prospects for existing and newer products on the market. Tustin and De Jongh (2008) are of the idea that to achieve sustainable business and ethical claims using CSR, a firm should adopt and implement ethical branding strategies throughout a product life cycle. The future holds that market share and sustainable growth is hinged upon business behaviour (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Tustin & De Jongh, 2008).

Tustin and De Jongh (2008) argue that pressure is increasing from stakeholders around the business field to understand perceptions, attitudes and expectations of general society concerning the purpose of business to the environment and society. In fact locally, regionally, continentally and globally

there is an increase in regulations from governments and independent professional bodies regarding transformation, socio-environmental issues and socio-environmental reporting (Wheale & Hinton, 2007). Competitiveness in societies around the globe is no longer judged on the quality of the products or brands, but on the reputation of socio-environmental values derived from firms and being a good corporate citizen (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). The resultant increase of ethical consumer behaviour forces firms to adopt clear business strategies, in all opportunities and threats that keep abreast with ethical practices and changing market dynamics (Thornton, 2012). As such, in an industry where high regard is placed upon responsible competitiveness, it is therefore important to comprehend perceptions or attitudes of consumers towards ethical purchasing (Ethical Consumer, 2008). Tustin and De Jongh (2008) are of the view that in the event that there are no business ethics or professional practices, consumers tend to rely on perception and expectations of business behaviour. Ethical consumerism as a consumer behaviour issue is heading towards future product lifecycle, branding strategies and the ideal standard for corporate citizenship (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). The next section outlines the pillars of ethical consumerism.

a) The pillars of ethical consumerism

The Ethical Consumer (2008) believes that ethical consumerism has at least four main aspects which are positive buying, negative purchasing, company-based purchasing and the fully screened approach. Positive buying involves a preference of products that are considered ethical, be they fair trade, organic or free of cruelty. Positive buying is becoming the most preferred aspect of ethical consumerism for progressive companies in respect of current sophisticated consumers. Negative purchasing is generally explained as the avoiding of products, in purchasing and consumption, that society disapproves, such as cars that emit a lot of smoke and pollute the environment. Company-based purchasing refers to consumers engaging in a deliberate boycott of the whole firm, its subsidiaries and products or brands in order to change its unethical or irresponsible behaviour in its purchasing, employee welfare, marketing and distribution processes.

Lastly, the completely screened approach is a comprehensive look at all the three explained aspects, regarding the company and its products, evaluating the brand or company that is the most ethical. In the UK, the Co-operative Bank (2007) submitted a spectrum of ethical products in the categories of ethical grocery products and foodstuff comprising free-range eggs and organic food, green home advances (green lighting and appliances), ethical own products (ethical clothing and cosmetics) and ethical economic products (ethical banking and investment).

b) Ethical consumerism and corporate citizenship

This section focuses on the relationship between ethical consumerism and corporate citizenship. In the previous sections, ethical consumerism was explained as consumer preferences of a product or company that tallies with the consumer's ethical aspirations. This means consumers have the power to change the way corporates produce their good, through their buying power (Cole, 2017). Corporate citizenship however refers to the relationship a company has with the community or country in which it operates. A good corporate citizen is the one that supports good causes or partakes in initiatives that benefit the community or environment (Solaiman et al., 2012). The relationship that exists between these two constructs is that of mutual giving. The consumers support and buy from corporates that produce products ethically and corporates participate in good causes that benefit the community, ensuring a win-win situation (Hamann, 2008). However, in reality many challenges threaten this mutually beneficial relationship. For example, in many African countries, the essence and meaning of corporate citizenship has been largely affected by the history of injustice and inequality.

Tustin and De Jongh (2008) allude that consumers were initially viewed as only having a financial relationship with a firm, but in this century, consumers have a non-financial role affecting corporate behaviour through ethical consumerism and brand citizenship. Solaiman et al., (2012) recognise that even though consumers are a prominent group, they had never surfaced in the same manner as other stakeholder groups. Cole (2017) suggests that firms should derive from consumers' ethical practices and brand building strategies that will benefit both the firm and consumers, thus, building a relationship with consumers that is based on engagement and mutual understanding. Hamann (2008) explains that a firm's ideal role exists in constructive contribution through resources to the socio-economic development of communities and reciprocal engagement with stakeholders, consumers being key among the numerous stakeholders. According to Tustin and De Jongh (2008) what determines a corporate to be a citizen living in harmony with societal members or units are key, priority or preferred ethical dimensions determined by the societal members or units. The key, priority or preferred ethical dimensions govern business moral duties towards consumers primarily as important stakeholders and then follows the rest of other stakeholders. Deng (2012) believes that brands explain many things that can range from firm governance, ethics, other social material and non-material issues. Isaac-Morell (2013) claims that branding for corporate citizenship has been extended to firm ethical behaviour because consumer choices and acceptance of an entity in a society are now widely affected by brands' ethical or non-ethical behaviour. Consequently, Tustin and De Jongh (2008) are of the opinion that in the future, emerging firm and business dimensions of

brands represent an idea (of moral demeanour in nature) and any other form of competitive differentiation will be considered as the least important element (lowest common denominator).

c) Ethical consumerism and brand citizenship

Brand citizenship is the potential a firm has to use its brand to improve a community (Arvidsson 2006). Firms are widely adopting ethical positioning as a competitive positioning strategy and a stance to show the community the firm's ethical predisposition (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). According to Kotler and Keller (2015), examples of ethical brand positioning include the whole concept of green branding. Alcaniz et al., (2010) reason that brand citizenship involves commendable business practices which encompass staff commitment to the brand and helping customers, good corporate governance, legitimacy and relevance of the brand to the the whole community. With regards to the need to find a comprehensive definition of brand citizenship, Tustin and De Jongh (2008) state that brand citizenship is a process whereby a firm includes ethical implications to drive all business processes and systems.

The proposed view and definition of brand citizenship sets brand management as a process, from inception of a brand throughout product life cycle management that has to create and develop an ethical company or ethical brand (Tustin & De Jongh 2008). When linked to ethical consumerism, brand citizenship is an answer to ethical consumerism, as it ensures that ethical processes are adopted and implemented during the production and distribution of goods. Du Plessis (2005) says that a consumer's response to a product is inwardly connected to customer brand perception, which grows as the product is exposed to the customer and the customer attach a value to the product or brand. Trappey and Woodside (2005) concur with Du Plessis (2005) and explain further that the value consumers attach to a brand occurs in the realm of cognitive, personal, ethical and other factors, where ethical values are increasingly growing due to people's growing need for good behaviour by entities existing in a society. Edwards and Day (2005) contend that the ethical value consumers place on a brand is continuously regarded by firms as an acute component to destroy or validate a brand or firm in the society.

In the light of the importance of ethics in business, Gobe (2002) states that as consumer expectations of companies are increasing, firms need to integrate both CSR 'end of line' approaches (such as supporting community through charitable causes) and back casting strategies (from inception of a brand, every single value point). That being the case, the Institute of Directors (IoD) (2002) strongly suggests a 'stakeholder mindset' (taking cognisance of suppliers, investors, government, the civil

society groupings and even competitors) in decision making to build a strong brand. When it comes to competition, Wheale and Hinton (2007) argues that even irresponsible competition does not create or build a sustainable business environment. Apart from consumers demanding ethical business practices giving rise to ethical consumerism, Tustin and De Jongh (2008) noted the emergence of consumers demanding sound competitive practices gives rise to ethical competition. To achieve a good reputation and value in the future, Champniss and Rodes Vila (2011) suggest that firms should seriously follow ethical, social and environmental set standards.

d) Consumer awareness of ethical products and ethical buying

In the 21st century, more and more consumers are becoming concerned about the environment and the health of humans and animals. Thus, there is a shift towards sustainable production of products. As a way of putting pressure on companies (consciously and/ or unconsciously) some consumers partake in ethical buying, that is, buying products that have been produced in an ethical manner that promotes sustainability. Axelsson and Jahan (2015) state that for consumers to have a positive attitude towards ethical products, they must also be aware of ethical products on the marketplace and in turn consumers develop ethical buying intention.

Carrigan and Attalla (2001) presented a model concerning the development of attitudes by consumers towards purchasing ethical products. The Consumer Attitude to Ethical Buying model relates the occurrences in the decision making processes of consumers towards ethical awareness, ethical buying intentions and actual ethical buying as shown in Table 2.7 below.

TABLE 2.7: CONSUMER ATTITUDE TO ETHICAL BUYING

		Ethical awareness	
		High	Low
Ethical purchase intention	high	Caring and Ethical	Confused and Uncertain
	low	Cynical and Disinterested	Oblivious

Source - Axelsson and Jahan (2015): Consumer attitudes towards Corporate Social Responsibility within the fast fashion industry

The Consumer Attitude to Ethical Buying model depicts consumer attitudes ranging from the caring and ethical, the cynical and disinterested, the confused and uncertain, and lastly the oblivious as shown in Table 2.7 above (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015). Axelsson and Jahan (2015) explain that oblivious consumers have low ethical awareness thus low ethical purchase intention. Consumers in this quadrant are not purchasing ethically at all or have low ethical purchasing intention. Carrigan and Attalla (2001) elaborate that consumers do not have information pertaining to ethics in terms of ethical purchasing and firms' views on ethical issues.

According to Axelsson and Jahan (2015) consumers that are in the category of being confused and uncertain are determined to buy ethically but do not have sufficient ethical information about the firm. Consumers in this category require sufficient ethical information from the company because they already desire to follow ethical standards in purchasing. According to Carrigan and Attalla (2001) it is the duty of the firm to ensure clear and sufficient ethical information and cues are made available to the consumers. What brings confusion and skepticism in consumers can be inconsistent ethical behaviour of firm. Axelsson and Jahan (2015) add that consumers that are in the category of being cynical and disinterested will not get influenced by firm's ethical behavior. Consumers in this category will not search for the genuinity or ingenuity of a firm and its behaviour. Carrigan and Attalla (2001) believe that consumers in this category buy any brand of choice irregardless of its sensitivity to ethical issues. In other words, consumers buy any brand of their choice whether it is ethical or not ethical.

Consumers that willingly choose between ethical and unethical products fall in the category of the caring and ethical consumers (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015). The consumers will choose not to buy both unethical products or from unethical firms. These consumers have both high ethical purchase intentions and high ethical awareness (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). Consumers in this category are very selective on the basis of ethicalism, it is the responsibility of the corporate to align its CSR and behavior to the ethical parameters of the society. Since these consumers in this category have a high ethical awareness, it is the duty of a firm to put CSR and ethical behavior into practical, beneficial and easy ways to distinguish firm from competition.

2.9.2 Consumer rights awareness

Consumer rights awareness refers to acts of making sure that consumers have the necessary information about the products they are buying so that they can make informed decisions. This

means consumers have a right to information about the products, the right to safety and to make informed decisions. Within the framework of CSR, customers have the capacity to influence how corporates produce their products through their purchasing power. That is, customers can show their dissatisfaction by boycotting products of a firm, if they are not happy with the products. Globally, consumers have definite expectations on firms and the expectations gradually grow to official rights (Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015). Parguel, Benoit-Moreau and Larceneux (2011) say that customers, the general public and investors raise expectations on firms to act sustainably worldwide, firms have started to promote their businesses through initiatives such as CSR. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) declare that customers are considered the lifeblood of business enterprises, thus, their needs and rights should be respected

Though CSR has gained significant criticism in its birth and growth across global societies, CSR has been in use and will still be used for corporate strategies (Bello et al., 2016). Besides fighting to alleviate climatic changes and the depletion of natural resources, CSR touches on the fight and compliance with human rights standards, social security arrangements and labour (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012). Bello et al., (2016) acknowledge the fact that corporates in different parts of the world follow different or various practices. Country demographics, poverty ratio, literacy rate and GDP determines the CSR compliance with human rights and labour standards, and therefore CSR initiatives to be followed by firms. Consumer rights and protection have, with time, emerged to become a spotlight aspect in theory, economic and legal practices all around the world (Bello et al., 2016). According to Raischi and Smolevsca (2012), consumer protection means intended set of acts, guidelines or statutes in communities, independent regulatory organisations, government and non-governmental organisations which must promote democracy in society, consumer activism, public and private initiative and continuously improve consumer compliance. According to the Better Business Bureau (2010) sentiments regarding consumer protection began in the 18th century and the first phrase was formulated by Adam Smith a Scottish economist. Adam Smith proposed that since the final purpose of a product is consumption, the manufacturer must be completely subordinated to the consumer requirements. Under consumer rights awareness, sellers and suppliers need to be aware of the following topical issues;

a) The power of the voice of the consumer

The Voice of the Consumer (VoC) is a term that is used in business to describe the process of capturing customers' requirements. The VoC is a product-development technique that produces a detailed set of consumer wants and needs, which are organised into a hierarchical structure, and then

prioritised in terms of relative importance and satisfaction with current alternatives (Stephen et al., 2014). VoC is based on customer feedback about their needs and expectations so as to improve the products. Kotler and Keller (2015) believe that firms should adequately invest time and resources in understanding the consumer. Long term success of a firm is founded on sound, strong and effective means of understanding customers, creating and developing customer relationships (Kumar et al., 2011). Kotler and Keller (2015) add that firms get insights of customer wants and develop loyalty through actively paying attention to customers and responding to customer feedback, repeat business and customer recommendation is attained from engaged and satisfied customers. VoC therefore places the customer at the centre of the business process. Kotler and Keller (2015) explain that the consumer in his capacity stands as a spokesperson of the products s/he requests and therefore, becomes a real partner in the marketplace. The consumer occupies a place in the marketplace which needs to be consolidated with societal development.

Crosby and Johnson (2006) contend that whether one thinks of a customer in terms of customer satisfaction, it is the duty of every business owner to think of a customer as a profitability and sustainability issue. Kotler and Keller (2015) believe that firms should adequately invest time and resources in understanding the consumer. Long term success of a firm is founded on sound, strong and effective means of understanding customers, creating and developing customer relationships (Kumar et al., 2011). With regard to VoC, Kumar and Ali (2011) argue that the consumer voice echoing in management, acts as a corrective and regulatory mechanism against firm possible irresponsible and rowdy behaviour. In other words, customer feedback has the capacity to change the production processes of a company. Solomon et al.,(2007) explains that consumer behaviour in the market place has increasingly changed businesses, organisations, institutions and bodies in paying attention to the consumer. Societal and market pressure or force, therefore, has drastically modified organisational values to the horizons of consumer expectations (Sahney, 2012). That being the case, the consumer' voice represents both a cautioning flag and an advantage for the creation of effective strategies in organisations (Unerman & Bradley 2005).

b) Customer trust through customer protection

Rotter (1967) defines trust as the level of reliability ensured by one party to another within a given exchange relationship. That is, trust is a two-way phenomenon based on mutual understanding, honesty and respect, where both parties benefit. Honesty is associated with fulfilling promises made by a firm, and benevolence represents the firm's willingness to take into consideration consumer interests when making decisions and when planning for engagement in customer relationship

activities (Morgan & Hunt 1994). When applied to marketing, trust is usually linked to consumer expectations concerning the firm's capacity to assume its obligations and keep its promises (Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande, 1992). The Edelman TRUST BAROMETER (2010) suggests that globally firms should build customer trust through understanding, being compliant with customer rights and customer protection. Customer trust is deemed a crucial success factor for all forms of profit and non-profit business (Kang & Hustvedt, 2013). Park et al., (2014) contend that trust and transparency precede product quality in building corporate reputation. Consumers should be in a better position to understand, trust and go along with company CSR information, CSR initiatives, firm needs and motives to protect consumers and their rights (Bello et al., 2012). Kotler and Keller (2015) note that much work to build trust in customers should occur within the firm, because trust originates on interactions internally with employees. The Edelman TRUST BAROMETER (2010) clarifies that creating and developing customer trust for both the company and its products is key to successful business. When firm employees develop a heightened sense for customer rights and protection, they create stronger employee-customer relationship and build customer confidence in the company or its products (Bello et al., 2012).

Another way of developing trust by companies is through customer protection. Customer protection is the act of respecting the rights of consumers. This concept will be discussed at length in the following sections. The United Nations (1999) submits Guidelines for Consumer Protection for the customers which include; protection of consumers from hazards to health or safety, promoting or guiding economic interests of consumers, availability and accessibility of information that aid consumer choices, consumer learning which also includes education about the environment, socio-economic effects of customer decision, ensuring effective customer reparation and communication or promotion of sustainable consumption. The Better Business Bureau (2010) also provides standards for consumer rights and protection in order to create or develop trust to any business community. This includes; advertising honestly, being truthful, building confidence, being transparent, honoring promises, being responsive, safeguarding privacy, embodying integrity, safe and health products, sustainable product design, vulnerable and low income customers. According to Bello et al., (2012) firms are observing consumer rights and protection guidelines, standards or policies as part of voluntary or legal CSR campaign in order to win customer confidence and trust.

c) The 'good fate' of a consumer unawares of rights and protection in CSR

The term good fate generally means luck, but when applied to marketing it refers to consumers who are not conscious or aware of their rights and depend on the goodwill of the companies to do the

right thing. Assael (2004) states that it is the socio-environmental responsibility of a firm to put up customer instructions for safe consumption, usage and disposal of products, including its assembling and maintenance. The same view is presented by Kotler and Keller (2015) who declare that whether it is legal or not illegal, product usage instructions and safety regulations or measures must exist for the consumers for correct usage or unforeseen product misuse. Hantula and Wells (2013) encourages firms through production or operational systems to reduce or eliminate consumer harm and danger, calculate the possibility of risk on designing a product and during the product life stages (manufacturing, R&D, warehousing, distribution, usage, disposing, re-usage or recycling). The United Nations (1999) stated that the greatest firm's social responsibility is of producing and providing products affordable to the lowest or fixed income consumers. From the discussion above, it is clear that firms/ companies have to implement production processes that are safe and protective of the consumers, whether the customers are aware of their rights or not. The IGD Services Ltd (2007) sums that with a once silent but more key issue on consumer rights, the quality and safety aspect of products which consumer movements are currently widely advocating.

The issue of 'good fate' applies more to low income consumers in both developing and developed countries. Crosby and Johnson (2006) contend that strategically, leading transnational firms have targeted low income consumers as emerging markets. What usually happens is that the companies produce affordable products at the expense of quality and at times safety, which can be hazardous to the consumers. In the same breath, the social inclusion theory believes firms adopting low income earners markets are pursuing the social justice approach through tailoring or discounting products (CSR and Sustainable Development, 2014). However, a firm pursuing mainstream CSR will, to a greater extent, naturally be cushioning vulnerable consumers against special needs they may have, but, not knowing their rights or unable to assess potential risks in products (United Nations, 1999). It is necessary to protect these consumers from unnecessary risk despite the fact that most of them will be more concerned about access than quality. CSR places a customer at the heart of the company, as one of the most important stakeholders and prohibits, through customer protection the offering of raw deals, substandard products, price increases, warranty failures, poor after sales service and unfair practices (Campbell, 1999). Sound practice of business ethics therefore positions the customer, irregardless of their income level, at the heart of protection and due care (Castaldo et al., 2009). Mahatma Gandhi considers the customers as the sole reason of the existence of an enterprise (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016).

d) Consumers and consumer protection

According to Bello et al., (2012) there is an ongoing debate regarding the correct definition or parameters of a consumer who has to be protected by a firm. Solomon et al., (2007) differentiates a consumer from a customer in that a consumer is the final user whereas a customer can be anyone simply buying a product. Solomon et al., (2013) suggest that a consumer is an individual or firm, cooperative or association buying goods for use, fully paid or partially paid for, with a purpose not including resale or commercial purposes. Akomolede and Oladele (2006) define a consumer as any individual or business entity which buys or is supplied products to consume or utilise at the end of the chain of production. According to Bello et al., (2012) the definition by Akomolede and Oladele (2006) suggests that a consumer is a buyer and/ or user and at the same time a member existing at the end of the production chain. Talwar and Ali (2013) argue that, the fact that a consumer exists as a buyer and user sitting at a position at the end of production chain makes the consumer important both to the economics and marketing theories. Production in every firm is aimed at the consumer for consumption basis, therefore where there are consumers, a market exists. A consumer therefore is a pivotal point of all firm business activities whose concerns must be observed, served and protected. Vetrivel and Mohanasundari (2011) recognise the fact that a consumer should be treated like a king but instead in real practice, a consumer is being treated like a slave or servant. Bell and Emory (1971) argue that the government and other parties must come into play when businesses fail in their responsibility to look after consumers.

Consumer protection involves the processes, measures and activities taken, to be taken or to be accepted to guard against or correct businesses' malpractices against consumers (United Nations 1999). According to Thornton (2012) consumer protection involves coalitions or movements like consumerism. Consumer protection has always been necessitated by the mere fact that consumers are less powerful and may be taken advantage of as firms normally aim for profit at the expense of customers (Solaiman et al., 2012). Raischi and Smolevsca (2012) avow that protection of consumers has assumed or gained great prominence in the civil society.

According to Bello et al., (2012) consumer protection is founded or exist at the core of three main civic players; the consumers, government and businesspersons. Each player has a distinct and important role in establishing and implementing consumer protection interests. The role of consumers range from consumers being able to take care of their own wellbeing or interests and guarding against market malpractices. According to Kotler and Keller (2015) consumers develop such capacities when they are aware of their rights, can exercise their rights and never to depend on

assumed businesspersons' good sense. However, as shown in the previous sections, this is not always the case. There are consumers who depend on companies to do the right thing, hence, the importance of consumer protection. The role of businesses thus ranges from paying due attention to consumer rights and promoting consumer protection acts. Tustin and De Jongh (2008) advise that producers, transporters, channels of distribution and dealers must evade unfair practices, entertain customer complaints and voluntarily correct malpractices. The government has the greatest role of protecting and enforcing consumer protection (Co-operative Bank, 2007). The United Nations (1999) mandates governments to put up laws or amend laws in light of consumer interests with recommendations of consumer groups or associations. The United Nations (1999) guidelines purports that every government is responsible to enforce minimum or basic consumer rights and protection. The Indian Consumer Protection Act (1986) further suggest that basic consumer rights and protection laws set should cover critical aspects which includes physical safety, quality of goods and services, redress, distribution facilities, standards for the safety, promotion or protection of consumer's economic interests and education programmes relating to important information.

e) Consumer rights awareness and consumerism

Bello et al., (2016) says that matters relating to consumer rights awareness and consumer protection have always been discussed under the generic term of consumerism. According to Bello et al., (2016) consumerism is seen as planned association of citizens in a country and government departments to promote the powers of buyers and rights relative to suppliers. Consumerism involves efforts by individuals and groups to increase consumer rights awareness, consumer protection and conferring reasonable power to consumers in relation to suppliers (Bello et al., 2012). Notably, Bello et al., (2016) argue that the subject of consumerism has its beginning in the United States of America as simply organised social movements and went on to the rest of the world. The social movements continued to evolve into bodies or organisations at national, international and independent dimensions committed to defend and enforce rights of consumers (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012).

The effectiveness of consumer movements is directly influenced by the fact that consumers and other interested parties should have knowledge about what constitutes consumer rights (Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015). Consumer rights awareness involves an individual's knowledge, information and understanding of their rights with regards the firm and its products, accompanied with information or knowledge regarding relevant agencies that stand to protect consumers (Bello et al., 2016). A consumer that is adequately aware of his/ her rights is in a better position to make educated choices, fairly judge firm behaviour such as CSR and the acquired knowledge empowers consumers to put

pressure on corporations to be conscious (Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015). Bello et al., (2016) add that the works of the United States President John F. Kennedy in 1962 paved way for consumer rights in the market. President John F. Kennedy formerly recognised four rights of consumers which are the right to safety, the right to choose, the right to be informed and the right to be heard. Consumer rights were later extended to eight including the right to satisfaction of basic needs (rights to basic needs), the right to consumer education, the right to redress and the right to a healthy environment.

The United Nations adopted the eight consumer rights as a standard for domestication in various countries and economic zones. The eight consumer rights were also domesticated in Zimbabwe to develop consumer rights in line with the right to choose, the right to the satisfaction of basic needs, the right to safety, the right to be informed/ display of prices, the right to redress, the right to be heard, the right to consumer education, the consumer's right to select suppliers, the right to information in plain and understandable language, the consumer's right to cancel advance reservation, booking or order, the consumer's right to be heard, the consumer's right to choose or examine goods and the consumer's right to safe, good, quality goods (Consumer Protection Bill, 2014).

f) Consumerism and CSR association

Bello et al., (2016) reveals that historically, consumerism and CSR have been in association due to the fact that they both arose in response to relentless consumer complaints to unfair treatment by sellers in the marketplace. During the time of the consumer uprisings and consciousness, four aspects emerged as reactions to rescue consumers from a disadvantaged position, thus, CSR and consumerism were quickly and easily accepted. Consumer legislation and the marketing concept were the other two fundamental aspects that arose. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) proclaim that the marketing concept emerged with customer satisfaction as the central point of all business and marketing efforts. Firms adopted CSR from way back as a reaction to the heightened consumer awakening or awareness and consumer concern in firms' socio-environmental behaviour (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012).

Consumer awareness and consumer advocacy have also become pivotal factors in the growth of CSR (Flammer, 2013; Kimenju, De Groote, Karugia, Mbogoh & Poland, 2005). Bello et al., (2016) suggest that the link between consumerism and CSR has been evident in situations where consumers have used such actions as boycotts in order to force firms to adopt CSR behaviours.

2.9.3 Consumer socio-environmental awareness

According to Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) CSR exists in three major parameters; economic (profit interest), human (people interest) and environmental (planet interest) considered as the Triple P interest. Creel (2010) suggests that firms should take full responsibility of activities, developments and negatives that occurs internal and external to the firm due to the firm's processes and operations. The task of socio-environmental consciousness and remedies has for a long time been left in the public sector's hands but lately the task has extended to the profit organisations (Kotler & Keller, 2015). In fact, society expects the public sector to take a leading role then the private sector to follow in this regard. The private sector in this century has taken advantage of the socio-environmental responsibility to increase transparency, verifiability of actions and developing friendly circumstances for reforms (Grimmer & Bingham, 2013).

Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) argue that governments have set up objectives that relate to their own countries' socio-environmental activity instead of letting firms determine CSR that affect market and social actors. In Germany, the government developed a program called the National Strategy for Sustainable Development to spearhead CSR in public institutions while in Netherlands the government sets the standards for accountable practices and takes the leading role (Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015). The United Kingdom, France and Belgium have stipulated targets for green or sustainable procurement. Governments have thus overallly assumed internal and external dimensions to socio-environmental responsibility (Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015). The external socio-environmental responsibility spans to promoting the CSR concept in the total business environment. The internal socio-environmental responsibility spans to the public sector organisations themselves practising or implementing socio-environmental responsibility initiatives to build mutual trust and transparency.

According to Sands and Lee (2015), the public sector takes up socio-environmental responsibility as a way to indicate efficient, maximum use of public funds to benefit the society. Environmental responsibility has been seen as one important CSR dimensions, fully understood as Corporate Environmental Responsibility (CER). CER concerns strategic policies of organisations aiming at incorporating and promoting responsibility principles towards the environment. CER is comprehensive when it touches on stimulating workforce awareness, increasing the amount and parameters of environmental responsibility, inserting environmental policies in the firm overall strategic documents and everyday operations (Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015).

a) Consumers and corporate socio-environmental performance

In the 21st century, more and more consumers are becoming environmentally conscious, which means they are choosing to buy from companies that do business in an environmentally friendly manner. Grimmer and Bingham (2013) argue that consumers make purchasing decisions considering firm socio-environmental responsibility. Ferraro (2009) proffers a similar view that as a consequence of consumer concerns over the environment, the concept of the green market has become both real and growing. The Co-operative Bank (2010) reported that in 2010 firms spent over 18% of previous two years budget on green goods and services despite the recurring financial crisis. The UK market used £43.2B in 2009 against £36.5B of the previous two years on ethical and green market expenditure (Grimmer & Bingham, 2013). Vermillion and Peart (2010) believe that the growth of expenditure shows that consumers are continuously attaining a positive attitude towards environmental matters, therefore, integrating environmental information in purchasing and consumption decisions.

Moisander and Pesonen (2002) define consumer behaviour as favoring or preferring less environmentally dangerous, damaging or hazardous products or companies as green consumerism. Carrington et al., (2010) assert that company environmental performance and green consumerism resides in the parameters of CSR and ethical consumption. Kotler (2011) believes that with the consumer movement, the question of socio-environmental concerns will soon be pivotal in marketing theory and practice. Schlegelmilch and Öberseder (2010) also noted the growing prominence of practising corporate ethics, green marketing and corporate ecological conduct. Despite mainstream strides in socio-environmental consciousness, the notion that CSR relates to environmental consciousness and CSR through socio-environmental awareness positively affects consumer behaviour, is still both equivocal and contradictory (Devinney, Auger & Eckhardt, 2010). Papaoikonomou, Ryan and Ginieis (2011) also report that even the actual size of green market is always disputed overtime. The concept has not been achieving its potential with respect to improving the environment and affecting consumer behaviour. Urien and Kilbome (2011) proclaims that the possibility of a positive environmental attitude has not visibly manifested through firm cash registers too as yet.

b) Consumers' environmental attitudes and involvement

This section focuses on consumers' attitudes towards environmental claims and initiatives by companies, as well as their involvement in environmental initiatives. Deng (2012) asserts that consumers vary in their level of CSR responsiveness, that is, how they react to CSR initiatives and

CSR information. Environmentally conscious consumers are generally more involved in environmental initiatives than other consumers. Grimmer and Bingham (2013) explains that consumers' way of assessing, valuing or considering a firm's environmental performance is seen in the degree of environmental involvement (EI). High EI consumers are those whose level of purchasing is highly influenced by their high level environmental concerns while low EI consumers minimally consider environmental concerns in purchasing decisions. Involvement has been described by the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) as the extent of personal involvement and significance of an attitude object. Bohner and Dickel (2011) contend that the central route to attitude formation and change is premised on high consumer involvement. According to Grimmer and Bingham (2013), high EI consumers perceive firm environmental information as relevant or important and will have high positive purchase intentions when a firm has indicated superior environmental performance. Papaoikonomou et al., (2011) hold the view that a firm's CSR record directly influences CSR oriented consumers' purchase intentions.

Pickett-Baker and Ozaki (2008) in their study found that there is a positive link between consumer intention to accept eco-friendly activities and their behaviour. Tarrant and Green (2008) in contrast believe that the link is too weak for consumer concern over the environment to change consumer attitude or lead to the adoption of eco-friendly behaviour. Oberseder et al., (2011) argue that authors have presented traditional products factors such as price, convenience or availability and quality, as the main factors used by consumers to make shopping decisions. However, other factors like affordability supercede the issue of environmental consciousness. Pomeroy and Johnson (2009) add that consumers do not really trust many firms' environmental claims, or fail to measure firms' environmental performance (Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008). This may be due to the fact that some consumers have more pressing issues and some lack knowledge on environmental issues. Grimmer and Bingham (2013) believe that aspects such as environmental knowledge, environmental concern and environmental commitment act as consumer attitudinal moderators and mediators in consumer outright behaviour. Tarrant and Green (2008) borrowing from Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) TRA and TPB models argue that a consumer's intention is set up as both a predictor of behavior or a link between antecedent attitude and actual behaviour.

c) Firm environmental concerns and external pressure

In the previous sections, the researcher showed that the issue of environmental consciousness and sustainability is becoming more centralised in this century. The fight for environmental sustainability is putting more pressure on businesses to adopt environmentally-friendly practices.

As firms face outside burden to perform in a responsible way towards the environment, the value attached to environmental CSR is also fast changing (Flammer 2012). CSR therefore is becoming a mainstay in business, moreso, for big businesses that are leaving a large footprint on the environment. According to Lajoux and Soltis-Martel (2013) the pressure for firms to consider the environment is emanating from media attention, environmental regulations and customers who are conscious of environmental concerns.

Media attention to environmental CSR - Kotler (2011) discusses that the media has placed intensive exposure and scrutiny on firm behaviour towards the environment. According to Flammer (2012), in the United States of America, media attention on firm behaviour towards the environment can be tracked in the top five newspapers (Washington Post, New York Times, Wall Street Journal, USA Today and Financial Times). Environmental concern is seen in the expressions 'environment consciousness' and 'corporate social responsibility' by the articles or stories in the big five newspapers. Around 1980, 20 articles on average were recorded containing environmental CSR, whereas in 2000 there were about 117, almost six times higher, as evidence of the substantial increase of environmental concerns in the United States of America. In Africa, CSR importance and news is starting to take its toll and changing the manner in which firms handle both the consumers and the environment. Firms are becoming both conscious of their activities and conscious of the media effect on carrying such news to the public.

Environmental regulations - Flammer (2012) reveals that globally governments and independent expert bodies have been set up and are enforcing environmental policies and guidelines that the society and firms should pursue to ensure socio-environmental sustainability. According to Allen and Shonnard (2011), in the United States of America, about 70 environmental laws and ammendments were documented in the 1980s and rose to about 120 in the 2000s.

Envirnmental performance - In the face of all external pressure, the Economist (2011) records that firms are more willing, internally, to go green and therefore implement intensive green initiatives. Firms have used green methods of production and operations as an internal call to improve cost and living societal standards. The Accenture and UNGC (2010) believe that firms have been encouraged to go green or observe environmental concerns by the local to global awards or recognition through such arrangements as the ISO14001: Environmental Management and Certification.

d) Stockholder concerns over environmental CSR

Barnett and King (2008) indicate that studies have proven that shareholders have concerns over the environment, though less is known regarding the association that may exist between environmental CSR and share prices. Allen and Shonnard (2011) note that shareholders have become more conscious over the past decades concerning higher environmental standards. Thus, shareholders exist as both internal to the organisation and external information gatekeepers. As external gatekeepers, they are succumbing to the external environment rating pressures, therefore they tend to recommend environmental consciousness against profits (Chatterji & Toffel, 2010). Flammer (2012) says external pressure influences how a firm values environmental CSR through stockholders' proposals. He suggests that an effective way to assess, measure or quantify how stockholders regard environmental issues is to observe their proposals on the subject of environmentalism (Fletcher 2012). That is, during annual general meetings, shareholders need to be afforded time to indicate their views concerning the company operations in line with environmental concerns (Flammer, 2013). Flammer (2012) also advises that there is need to distinguish, on shareholders' proposals, between environmental accountability as opposed to social accountability. This is because, broadcasting of eco-friendly behaviour by consumers that are becoming environmentally assertive, heightens stockholders positive attitude towards adopting and developing environmental policies (Flammer, 2013). The obvious fright being that when such policies are neglected, the firm faces a deterioration of firm reputation, scaring of customers, suppliers, strategic partners and so forth. In this light, stakeholder concerns over the environment can lead to positive changes in the way businesses handle environmental issues.

e) Public organisations and socio-environmental CSR

The United Nations (1999) gives the duty of monitoring or supervising the private sector and the rest of the nation or society on socio-environmental standards and practices to the public sector. This view is supported by Moore (1995) who states that the government and the public sector organisations should be guarantors of public value through high-performing service-oriented public bureaucracies, operating justly and fairly, efficient and effective, and take a lead to just and fair conditions in the society at large. Flammer (2012) expands that public sector firms are naturally expected to be more responsible environmentally as legitimised or stipulated by the public contracts. From this discussion, it is clear that public entities have a greater responsibility towards upholding environmental standards and practices than private entities. Kotler (2011) elaborates that there is more accountability expectations and obligations on the public sector towards socio-environmental practices than the private sector. Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) hold the view that the public sector, by

standards, is not concerned about the profitability or the financial return aspect of the socio-environmental duties.

Though the role of the public sector, organisations have been condensed by Flammer (2012) into external and internal dimensions. Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) identify four institutional models which sets the public sector organisations as promoters, observers, partners and patrons. The models explain the extent the government or public sector organisations take charge of organising and coordination activities related to CSR. The observer role sees the government or public sector organisations taking a passive role, not a leader in charge of CSR activities and CSR is taken as a burden of the socio-economic players. The patron role adopts a no leader model but rests the burden of CSR on the government administration processes. The promoter role sees the government acting as the leader, providing guidelines, policies and standards for CSR. The partner role sees the government leading with institutions and ministries working with advisory bodies on CSR, and the government creating a bottom-up framework for other socio-economic players. Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) recommends that after a government takes on an internal role to CSR (that is acting as an example or role model), it needs to develop institutionalised frameworks for the rest of other institutions. This includes the breaking down of CSR at macro-economic level to micro-economic levels with policies and guidelines that can be operationalised (Flammer, 2012).

The internal responsibility of a government is to create or ensure the construction of an environmental policy in public sector organisations, while the external responsibility is to ensure or enforce formation of an environmental policy in the market players. An environmental policy is an expressly written document available to the public, designating the firms' intentions or plans regarding the environment (Shah, 2011). The policy document is a yardstick used to assess firm activities and a means to convey the firms' intentions to the employees, local communities and determining firm priorities for environment protection. Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) applaud governments that have advocated for the invention of programs and actions that stipulate the most efficient use of natural resources and sustainability of both renewable and non-renewable resources and the inclusion of such factors in the calculation of the national GDP. Hawrysz and Foltys (2015) observed landmark socio-environmental CSR parameters in Poland which include taking environmental standards cognisance of every sector strategies, management of the environment, engagement of the society in environmental protection policies, stimulating the total market to guard the environment, development of research and technical progress, ecological aspects in spatial planning and obligation for environmental damage.

f) What is CSR towards the environment (Environmental CSR)?

Chan (2014) defines CSR as a firm's voluntary strategy to consider societal interests, interests of groups associated with the company and the firm's functions to achieve economic objectives. In other words, CSR is a call for every firm in every sector of the economy to consider the environment, organisations such as mining, automobile, energy, manufacturing sectors and so forth. According to Chhabra (2014), CSR is now required locally and globally as the 'best' attitude that firms can have towards consumers, society and the environment. Oleszko-Kurzyna (2014) suggests a way of categorising firms or sectors of the economy with respect to the level of impact they have on the environment (must, should and may). The 'must' affects the environment to a greater extent, for example the chemical, metal and energy industries, the 'should' however, have a considerable impact, for example food, commerce and transport, and the 'may' includes credit institutions, insurance, tourism and the like (Green Paper, 2001). The 'must' should do environmental CSR without fail, the 'should' also should make sure they have an input to the environment and the 'may' even if they may have no environmental policy that is not a big problem.

To explain CSR in relation to the environment, there is need to underscore that the environment exists under the CSR targeted Triple Ps (Profit, People and Planet) (Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015; Oleszko-Kurzyna, 2014). Environmental CSR aspects can be categorised as public environment, environmental protection, the market environment, area of employment and relations with investors. According to Kotler (2011) environmental issues have emerged to be of great importance due to the fact that one of firms' most disadvantageous external effects is the environmental impact of profit making or operational activities. Firms are encouraged to adopt ecological management dimensions in the form of observing laws or regulations, supporting environmental education or awareness and creating own innovative solutions to reduce the harmfulness of business operations (Oleszko-Kurzyna, 2014).

Oleszko-Kurzyna (2014) recommends an addition to the legal framework, that firms intending to engage in environmental CSR, must regard, protect and reinstate the natural ecosystems, minimise the usage of energy and natural raw materials, eliminate harmful pollution and waste, invent systems to cuddle external environmental costs, device technologies to eliminate environmental dangers to the environment in the production and operation processes, consider environmental goals in product design processes (life cycle analysis, eco-design), establish and address any possible negative environmental effect, encourage ecological behaviour throughout the organisation as well as

preserving water and energy in every section of the firm. Flammer (2013) proclaims that the most effective tools in environmental CSR that are used by numerous developed nations include activities to reduce harmful products, formal or official environmental management systems and organisational engagement in implementing environmental CSR. Activities to reduce harmful products entail obtaining the eco-labels on products, meaning the product has attained or has no dangerous effects during manufacturing, transportation, installation, usage, disposal or recycling in relation to the given approved symbol. Formal environmental management systems entail that organisational management procedures and policies integrate basic environmental policies with an eye on standards or principles provided in the ISO14001, EMAS (Eco-Management and Audit Scheme), Green Procurement Systems and Environmental Partnership.

2.9.4 Societal values as key to generosity in CSR

A society's way of living, actions, initiatives and interactions are defined or shaped by deep-sited principles or standards which can be coined as societal values (Sahney, 2012). Hantula and Wells (2013) explain that values in a society create the premises of a culture to be followed, which determines what is right or wrong, what is correct or incorrect, what is good or bad and what is acceptable or unacceptable. Woo and Jin (2016) discuss culture as a bias or joint societal mind programming that differentiates a group of people in a community from another. This is because culture influences the behaviours of people in societies in terms of perception, attitude and mannerisms (Kim & Kim, 2010).

Societal value systems or culture shapes people's expectations and benchmarks on CSR (Carroll, 1979). Although this is the case, Woo and Jin (2016) reveal that numerous researchers have looked at how cultural aspects influence corporate adoption of CSR, however, there is insignificant research looking at how cultural aspects in societies influence consumer adoption and preference of certain CSR initiatives. This points to a need for research on the relationship between culture and consumer adoption and preferences of CSR initiatives. Ramasamy and Yeung (2009) in their research found out that the Chinese culture of collectivism affects the manner in which Chinese societies encourage or support socially sensitive products or firms. For example, Chinese societies collectively disregard products that offend their values or culture. Williams and Zinkin (2008) also argue that more aggressive societies have a tendency to aggressively punish irresponsible corporate behaviours. These two examples prove the importance of culture in marketing.

Still on the importance of culture, Baughn, Bodie and McIntosh (2007) state that the European and American societies easily accept or adopt corporate-operational based socio-environmental impact or performance related CSR, than Asian societies which believe more in philanthropic and community-based CSR. Waldman, Luque, Washburn and House (2006) noticed that collectivistic societies more readily accept CSR as a simple behavioural norm, while Matten and Moon (2008) found that individualistic societies adopt explicit CSR programs, clearly outlining the CSR responsibilities and duties of corporates. Woo and Jin (2016) state there is an appreciation from both the corporate world and consumers that CSR is easily or readily accepted differently across various cultural bedrocks.

a) Cultural values in CSR

According to Kotler and Keller (2015), culture contains the knowledge and characteristics of a group of people which touches on their religion, language, cuisine, music, social habits and arts. This means that culture is an expression of a way of life of a people, what they believe in, how they dress, what they eat and how they live, among other things. Solomon et al., (2013) clarifies that culture is social behaviour and norms existing in people of a society. Since there are varied views, contradictory assumptions and inconclusive definitions of what culture is across countries, the Geert Hofstede has been accepted as an unavoidable reference and source of information to debate culture. Karaosman et al., (2015) advises that due to the complexity of culture definitions and parameters, it is fundamental to discuss culture using Hofstede's dimensions. Geert Hofstede propounded a four dimension approach to culture and later on introduced a fifth dimension factor which was practically split later into two (Karaosman et al., 2015). Therefore, the now Hofstede's six dimensions include individualism (IDV), power distance (PDI), uncertainty avoidance (UAI), masculinity (MAS), indulgence (IND) and pragmatism (PRA) (Hofstede, 2014). Power refers to the degree to which people who have the least power in society perceive the normalcy of unequal power distribution in their society. Individualism entails the extent to which individuals prefer themselves over others, whereas collectivism regards the importance of a group as a whole and belonging to a group as crucial. Masculine societies value aggressiveness, competition and success while feminine societies prefer peace, solidarity and quality of life. Uncertainty avoidance is a measure of anxiety, despair and fear when people are faced with uncertain, unpredictable and risky situations. Being pragmatic entails accepting beliefs or theories in terms of how practical they are in real life situations. Pragmatists easily adopt life and variety of situations while normative societies hold to social customs and a sense for future savings is minimal. Indulgence against restraint is a dimension of culture, measuring the importance to which individuals in a society control or guide their leisure,

one's own life and whether society values freedom of expression. Taras, Steel and Kirkman (2012) believe that even though Hofstede's dimension received widespread criticism regarding using data from one organisation and employees that were both highly educated and well paid, the dimensions proved valid over a wide range of organisations and countries.

A firm's overall performance is predisposed by both home and country of operation factors, and literature existing in marketing unearthed factors that play a crucial role in performance which include cultural distance, national culture and country similarity (Rugman, Oh & Kim, 2011). Both country and national environment factors notably influence marketing processes and consumer behaviour (Karaosman et al., 2015), thus, pointing to the importance of culture in business. According to Matten and Moon (2008), the moral behaviour of person is affected by his/her societies' inclination on whether it is a collectivist or individualistic society. Collectivist cultures have an individual's behaviours shaped by the group despite the fact that the individual may be in disagreement with the group's belief or line of thinking (Karaosman et al., 2015). Many African cultures, Zimbabwe included, are an example of collectivist cultures.

In an individualistic culture, people behave according to their own opinions, personal thoughts or moral decisions. An example of such a country is America. Implicit CSR is readily acceptable in a collectivistic culture, where society values the notion of belonging whereas more strict environmental CSR and accountability-efficiency based CSR is high in individualistic cultures (explicit CSR) (Heidinger, 2012). Individualistic cultures prefer more of corporations attending to social issues, implementing their CSR actions (explicit CSR). Implicit CSR explains a firm's voluntary CSR in a much wider scope according to the corporation's discretion. Matten and Moon (2008) note that there is a positive connection between collectivist cultures and adoption of CSR while there tends to be a negative correlation with the dimension of power distance. Karaosman et al., (2015) summed up that cultural values of a society, determine societal expectations, how the people living in a society value behavioural elements of corporations and how CSR actions are judged. It is fundamental to understand consumers' CSR reactions in the context of cultural movements, values and attributes in any societal set up.

b) Religious values in CSR

Religiosity is widely known as the greatest factor with a significant influence on societal values (Woo & Jin, 2016). That is, for a considerably long time religion has shaped the way people lived, progressed, behaved and perceived both informal social and formal business activities. Calkins

(2000) explains that civilisation has its premises or roots from a spiritual basis, evidenced by Indus civilisation being founded on Hinduism and Islamic civilisation emanating from both Prophet Muhammad and the Qur'an. Epstein (2002) asserts that religious connotations in societies either elevate certain values or downplay specific values in communities for reasons existing in the core principles of the religion or founder of the religion. Woo and Jin (2016) argue that religion and faith are connected to human reasoning of mostly pursuing epitomes of sense or love towards others therefore guiding human actions and attainment of particular consequences. Understanding the religious values and beliefs of a people is therefore important, because religion usually determines what people can and cannot do.

Lam and Shi (2008) note that strong or extreme religious beliefs create strong negative attitudes towards certain corporate unacceptable behaviour. Which means religion has a direct influence on CSR. In actual sense, the depth of one's religious basis is a platform to judge or perceive ethical evaluations leading to a particular attitude and behaviour. Ramasamy, Yeung and Au (2010) indicate that in every society religiosity tend to look at the good of others rather than self, that is 'The Golden Rule' as shown in Table 2.8.

TABLE 2.8: THE GOLDEN RULE

Religion	The rule	Source
Buddhism	Hurt not others in ways that you yourself would find hurtful	Udana-Varga, 5:18
Zoroastrianism	That nature only is good when it shall not do unto another whatever is not good for its own self	Dadistan-I Dinik, 94:5
Judaism	What is hateful to you, do not to your fellow men. That is the entire Law, all the rest is commentary	The Talmud Shabbat, 31a
Hinduism	This is the sum of all true righteousness: deal with others as thou wouldst thyself be dealt by. Do nothing to thy neighbour which thou wouldst not have him to do thee after	The Mahabharata
Christianity	As ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them likewise	Luke 6:31
Islam	No one of you is a believer until he desires for his brother that which he desires for himself	Sunnah
Taoism	The good man ought to pity the malignant tendencies of others; to rejoice over their excellence; to help them in their straits; to regard their gains as if they were his own, and their losses in the same way	The Thai-Shang, 3
Confucianism	Surely it is the maxim of loving-kindness: Do not unto others that you would not have them do unto you	Analects, XV,23
The Baha'I Faith	And among the teachings of Baha'u'llah is voluntary sharing of one's property with others among mankind. This voluntary sharing is greater than equality, and consists in this, that man should not prefer himself to others, but rather should sacrifice his life and property for others	Abdul-Baha, Selections from the Writings of Abdul-Baha (Haifa: Baha'I World Centre, 1978), 302

Source - Ramasamy, Yeung and Au (2010): Consumer support for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): The Role of Religion and Values

Shwartz and Huismans (1995) add that religiosity has a tendency to uphold the welfare of mates in the social circles and disregards outsiders, that is, the applicability of universalism (appreciation, understanding, tolerance, welfare and protection of people) which occurs among in-groups and not stretched to out-groups. CSR is taken as the platform to do good to others (community) in whatever form possible than self (company). Nevertheless, religiosity psychological aspects have proven to be similar in study results of over 15 countries by the Schwartz Values Survey, where religiosity proved to result in high conservatism, low hedonism and openness to transformation values. Despite the overwhelming evidence presented, Ramasamy, Yeung and Au (2010) also believe that the relationship between a community's ethical or socially responsible behavior and religiosity is still unclear and inconclusive. On a different note, Tarakeshwar, Swank, Pargament and Mahoney (2001) dispute that most religious values do not encourage environmental protection and consciousness. In fact, many religions just promote co-existence between man and nature.

Although religion has contributed positively to the development of many communities by promoting peace and co-existence, it has also in some cases resulted in a lot of damage, where fanatics use religion as a basis to hate and destroy those who do not belong to the same religion. Graafland, Kaptein and Mazereeuw (2007) bring a different dimension that religious people are in most cases passive because they anticipate supernatural intervention, especially when they become radical, and this is due to the fact that they believe the end is ordained metaphysically and coercive when they want others to be converted. Religion therefore when abused can lead to more harm than good in society and marketers have to understand the beliefs and values of a people in order to better serve them. Graafland et al., (2007) clarifies that the degree to which people become socially responsible or accommodative differs from religion to religion, where monotheist are more rigid and unwelcoming while pantheist are more open and friendly. Lam and Shi (2008) recognised that religion has no influence on social behaviour in Asia, while the generality of Christians across the globe have a lesser regard to unacceptable behaviour. Understanding these different aspects of different communities can help business people and marketers to tailor-make products and services that are suitable for different groups of people.

c) Public relations and culture-based CSR

Kim and Kim (2010) acclaim that CSR is a broad indicator of a firm's culture, therefore, not content in and of itself. That is, a firm's values, attitudes, beliefs and norms are an explicit exhibition of the corporate culture (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014). Corporate values, attitudes, beliefs and norms in every corporate play a fundamental role in deciding and executing CSR (Kotler, Wong, Saunders & Armstrong, 2005). In simpler words, every organisation, undertakes CSR initiatives that are in line with its values and beliefs, proving that culture is a far-reaching phenomenon. Kim and Kim (2010) argue that values in CSR are significant and their significance differs across cultures and countries. For example, in Japan, Boardman and Kato (2003) explain that to understand culturally specific CSR one has to go through the traditional Japanese Kyosei concept and in the Middle East, the cultural CSR model includes religion, since religion and culture are indistinguishable in this area.

A lot of research has been carried out on the relationship between CSR, cultural values and public relations (Kim & Reber 2008; Boynton 2002). Kim and Kim (2010) contend that the public responsibility concept has been understood in most cases as synonymous with public relations. Kim and Reber (2008) argue that the notion of the 'public' or 'social' responsibility could have been the main reason for firms to create the public relations function. In the study of corporate citizenship of firms, Davenport (2000) asserts that the ultimate goal of public relations, which is in line with the notion of CSR, is the achievement of mutually beneficial relationships and goals between the firm and its stakeholders. Kim and Reber (2008) believe the role of public relations in CSR ranges from none to high significance depending on individuals and organisational values. Kim and Kim (2010) suggest that although little is known regarding public relations perceptions, practice and involvement in CSR on a cultural perspective, there is an indication that public relations engages cultural values in CSR practice and strategy. Culture, therefore, which premises the fundamental values in a society, is a crucial element in business' ethical strategies, and it can be learnt in every society (Su, 2006). Ethics in societies determine the CSR manner, initiatives and significance by practitioners in firms. Kim and Kim (2010) state that public relations practitioners perceive CSR roles as different from one culture to the other, in other words, culture in a society influences perceptions of CSR by public relations practitioners.

d) Cultural values embedded in business ethics based CSR

Schlegelmilch and Oberseder (2010) state that ethics in business mean that an organisation or an individual has to act or behave in line with sensibly well thought principles existing within the societal ethical philosophy. The social obligation of a firm impliedly resides in the social contract

between the business and society (Stanaland et al., 2011). The implied social contract is an extract of socio-cultural principles which are a determinant of parameters of business ethics or firm social responsibilities (Singh, Iglesias & Batista-Foguet, 2012). Matten (2006) argues that among major drivers of corporates' engagement or participation in CSR activities, there is business ethics. Singh et al., (2012) expand that morality or ethics are not reciprocally exclusive to CSR, but they can be interdependent and interrelated. Kim and Kim (2010) however hold the view that engaging in business ethics or being ethically conscious does not directly translate to active engagement in CSR, though active CSR is taken by society as one form of corporate ethical behaviour.

Taking into account the importance of CSR in society, many organisations, both profit and non-profit have and continue to carry out visible CSR initiatives for the benefit of the larger community. The visibility of non-profit and profit organisations has led to debates as to who should be at the forefront of CSR initiatives. The Economist (2011) argues that CSR should be a preserve of the government, not for profit-maximising organisations. This is because profit-maximising firms do not have a social conscience in pursuit of profit and CSR wastes shareholders' money (Kim & Kim, 2010). L'Etang (2006) concurs with Friedman (1970) that firms following profit maximisation follow a strong liberal view which portrays an individualistic or atomistic society coupled with individual not collective obligations. Although the views that profit making organisations have their eye on profit is true, the researcher is of the view that for change to take place, all stakeholders should contribute to the CSR cause. No doubt, the governments should be at the forefront of CSR initiatives, however, the issue of CSR is a responsibility for all in society, including profit making organisations, hence, it is important for CSR to be a collective cause than individual.

Antecedents covered in this previous section were developed using the consumer perspective, determining what spurs or hinders their awareness of CSR. The next section looks at CSR initiatives that firms have used overtime, and which consumers now relate well to.

2.10 Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives

Having identified CSR as one way of enhancing corporate reputation and image, Pivato et al., (2006) assert that corporates need to focus on gaining trust and building reputation. Chan (2014) provides seven CSR dimensions which stakeholders expect successful corporates to take a lead on which are governance, workplace, financial performance, citizenship, products or services, leadership and innovation. In a study by Chan (2014), nearly half of the respondents indicated that the three most

important dimensions of CSR are citizenship, governance and workplace. This section outlines and explains some CSR initiatives in brief, that corporates can engage in.

2.10.1 Sponsorship

Sponsorship is a corporate strategic asset or investment that can be in the form of cash or kind (Lii et al., 2013). An organisation can sponsor an individual, a group, a company or institution, an event or program (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). Lachowetz et al., (2002) say that sponsorship has been a critical and most prominent method of marketing campaigns since time immemorial. Kotler and Keller (2015) stress that sponsorship produces more positive consumer and community behaviour compared to all media advertisements put together. Gwinner and Bennett (2008) believe that a lot of research has been carried out with respect to sponsorship, brand awareness and brand image, but still suggests that there is need to study sponsorship with respect to consumer attitude, purchase intention and buying behaviour. Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) agree with Carrillat et al., (2005) that there is still need to extensively explore effects of sponsorship on overall consumer attitudinal evaluations.

2.10.2 Cause-related Marketing (CrM)

Nan and Heo (2007) declare that CrM entails firms promising to give a certain amount or percentage of their price or money to a social cause or non-profit organisations. Dahl and Lavack (1995) argue that CrM manifests itself in many forms such as giving, community support, corporate responsiveness, donations and so forth. Consumers believe that firms should contribute to charitable or societal causes (Ellen, Webb & Mohr, 2000). Customers are willing to shift to support a brand that has a social reason embedded in it or in its selling and distribution (Webb & Mohr, 1998). Ellen et al., (2000) pronounce that CrM generates positive consumer perception. Kotler (2000) believes that CrM is a strategy for a corporates to communicate CSR in clear terms to influence consumer evaluations and preferences. Dahl and Lavack (1995) consider CrM as a firm visible hand, easy to notice and shows that a company has compassion for the society.

2.10.3 Philanthropy

Philanthropy are acts of giving money or kind to any cause, with no expectation of any benefit tied with the giving (Lii et al., 2013). The concept represents a corporate which simply wants to be regarded as a good citizen or having a good heart or spirit (Smith & Ward, 2006). Chan (2014) says

that corporate citizenship has a close association with corporate philanthropy, where corporate philanthropy emerges as direct aid in cash grants, donations or kind. Organisations have exercised their corporate citizenship through philanthropic acts such as donating money, services or products to not-for-profit organisations, charities, communities, partnering with organisations raising various forms of public awareness, giving scholarships, providing technical expertise, knowledge, skills and so forth (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Microsoft together with the Managing Director of Global Corporate Affairs and Tim Cook believe that philanthropy touches the heart of people, creates good reputation, changes consumer attitude and liking (Kauffeld et al., 2009; Vascellaro, 2011). Craig (2013) argues that corporate philanthropy has been seen to be exploitative in some instances, even if it may generate favorable emotions or feelings.

2.10.4 Corporate citizenship

A corporate is considered 'good corporate citizen' as soon as it aids for good reasons and safeguards the environment (CSRRepTrack100, 2013). Good corporate citizenship can be evidenced by a firm's engagement in matters that are occurring in the country or community, and the world around (Chan, 2014). The burden of massive global issues which include water shortages, climatic change, terrorism, infectious diseases, education, providing access to food (extreme poverty), corruption, failed states, relief and disaster response tend to be given to multinational corporations which have a global scope of operations (Schwab, 2008). Becoming a good corporate resident or citizen also means conserving the environment, eliminating the corporate's detrimental impact in its operations or supply chain (Krystallis, Chrysochoidis & Scholderer, 2007) and this was termed corporate sustainability (covering the corporate's green policies or practices) (Lajoux & Soltis Martel, 2013). Organisations are becoming sensitive to issues that affect the society and the environment, and therefore are engaging in programs committed to alleviate environmental and climatic problems (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Lajoux and Soltis Martel (2013) state that the conscious, educated consumer responds negatively to a firm which has shown indications of being a bad citizen.

2.10.5 Corporate governance

The CSRRepTrack100 (2013) defines governance as a corporate that is run responsibly, which means the corporate is behaving ethically or the corporate is transparent and open in business dealings. An ethical company should do so to the public and behind the scenes (an ethical internal climate should be consistent with what is portrayed in the public). Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon and Siegel (2008) outline key practices of governance and these are generating a favourable link

with the public, conducting fair-transparent business and placing value to the stakeholders' interests in making business resolutions. The key to doing well governed business is creating a culture within the workforce, as Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon and Siegel (2008) noted, that helps to chart proper governance path for an organisation. To embed CSR in corporate climate there should be a culture stemming from principles inside the firm implanted in codes of ethics, mission statement, vision statement and values (Eccles et al., 2012). Governance issues are becoming major aspects affecting consumer and investor confidence and behaviour (Wisdom et al., 2018).

2.10.6 Workplace management

Workplace means an ideal, appealing place of work in the context of how employees are treated and rewarded at the workplace (Lucas, Kang & Li, 2013). Organisations that have high level employee welfare tend to achieve high employee satisfaction and morale, low labour turn over, lure more talent and have excellent work relations (McElhaney, 2008). Corporate Responsibility Magazine (2014) considers employee privacy, diversity, job satisfaction, health or wellness, security, job safety and so on as part of what is termed internal CSR. On CSR's 100 Best Corporate Citizens rankings published in Corporate Responsibility Magazine (2014) Intel was globally ranked best on employee relations using standards of employee relations, promotions, process changes, employee active involvement, employee and manager commitment, workplace safety and teamwork. According to Helm (2011) there is a link between customer satisfaction and loyalty, which accrues to an organisation because the organisation pays attention to employees and their well-being, thus, managing to retain staff members who are more enthusiastic on taking risks, helpful, happy, creative and innovative.

2.10.7 Environmentalism

According to Kauffeld et al., (2009) in a National Economic Survey, 80 percent and above of the Americans choose working or buying from a corporation that has a concern over the environment. Responsible corporates improve the wellbeing of the environment and community by attending to their operations, production processes and distributions systems (Bendapudi, 2003). According to Hernandez (2013) Microsoft is greatly accredited for making frontic efforts in eliminating dangers to the environment whereas some corporates have neglected the environment and excessively exploited natural resources. The Environmental Protection Agency, society and consumers highly emulate the environmental sustainability efforts by Microsoft, thus, Microsoft was conferred the Green Power Partner of the year Award (Creel, 2010; Hernandez, 2013). Top environmentally

friendly corporates have been named the Green Eleven, while top environmental enemy corporates were labelled as the Toxic Ten (Detrick, 2008), giving a spectrum from which consumers chose a firm they want to be associated with.

The discussed CSR initiatives or activities fall in the firm CSR scope of behaviour as illustrated in the next section.

2.11 Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) scope of behaviour

According to Kotler and Keller (2015) CSR is motivated by different aspects such as volunteering, legal framework, societal ethics, professionalism and value creation. Firms conducting CSR may behave or act in one or more than one variant of these aspects. This section will explain the CSR scope of behavior of firms as follows;

2.11.1 Voluntary acts

Chan (2014) articulates that CSR refers to voluntary actions that firms take to improve living conditions i.e. economic, environmental, social status of local communities or to assist in reducing negative effects of company operations. Voluntary acts are those that go beyond requirements of contracts, obligations and license agreement (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Legal requirements across the globe are naturally leading towards increased regulation of CSR (Kotler & Lee, 2005; Schwab, 2008). Muirhead (1999) criticises the absence of any enforcement or punitive mechanism for firms to meet extra-judicial obligations. The absence of an enforcement and punitive mechanism is a shortcoming underlying CSR theory, CSR practice, corporate citizenship and CSR voluntary initiatives (Valentine & Fleischman, 2007).

2.11.2 Legal acts

There is an overlap of CSR and corporate governance issues, when it comes to CSR practice, regulation and legislation (Watson Group, 2015). Corporate governance are systems and procedures through which firms are operated, guided and controlled through regulations, legislation and codes of conduct (Brammer et al., 2012). Carroll (2006) discusses CSR as voluntary initiatives where no legislation has been enacted, though the Triple Bottom Line approach affirm that CSR can be guided by legislation concerned with social matters and the environment. Environment and social matters are embedded in the Companies Act, and in countries like the UK such legislation includes Race Relations Act (Statutory Duties) Order 2001, Working Time (Amendment) Regulations 2001,

Maternity and Parental Leave (amendment) Regulations 2001, Disability Discrimination Act 1995 and 2005, Health and Safety at Work Act 1974 and Employment Act 2002 among many other issues. The Accounts Modernisation Directive calls for big PLC companies to have reports published on environmental issues (Toal & Broomes, 2006; 2017).

2.11.3 Ethical/ moral acts

Papoutsy (2000) states that ethical business behaviour is fast becoming a global challenge. Davies et al., (2012) adds that ethical dimensions and concepts have emerged and been modified in various contexts of societies and business operations. Firms succeed by being ethical and observing CSR practices (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Gaumnitz and Lere (2002) uphold that the complexity of ethics is as a result of the fact that ethical standards emanate or are embedded in systems, values, procedures, religion, rituals, e.t.c. of societies. The greatest challenge is to differentiate business and societal living standards, where a business in a certain society naturally adopts that society's living standards into formal business practices (Isaacs-Morell 2013; Lawrence & Weber, 2008). In extremist societies, the harm a firm can do involves encroaching or offending a societal or cultural principle (Valentine & Fleischman, 2007). Corporates have developed codes of conduct or practice in order to set standards for conducting business.

2.11.4 Professional conduct

Valentine and Fleischman (2007) state that professional standards enhance a firm's CSR activities and ethical behaviour. Professional conduct is seen in the mannerism, way of doing work or handling oneself at workplace which demonstrate commendable or acceptable behavioural standards. A society's cultural framework also affects the formation of occupational or organisational standards. The standards set regulate what can be considered professional or unprofessional conduct (Boynton, 2002). According to Gaumnitz and Lere (2002) professionalism has been defined as the public purpose, intellectual tradition and fiduciary relationships that are involved in an occupation or job setting. The type or level of professionalism forms the basis of norms, values and defines the guides in which practitioners organise and perform work, tasks and conduct (Chin et al., 2013). Management should readily accept CSR as society expects companies, professions and staff to abide by ethical and professional standards. Valentine and Fleischman (2007) explain that employees should be instilled with high professional, ethical standards that should direct them to high ethics and social responsibility. Groening et al., (2015) argue that standards raise commitment to ethical behavioral norms within a job.

2.11.5 Value creation

Kotler and Armstrong (2010) are of the opinion that the main goal of corporate activities in the US for decades has been the creation of shareholder value. This approach is termed value based management and is viewed in various ways and these include the way firms compete, formulate strategies, implement strategies, organisational structure, management systems, activity measurement and managerial performance (Argandona, 1998). Clarkson (1995) argue that delivering value should be the main goal of a firm for all stakeholders, but not necessarily for shareholders only. Freeman (1984) adds that various stakeholders' interests also range from product and packaging quality, environment and societal preservation, government revenue and employee welfare. In observing such interests, the corporates indirectly achieve CSR for the general society (Champniss & Rodes Vila, 2011, Fernandez-Guadano & Sarria-Pedroza, 2018).

2.12 Consumer based Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) communication

Bennett and Kottasz (2000) say that a major challenge that most managers face is the question of whether it is correct to make known all the social responsibility activities and how to do that. In some management schools of thought, management considers it enough when the corporate makes social projects known only inside the company and business partners (Militaru, 2006). This means that consumers are excluded from CSR communication. The reason why these schools of thought hold this view is that literature on CSR communication tends to suggest that brands that communicate CSR are susceptible to consumer scepticism (Heidinger, 2012). Although this view is valid to some extent, communicating CSR has benefits for corporates that carry out these initiatives. CSR communication tends to foster positive consumer reaction and purchase intention. That being the case, it is important for CSR initiatives to be communicated to stakeholders. Using the stakeholder theory, Friedman (1970) suggests that all entities concerned and affected by the firm, its products and operations exist as stakeholders and these should know about a corporate's CSR initiatives. Numerous stakeholders to a firm also have numerous or specific interest and expectations on CSR. This study intends to focus on the consumer as a stakeholder due to the growing importance and focus by many researches regarding CSR and the consumer.

When firms control CSR messages, consumers will view the CSR act and CSR message as untrustworthy (Morsing, 2003). Bannett and Kottasz (2000) claim that other consumer reactions and attitudes has led to the importance of CSR communication despite the fact that a firm

communicating CSR encounters consumer skepticism. Heidinger (2012) suggests four CSR message features that can be included to enhance CSR communication on achieving consumer positive results; CSR-brand fit, CSR motives, CSR target and CSR message specificity. The features have been identified and tested with at least two consumer attitudes; attitude of consumers towards CSR messages (credibility and skepticism) and attitude of consumers towards brands (commitment, identification, trust, satisfaction). Heidinger (2012) suggests that consumer CSR messages can be differentiated on its features ranging from intrinsic and extrinsic CSR motives, high and low CSR message specificity, high and low CSR-brand fit, and local to global CSR targets.

2.12.1 The evolving manifestation of CSR communication

According to Bronn and Vrioni (2001) what seems important to consumers is continuously changing. This view is concurred by Heidinger (2012) who says consumer values have not remained static over the years but have dramatically changed to issues that were regarded as unimportant in the last decades. Changes in many societies are generally in line with exposure to new ways of doing, through interacting with people from other cultures and also by reacting to new challenges and finding innovative solutions to deal with them. This means globalisation plays a big role in bringing changes to consumer needs, expectations and values across societies. With regard to firms, globalisation has opened new doors and markets for businesses, and firms now use numerous methods to converse their purpose, products, benefits and other aspects to consumers and the society. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) say that over the years firms have faced intensified competition to reach to customers, but with globalisation even borders are more permeable than ever. Conversely, in a bid to reach more people, the society in this 21st century is bombarded with multiple corporate and marketing communications such as advertisements, slogans, claims and so forth (Kotler & Keller, 2015). But still as businesses thrive to conquer new markets, the price and quality are noticeably diminishing, because firms are achieving these at lowest cost (Bray, 2008). In contrast consumers are becoming more socio-environmental enlightened (Butcher & Xu, 2014).

With regard to CSR, in the 21st century, there has been more emphasis on businesses giving back to society and doing business in a sustainable manner. Bronn and Vrioni (2001) explain that the public, which includes consumers and prospects, have arisen to be interested or concerned about the natural and social environment therefore demanding firms to objectively and transparently report or communicate CSR. In reaction to consumer pressure, Carmeli, Gilat and Waldman (2007) state that firms in the 21st century have recognised, agreed and accepted that their societal roles are changing

drastically from being simply producers and suppliers or sellers to being corporate citizens that have to be responsible. In line with changing roles of firms, Heidinger (2012) found that about 54 percent of German advertisers believed that firms had a portion of responsibility regarding sustainable consumption. This means consumers have higher expectations in terms of CSR participation. CSR engagement and CSR communication by corporates therefore emerged because firms believe that fulfilling the CSR obligation and respecting societal values could be a selling point in favour of their products.

2.12.2 The CSR self-promoter or self-praise communication dilemma

CSR initiatives and activities are usually reported by respective companies or corporates which results in a dilemma of self-praise or promotion. Parguel et al., (2011) state that firms have developed both CSR initiatives and CSR communications muscles but face the predicament of striking a balance of CSR communications that are believable in such a manner that they do not wear out consumers' perceived legitimacy of the CSR. According to Heidinger (2012), the CSR communication dilemma is extended by the need to answer if there should be CSR communication forms or features that could be used to achieve positive consumer responses without tempering with consumer firm or CSR perceived legitimacy. Heidinger (2012) believes that it is now necessary that firms investigate CSR forms or practices that actually result in consumer positive responses. Fundamentally, communicating CSR or making consumers aware of CSR by a corporate is one approach to achieve consumer positive results, though some scholars presume that a firm communicating CSR faces the previously highlighted consumer criticism or skepticism (self-promoter dilemma) (Morsing & Schultz, 2006).

Traditionally firms are interested in profit making, though the roles of firms have been transforming over the years (Bronn and Vrioni, 2001). Thus, the concept of CSR is a contrast to their core aim, of making profits. Deng (2012) suggests that due to the natural profit interest by firms, the challenge is that many studies have not yet proven that CSR results in increase in consumer purchase behaviour. Perrini, Castaldo, Misani and Tencati (2010) argue that negative attitudes such as skepticism inhibits consumer purchase behaviour while favourable attitude such as brand trust or brand loyalty are fundamental factors leading to purchase behaviour. Du, Bhattacharya and Sen (2010) are of the view that simply CSR does not necessarily lead to purchase behaviour, as consumers are becoming more sophisticated with the capacity to perceive and reconcile firm CSR mixed motives. Due to the controversy that exists on CSR, Heidinger (2012) says that previous

studies that were conducted regarding the link between consumer purchase behaviour and CSR communication have not provided expected insights into the significance of CSR. Lee, Shin, Park and Kwon (2010) suggest that there is need for rigorous research in order to comprehend attitude formation with respect to CSR and CSR communication. The researcher concurs with Lee, Shin, Park and Kwon.

2.12.3 Stakeholders and Corporate Social Responsibility reporting (CSRep)

Reynolds and Yuthas (2008) state that the past decade has seen a call for environmental accounting and reporting, a subset of social responsibility reporting. This reporting takes a variety of forms and is voluntary on the part of corporations, thus implicitly defining the stakeholders as outside the corporation and dependent on corporate willingness to disclose (Reynolds & Yuthas 2008). The value of CSR Reporting (CSRep) can not be undermined in the 21st century. Generally, CSRep involves all CSR messages that are communicated, but the term initially emanated from specifically emphasising the CSR financial detail. CSRep's main thrust at the time was to discharge accountability and answerability to firm's stakeholders no matter the level of power the stakeholder has, which is a normative view of stakeholders (Deegan & Unerman, 2006) and supported by scholars in the field of social accounting (Adams, 2002; Unerman & Bennett, 2004). This view demonstrate the current underlying assumption that the stockholder is not the only most important stakeholder. CSR reports are important because they help investors to make decisions, but a question remains on the quality of the information and purpose of reporting. Despite the debates and questions surrounding CSRep, the concept is becoming more and more important to primary and secondary stakeholders, moreso to investors. Additionally, in certain political and social contexts, a corporate may have different obligations in the country in which they operate, as such, it is crucial for firms to undertake CSR reporting (CSRep).

CSR reporting varies from country to country. Jamali and Mirshak (2007) believe that corporate social responsibilities across nations are largely affected by cultural factors in a society and as shown previously cultures differ. Thus, CSR reporting should be aligned with the needs and expectations of the country. Belal and Roberts (2010) exemplify that corporate social responsibility and reporting by many multinational companies differ in developing countries faced with different political, social and economic circumstances. In some countries, multinational companies report CSR in order to influence political will, while in other countries they report CSR to attain tax holidays. With regard to developing countries, there are three codes that must be observed by multinational companies

operating in developing nations (Bird & Smucker, 2007). The codes include preserving an alertness of historical and institutional developments of local societies, using non-threatening ways of communication to the local communities and the readiness by the firm to protect and advance the socio-economic assets of the community. According to Buchholz and Rosenthal (2005) the three codes or principles satisfy both the adoption of strategies that mutually cultivate stakeholder relationships and internalise stakeholders' perspectives.

Reed (2002) states that multinational companies need to observe historical and cultural differences but above that, they need to observe normative stakeholder principles such as obligations on stakeholders. Such normative principles in developing countries may include proper compensation and working conditions for employees, recognising workers' rights, including marginalised groups in programs and avoiding anti-competitive practices. Belal and Roberts (2010) propose that it is equally important for all the groups of stakeholders to perceive CSRep as transparent and informative. O'Dwyer et al., (2005) assert that CSRep studies should look at different non-managerial groups or stakeholders such as trade unions and consumer groups, with an emphasis on their perspective of Corporate Social Disclosure. According to Reynolds and Yuthas (2008) these stakeholder perspectives influence both the CSR processes and CSRep content, therefore making CSRep part of an overall CSR activities. Belal and Roberts (2010) reveal that research in the Middle East was supported by users of annual reports such as auditors, accountants and academics in Qatar (Al-khater & Naser, 2003) and Jordan (Naser & Baker, 1999). For example, CSRep and CSRep research became popular in Bangladesh due to its relevance in enabling addressing of the country's socio-economic challenges (Belal & Roberts, 2010). In Africa, there is need for research to also be carried out on CSRep and its importance or link to various stakeholders.

2.12.4 Consumer oriented Corporate Social Responsibility communication

According to Schmeltz (2012) CSR has become the mantra of our time, an era which can be termed the 'compassionate capitalism' or the 'sustainability era'. Customary roles of corporates, NGOs, consumers, society and states are changing. Corporates no longer fully pursue profits but are taking up roles that were fundamentally the government's and NGO's (Ellis, 2010). Schmeltz (2012) asserts that in the current business world, it is now difficult to distinguish between doing good and doing business. Maon, Lindgreen and Swaen (2009) say that as much as CSR implementation is a difficult and complex process, CSR communication is a greater challenge to corporates. In contrast, the stakeholder group of consumers is becoming more and more powerful, sophisticated and

demanding (Podnar, 2008), hence, there is an expectation that they are informed about CSR activities. Bhattacharya, Korschun and Sen (2008) argue that consumers still believe that CSR forms a basis for creating impressions about a company or products. Although that is the case, it is still unclear what consumers expect to hear about CSR.

The value of CSR is underated when CSR activities are not conveyed to relevant interested groups. Maon et al. (2009) explains that communicating CSR can no longer be uniform but is dynamic due to the fact that CSR communication is a difficult and complex task in finding a credible, concise CSR message that fits all stakeholders. Morsing (2005) further explains that although communication of CSR is necessary, CSR is extremely a challenging message to send. Corporates circumvent communicating CSR due to the fact that either they feel uncomfortable expressing their views only or they are not aware of the critical importance of CSR communication. Although that is the case, corporates are increasingly engaging in communicating CSR as evidenced by so many non-financial reports. In 2008, the European Sustainability Reporting Association (2008) revealed that 90 percent of the FTSE100 corporates published information on sustainability-related issues, which is non-financial information.

Communicating CSR is a voluntary activity, but of late, it has become mandatory in other countries, for example, the 1,100 largest corporates in Denmark are mandated by the law to report their CSR in annual reports (CSRgov.dk, 2010). The importance of CSR reporting is that it helps consumers identify with the corporates who engage in activities that they support. Schmeltz (2012) opines that consumer CSR awareness level is questionable and under-explored, but still such information can be valuable for scholars to know whether or not consumers notice CSR and under what circumstances. There is need therefore for further research into these phenomena.

a) CSR communication and young consumers

In the past, many CSR activities were taking place at the expense of consumers, thus, Schmelz (2012) basically says consumers had been left out in CSR research and practice, where focus was directed intensely on business partners, investors and the government. However, in the recent past, this has been changing with the realisation that consumers have power through their buying power to influence businesses. Gabriel and Lang (2006) explain that the place of consumers has been drastically changing in business over the years, resulting in a critical relationship and consideration of consumers by the business world. Additionally, Gabriel and Lang (2006) state that the face of the consumer is ever-changing making business-consumer relations more complicated and dynamic.

The consumer is changing from being a chooser or victim to an explorer, activist, identity-seeker and so forth. This means that corporates have to make the time to know their consumer well to provide effective business solutions.

With regard to consumers, these can be broken down using different characteristics such as portrait-like characteristics and demography. Under demographics, Gabriel and Lang (2006) assert that the most interesting breaking down of consumers is using age characteristics. In this section, focus will be on the youth (age range between 18 and 30). Identifying the young aged between 18-30, presents the most capable, volatile, largest, complex and influential group of consumers (Kongsholm, 2010). The 18-30 age group has been termed the Generation Me or the iGen because they tend to look at covering their own needs before looking at anyone else needs (Twenge, 2006). Their approach to life is different due to growing in a life filled with choices and possibilities (Kongsholm, 2010).

These young ones have high expectations about the future, their personal life, ethical issues beyond their own needs or desires and therefore what companies do (Rasmussen, 2009). They expect firms to communicate their operations in order to find what it is that they have in it and socio-environmental practices to be guaranteed of a sustainable future. The young ones have therefore adopted a new set of media habits for their security and information in life (Eurostat, 2009). This is because young people nowadays live in a global world graced with the internet and news travels extremely fast (Kongsholm, 2010). Corporates therefore are anticipated to provide constant stream of information, responding to society demands and arguments of reproach. This applies to CSR activities.

Since the young ones are more technologically advanced, it calls for firms to change in the messages, forms or platforms used to communicate (Twenge, 2006). The current generation has an uneven system of utilising various communication technologies and they appear to interpret public disclosure as only natural as social media which include Myspace, Facebook, Whatsapp and Twitter (Rasmussen, 2009). Nevertheless, when it comes to CSR, consumers are particularly interested in firms engaging in CSR, at the same time, they do not expect explicitly communicated CSR, for example, a firm to communicate about its good deeds (self-praise dilemma) (Crane & Glozer, 2006; Maignan, 2001; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001).

b) Modern deliberations on communicating CSR to consumers

As stated previously, CSR has been traditionally classified as corporate responsibilities (i.e. ethical, philanthropic, economic and legal) (Carroll, 1991). Additionally, CSR contains a typology of creativities such as Kotler and Lee's (2005) six categories of doing good (cause-related marketing, cause promotions, corporate philanthropy, corporate social marketing, socially responsible business practice and community volunteering). Paine's (2003) model categorises CSR with respect to the firm's own approach and motives. Interestingly, these approaches in literature show corporate perspectives and not the consumer perspective. Ellen et al., (2006) produced a structure that adopts the customer's perspectives in CSR activities, classifying the perspectives into four main motives (reacting negatively towards perceived egoistic, self-centered motives and other-centred motives, then reacting positively towards perceived altruistic). Perceived altruistic refers to consumers assuming firms are being genuine in their acts of giving, while other-centered motives refers to firms not having profit or growth motives at the centre but considering other motives such as environmental concerns, then the part of being negative towards perceived egoistic and self-centred motives means firms avoid self-centredness. Schmeltz (2012) explains that literature that has dealt with CSR communication to consumers forms a trend around CSR's impact on consumer purchasing, consumer reaction and attitudes toward CSR, rhetoric techniques and overcoming scepticism.

How CSR influences consumer purchasing behaviour - focuses on how CSR communication may impact or cause changes in buying behavior (Schmeltz, 2012). The presupposition behind the statement is that CSR positively influences buying behaviour (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Chen et al., 2015). Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) assert that the positive CSR beliefs consumers hold on a firm are linked to purchase intention. Du, Bhattacharya and Sen (2007) said that corporates aspire to achieve positive CSR beliefs by meeting consumer expectations on CSR communication and programs.

Consumer reactions and attitudes to CSR - had already started to be investigated in the 1990s (Creyer & Ross, 1997). According to Creyer and Ross (1997), consumers expressed interest in CSR and records of their being reportedly interested in CSR have been on the high. Muruganantham (2010) agrees with Podnar and Golob (2007) that the consumer is an important stakeholder and that consumer CSR or CSR reporting expectations are ever increasing. Beckmann (2007) says that consumers in their reactions and attitudes to CSR are more sensitive to negative CSR information than positive CSR information.

Rhetorical strategies to create credibility - means that specific or certain CSR achievements or programmes with accompanying facts but not impressionistic language seem more desirable by consumers (Berens & van Rekom, 2008). In other words, consumers prefer firms that walk their CSR talk more than how they fashion it with words, whilst they have done little or done nothing at all. Pomeroy and Johnson (2009) put across three variables that can be considered in enhancing CSR credibility and inhibit scepticism and these are; social topic information, long-term CSR commitment and CSR impact specificity. Social topic information involves the company explaining clearly what social problem they are addressing, while long term commitment entails the extent of solving the problem and CSR impact specificity details the benefits to be achieved by people or society facing the problem.

How to overcome consumer scepticism - refers to strategies that can be adopted to create a positive image among the consumers. Elving (2010) explains that it refers to the disbelief tendencies that exist in consumers and strategies by corporates to overcome consumer disbelief. Berens and van Rekom (2008) say that self-praise perception, absence of proof, vague words, and so forth are the main reasons for consumers to be sceptical about CSR and CSR communications. In order to overcome the scepticism, Elvin (2010) suggests corporate transparency, CSR to community-challenges fit, CSR-brand fit and public CSR reporting as some of the most important elements that can be used to eliminate or reduce consumer scepticism. This means corporates should function from a point of honesty and be truly concerned about the social initiatives that they are implementing. Austin, Leonard, Reficco and Wei-Skillern (2006) state that consumer enthusiasm on firm behaviour or CSR has managed to elavate them to air out, through various media, their expectations consequently improving the society and environment they live in.

The advent of the internet has given firms and consumers a powerful platform to access or interact with any form of CSR expectations and messages, to an extent that firms who are not meeting CSR expectations are liable to consumer punishment (Du et al., 2010). Information about firm CSR enhances consumer evaluation, in the case that there are two products relatively similar, the consumer would take on one that they are aware of firm CSR (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Morsing and Schultz (2006) proclaim that society has become more aware of responsible business practices and therefore firm CSR activities are being closely monitored. There is evidence of increasing local to global scale CSR rankings and yearly disclosure of CSR in firm annual reports to meet public,

employee and shareholder CSR expectations (Carroll, 1999). The stakeholders have a real incredible effect on the firm's bottomline if their expectations on the firm are not met.

2.12.5 CSR communication and the CSR Legitimacy theory

According to Arvidsson (2010) when communicating CSR, legitimacy is attained when CSR messages have reached internal and external stakeholders. The CSR Legitimacy theory was developed recently when CSR achieved a place of recognition in business (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). Chaffee and Berger (1987) listed seven attributes of the Legitimacy theory relative to CSR communication and these are; firstly, the explanatory power, that the theory provides commendable CSR explanations. Secondly, that the theory exhibits predictive power, that is CSR effects can be calculated. Thirdly, it is a simple theory and simple theories are more preferred than complex theories. Fourthly, good theories or models stand the test of time and tests of falsifiability, that is the theory has been severally applied and repeatedly achieves similar results in the cases. Fifth, good theories are measurable, seperably from observable tests and show internal reliability. Sixth, good theories increase knowledge and contribute new suppositions, that is where the theory provided different results, it was because of a different context and the results could be explained. Seventh and last, good theories contain the power of organisation and has the capacity to formulate surviving knowledge, that is the new suppositions could stand out in similar contexts and provided a basis for developing more knowledge.

Corporates are in transition from philosophical-ethical to action-oriented CSR, as such, Hong and Rim (2010) say that management teams in a socially responsible firm respond to societal demands. In order for corporates to gain legitimacy in the society, and this is seen in action-oriented CSR, firms should engage in CSR that is visible and accessible, meeting the predictability power and internal consistency principles. Franklin, (2008) expands that corporates simply gain legitimacy by operating within societal norms and problems, engage in CSR and disclose social responsibility information. Corporates therefore volunteer to publish CSR information in order to gain, maintain or repair legitimacy in stakeholders.

2.12.6 CSR communication benefits

Carroll (1999) suggests that CSR, as a business concept, concerns important associations between the society and business. This is a role that firms take to integrate responsible practices or policies into business models that propagate good standards of living for the community, the employees, the

environment, while conserving firm profitability drive (Hopkins, 2007). Lantos (2001) believes that the most basic way to engage in CSR by a firm is to implement philanthropic activities and ethical business practices. Matten and Moon (2008) agree to this and further say that philanthropic activities can be driven by altruistic (intrinsic) or strategic (extrinsic) motivations. Altruistic drives exist in a firm's values which determine its character or behaviour. A firm can have a value of giving or helping expressed in donations and charity related behaviour (Du et al., 2010). Ellen et al., (2006) proclaim that strategic intentions aim to benefit firm reputation, public image and so forth, where CSR in this context is seen as an investment with expected returns. Carroll (1999) believes that firms should continue to invest in CSR for expected returns and moreover that CSR has become a critical component of business practice and language. Scarlett (2011) suggests that no matter the form of CSR, firms doing CSR should never cease to publish or include such activities in firm reports and other important media, since only communicated CSR accrues benefits to the firm. The next section discusses CSR communication benefits to the company.

a) CSR communication benefits to the company

In a recent survey, Cone (2010) revealed that 85 percent of the American consumers develop positive perceptions towards a firm and products, if the firm is involved in a societal cause they are concerned with. This means that CSR activities are beneficial to corporates when planned and implemented well, in line with the needs of the consumers. Corporates, therefore, should invest in CSR research to develop mutually beneficial relations of give and take with their consumers. Du et al., (2010) explain that long-term loyal relationships are fostered by a good corporate citizen which views consumers as investors to their brand. Another benefit of carrying out CSR initiatives is that, CSR helps to build a good image for the corporate. In the long run, a good image is beneficial hence Du et al. (2007) says when a firm engages in CSR, it is taking a stance against unforeseeable negative corporate news. Scarlett (2011) adds that firms engage in CSR activities to affect and improve the perception of stakeholders towards the image of the company. Kotler and Keller (2015) argue that either brand or company image or both are critical in developing a competitive advantage.

b) CSR communication benefits to the consumers and the public

Du et al., (2010) studies the benefits of CSR to the consumers and the public, and came up with various positions. CSR has been seen to benefit consumers from improved quality products, less dangerous products and services that are consumed in the marketplace. Kotler and Keller (2015) support the notion that CSR is seen in the provision of correct and adequate labelling of brands through the names, symbols, logos, instructions and guides on using brands. After touching on the

product itself, CSR benefits extend to the other Ps of the marketing mix, which means CSR touches on correct pricing (price), availability of products (place) and ethical communication of products (promotion). CSR benefits the community as a whole through various aspects which include making employment available, improving the community and environment, improving country GDP or economy, improving direct investment and the general lives of people. Above that CSR has managed to get the voice of the customers to be heard by companies and some aspects to be legislated by governments.

c) CSR communication benefits to the employees

Scarlett (2011) realises that responsible business practices benefits even the internal stakeholders. Employees take pride, are willing to give more time, are willing to exert more energy and get motivated to be more dedicated to the firm and their responsibilities when they are aware of the firm's responsible business practices (Austin et al., 2006). When employees feel proud of their firm, it follows them outside the firm through engaging in positive word-of-mouth and becoming natural brand ambassadors (Scarlett, 2011). On a different angle, Menon and Kahn (2003) recognise that a corporate engaging in CSR for the outside stakeholders would have obviously satisfied or rewarded internal stakeholders fairly or equally.

d) CSR communication benefits to the shareholders

Shareholders are informed about firm CSR through company reports and at Annual General Meeting (AGM) (Scarlett (2011)). The Stakeholder theory holds that shareholders' concern on CSR goes as far as how CSR brings a differential competitive advantage in order to increase firm revenue (Argandona, 1998). This view is clarified by Friedman (1970) who says stockholders are mainly concerned with revenue, profitability and firm growth, which translate into their dividends, share price and total equity. As shown in previous sections, CSR has the capacity to retain customers who align with CSR initiatives, which can translate to revenue. Also as stated previously, more research is required to determine how much of CSR translates to revenue. However, what cannot be questioned is the link between CSR and corporate image. McWilliams and Siegel (2000) state that CSR and CSR communication are calculated as an investment which should accrue rewards (cost-benefit analysis), which is beneficial to the shareholders. Shareholders in turn justify the occurrence of CSR based on CSR and CSR communication's ability to change consumer perception, attitude, purchase behaviour (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Heidinger, 2012; Nanda, 2015; Walker & Kent, 2009) and to cause an increase in employee productivity (Helm, 2011; Korschun, 2014).

2.12.7 Ways of communicating CSR issues

Du et al., (2010) states that for a firm to realise paybacks of CSR, internal and external audiences should be informed about the firm's CSR. This means communicating CSR is important for organisations. The question is, how, so as not to incur the sceptism of the public. Maignan and Farrell (2004) explains that CSR awareness has always been on the low-side in relation to the proportion of people intended to be reached by a CSR message. This means that it is important to identify the right channels of communicating CSR so that the message reaches the target audiences. Depending on the targeted audience, firms can use different channels to reach the audience intended for a CSR message (Scarlett, 2011). Important to note, however, is that the public news media and channels are available to expose business scandals, thus, it is the responsibility of firm to bring CSR to the light of the public (Morsing & Schultz, 2006). Who is intended for a specific CSR message, makes up the firm's intended audience (Koter & Armstrong, 2010). Internally a firm may use emails, newsletters, internal web portal, with shareholders annual reports and AGMs to communicate CSR and through press release or conference the firm attracts media houses which will take the information to the public (Scarlett, 2011). These sources of information have an impact on how the message is received as shown below;

a) Sources of information

Simmons and Becker-Olson (2006) believe that consumers interpret and value CSR information depending on the source from where the information was received. Yoon et al., (2006) says CSR information is more credible when communicated by a third party rather than the company itself, similarly CSR information is more credible on traditional communication channels rather than company online or website sources. Thus, it is better when the media or other parties report on CSR initiatives than the company itself. Individuals or entities not associated with the firm make up third parties which can have the capacity to carry CSR information, for example, journalists (media houses), government or independent institutions and opinion leaders (Simmons & Becker-Olson, 2006). Yoon et al., (2006) opine that every source affects the sincerity of the firm's CSR message or information. For example, the problem with media is that at times information may be wrongly presented or taken out of context. When a company is holding its own CSR communication, its CSR information can be obtained from firm adverts, press release and firm website (Scarlett, 2011). Scarlett (2011) advises that a firm's CSR cause investment that enormously exceed its CSR advertising expenditure increases the sincerity of the CSR advertised message. Thus, companies should invest more on CSR initiatives than on communicating CSR initiatives.

b) Corporate CSR motives and public perception

Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) reveals that customers calculate firm motives in exercising CSR to gauge the character of the firm. As such, when firms are communicating CSR issues, they have to be target oriented and consider the views of their consumers. If CSR communication is not handled well, the effect can hurt the image of the company. Morsing and Schultz (2006) advise that instead a boomerang effect can occur when consumers identify a wrong motive or perceive a wrong motive. This is because consumers have always believed that a firms' bottomline is to make profit (Ellen et al., 2006), thus even disclosing purely altruistic driven CSR to consumers, makes them feel like they have been deceived or manipulated (Forehand & Grier, 2003). Ellen et al., (2006) concur that altruistic drives are always viewed with suspicion, distrust and thus are not believable most of the times. Consumers tend to have complicated reasons of comprehending firm's engagement in CSR, though among a number of reasons or motives, they lessly value corporate strategic reasons, and highly value a combination of values and stakeholders driven motives (Morsing & Schultz, 2006).

c) Corporate commitment to cause and corporate-cause fit

According to Morsing and Schultz (2006) consumers measure the duration of firm CSR and long term CSR shows genuine commitment to improve society and environment. Short-term CSR is viewed with suspicion, as if the company intended to hit on profit only as the bottomline. In fact, Ellen et al., (2006) say that short term CSR appears as if the firm wants to only meet others' expectations rather than that CSR is an organisational principle, so CSR in this context is viewed as a deceptive act. According to Bhattacharya, Korschun and Sen (2008), short term CSR is considered insincere and will yield ineffective if not negative consumer behaviour. This means CSR initiatives have to be planned properly for long term so as to have a positive impact.

Simmons and Becker-Olson (2006) describe corporate-cause fit as the perceived fit between the firm and the organisation it is supporting or the cause. Scarlett (2011) assumes that there should be a logical connection or association between a corporate and the cause, based on the business' function or values and the nature of the cause. If there is a match, then consumers view the organisational CSR activities as genuinely assisting or building relationships and not profiteering, insincere or abusive (Ellen et al., 2006). Scarlett (2011) adds that consumer approval of a CSR activity is high when there is a fit and this tends to improve consumer purchase intention. The fit exist in two parameters, the degree of fit (high-low fit) and the type of fit (functional and image fit). High degree fit means consumers can perceive an obvious match or connection between firm and the cause while a low degree fit consumers perceive an inconsistency (Simmons & Becker-Olson,

2006). Functional fit relates to the firm's operational or production capabilities to the cause being supported, while image fit explains a connection on the cause and firm character, reputation or values (Alcaniz, Caceres & Perez, 2010). Companies therefore have to align and implement CSR activities that align with the company vision, mission and principles, as well as the needs of their consumers, and they should have adequate resources to see through the initiatives.

Menon and Kahn (2003) submit four dimensions in which consumers can perceive corporate - cause fit (product dimension, affinity with particular audience, developed firm image linked with a particular social domain, firm personal involvement with a social domain). Product dimensions entail a fit that exists between a cause and the firm products. Affinity with a particular audience is when, for example, a firm decides to attend to a cause that matches with its customer group. Firm image associated with a particular cause is determined by a firm's previous conduct in assisting a particular cause. Personal involvement with a certain cause involves, for example, a firm supporting a certain cause because the founder of the firm or senior manager has a personal connection with the cause.

Firms set up plans and resources not for only engaging in CSR but also to effectively communicate CSR. Effective CSR communication is the hallmark to achieving consumer-based results, therefore, ineffective CSR communication is as good as CSR activities not implemented. The next section focuses on effective CSR communication and its impact specifically on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase.

2.13 Consequences of consumer awareness of CSR

Awareness of CSR has potential consequences, which can be positive (rewards) or negative (punishment). As stated earlier on CSR communication, if society is aware of CSR, they are willing to reward or punish a firm (Heidinger, 2012). This section therefore will explain consequences of awareness of CSR in the context of consumers, either rewarding or punishing behaviour.

2.13.1 Corporate image evaluation

van Heerden (2013) notes that corporate image evaluation cannot be explained without identifying its main constructs, corporate brand and corporate reputation. Kotler and Keller (2015) define corporate image as the way in which a firm, its products and activities are perceived by outsiders. Before consumers evaluate a firm's CSR activities, they use corporate image to accept or not accept

its CSR activities (Scarlett, 2011). Corporate image is best used by consumers as corporate image-cause fit, where the corporate's previous behaviour, current values should match with the cause being supported by the firm through CSR (Ellen et al., 2006). This makes firm responsibility activities to be perceived by consumers as genuine, helping and sincere.

a) Corporate brand

A brand is defined as a set of promises, images, emotions and associations that firms create to build customer loyalty. Developing a strong brand in business is important because it creates a strong following and association among customers. According to van Heerden (2013) researchers in the 1950's began to believe both the symbolic and figurative parameters of brands, which was a big shift in the field of marketing. This saw the rise of corporates as brands and the wave of brand development still continues decades later. Brands can have social, psychological and physical characters that appeal to consumers (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). For example, the Mercedes Benz brand has a societal esteem component (social), make you feel safe (psychological) and state of art design or robust engineering (physical characters). Brands do not only have tangible and visible characteristics but carry with them intangible beliefs, feelings and connections (Arnould, Price & Zinkhan, 2004). It is these beliefs and connections that consumers associate with and at times follow religiously. According to Keller and Richey (2006), depending on the type of person and relevant circumstances of using a product, consumers are the ones who tend to develop subjective attributes of a brand. Therefore, the way consumers perceive CSR affects consumer-brand commitment (van Heerden, 2013). Foley (2006) asserts that brands can be referred to as seeds of growth, values forms the roots, corporate reputation is the bountiful harvest and firms reap what they sow.

van Heerden (2013) argues that corporate reputation should have an outside-in approach as corporate reputation is premised on consumer opinions, experiences and rumours from external stakeholders. Corporates develop their reputation from the entities external to the company. To build the reputation of a company, there is need to be consumer oriented, so as to get their feedback on the brand. Forley (2006) comments on the difference between a strong brand and a strong reputation, citing that when a product achieves high sales (brand strength), this does not mean adoration and respect for the firm (reputation). This means a company can be a strong brand but not have a good reputation. The two are at times mutually exclusive. Since most exchange of information by consumers regarding brands and reputation of firms nowadays occurs on the internet, it is important for firms to observe socio-environmental and stakeholder values and align these with firm values (Layard, Clark & Senik, 2012). External stakeholders' views tend to be changed by internal

stakeholders' response, industry discernments, source and preconception (Perera & Chaminda, 2012).

There are two contemporary approaches to CSR, that is positioning a brand in the market place based on CSR (CSR brand) and incorporating CSR strategy into overall firm strategy (corporate strategic planning). Champniss and Rodes Vila (2011) suggest that firms use social capital approach to build strong brands in society. Social capital has been defined as how healthy a society is in terms of its relationships with firms or the investments firms engage in to interact and build trust in society in order to get closer to communities (Champniss & Rodes Vila, 2011). According to Kotler and Keller (2015), the element of trust removes perception of risk on products, thus, increasing brand power. This is because social capital encompasses aspects of value to the lives of individuals such as goodwill, fellowship and sympathy (Champniss & Rodes Vila, 2011). According to van Heerden (2013) firms need to establish a strong corporate brand in relation to societal relations and values (social equity brand). Champniss and Rodes Vila (2011:125) declare that social equity is,

“...a brand that recognises both private and public importance and value of investing in long-term, balanced stock of social capital, as a means of uncovering, developing and activating collaborative, innovative and dynamic solutions to the sustainability issues we all face.”

Branding is not solely a firm task to detect what a brand confers, but a brand should respond to the society and find a be-fitting place in the society. Branding should be premised from societal value systems and way of living which is the social capital, which the firm needs to first identify and define. Therefore, taking a societal branding perspective Champniss and Rodes Vila (2011:112) define social capital as,

“The quality, depth, breadth and frequency of brand-inspired dialogue, exchange and interaction that occurs within a community. It is the benefits – both private (to the brand) and public (to the community) – that are generalised as a result. And it is the resultant collective ability to maintain and enhance these processes and benefits.”

When a firm brand identifies a position or place in the society by following societal value systems and way of living, then the individuals in the society can easily relate with the brand, which is termed consumer-company identity. For this to actually happen, the firm needs to develop a company identity which consumers can refer or point to.

i) Company identity

Corporate identity is a firm's symbol and nomenclature that a company uses to identify itself in the form of corporate logo, name, advertising, livery, slogan and so forth (Stanaland, Lwin & Murphy, 2011). van Heerden (2013) proposes different faces of firm identity starting from desired, communicated, actual, ideal and conceived. Desired entails what is wished, communicated and implies what the company said they are, actual is what is current or real, ideal is the optimum or best and conceived is what the consumers assume or understand as the identity. According to Johansen and Nielsen (2012) corporate identity helps firms to achieve and conserve strong position in the marketplace, protect legitimacy, attain consistent stakeholder perception and effective differentiation against competitors. Chang, Chiang and Han (2012) believe that brands become strong internally when employee behaviour is in line with what a brand promises to the consumer. Moreover, when a brand is created with ethical considerations, the brand is positively perceived more than any other brand in the society (van Heerden, 2013). van Heerden (2013) analysed a study by MORI in 2002 across six firms and concluded that CSR makes employees speak highly of the firm thus improving its image; though those employees directly involved in firm CSR would speak more highly than those not engaged, but simply know of what the firm is doing.

ii) Brand personality

Lewis (2003) says that a brand is a form of a persona for the company which encompasses corporate qualities, promises and values. Foley (2006) explains that a brand personality simply provides particular features or characteristics mostly associated with human beings, therefore, making it easier for consumers to identify with the brand or firm. Target consumer characteristics include their brand related mental images and these determine the personality of the brand (van Heerden, 2013). Foley (2006) explains that consumers tend to use brand personalities as a way of supporting or expressing their actual and idealised self image. This is confirmed by Babin and Harris (2011) who describe consumer-brand relationships strength in the form of love or passion, self-connection, commitment, interdependency, intimacy and brand-partner-quality. That being the case, it is important for corporates to build strong brands that accrue a strong following among the consumers.

Babin and Harris (2011) provide five dimensions of brand personality and their meaning ranging from excitement (daring, spirited), competence (responsible, reliable, dependable), ruggedness (tough, strong), sincerity (honest, genuine) and sophistication (glamorous, charming). van Heerden (2013) suggests that a number of issues such as price, packaging, product category, sponsorship,

symbols, endorsement and so forth affect the evolution of a brand. Due to the fact that consumers have a tendency of equating their personality with a brand, it is crucial for marketers to develop a brand with a composition of specific consumers personality traits (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Davies, Chun and Da Silva (2003) recognise that scholars and industry practitioners agree that a company is a brand in itself that is residing in the suppliers, clients, employees, community members, and indirect publics' minds. A brand evokes feelings or associations among consumers. Firms therefore should not have a limited view of brand worth (considering beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, concerns of consumers only) (Foley, 2006) and should aid the consumer to build self-concept (Perez, De Los Salmoes & Del Bosque, 2013). Lii and Lee (2012) sum up that consumer-company identity is a measure of the extent to which a person's self-definition intersects that person's perception of the firm's traits.

Still on brand personality, van Heerden (2013) believe that brand personality exists in an attitude tripartite perspective, which is affective (what consumers feel about the brand), cognitive (what consumers think about the brand) and conative (how consumers behave towards a brand). Keller and Richey (2006) proclaim a human tripartite approach of a brand, that is the heart (how compassionate and passionate is in delivering and taking cognisance of stakeholder interest), mind (creativity in serving and championing the marketplace) and body (firm rapid response to ever-changing market factors and use of collaboration with all stakeholders to achieve mutual goals). Babin and Harris (2011) differentiates between corporate brand personality and product brand personality by saying that product brand personality dwells on ideas and mental pictures, while corporate brand personality engrosses human traits or characteristics of employees.

With regard to CSR and brand personality, Perez et al., (2013) opine that communication of CSR positively influences consumer identification, consumer attitudes and consumer satisfaction. Thus, it is necessary for corporates to communicate CSR. van Heerden (2013) using the Identification Theory, found that consumer perception of firm CSR makes it easy for consumers to either identify or not identify with the brand or company. Parguel et al., (2011) say that it is the motives that consumers perceive on a firm that is doing or supporting a good cause that influences consumer evaluation of a corporate brand. Lichtenstein et al., (2004) argue that when a firm consistently continues offering such level of consumer fulfillment, it follows that the firm will attain consumer retention and loyalty. Perez et al., (2013) believe that as corporate brands are often associated with CSR, consumer-company identity ignites positive patronage intentions and a firm's Customer

Relationship Management (CRM) strategy should include CSR, leading to consumer-company identity as a crucial ingredient.

iii) Corporate image

An image of a firm embraces the attitudes of stakeholders (external) driven by their perceptions and the mental picture they hold concerning the firm, whereas a firm identity confirms the stakeholders' (internal) perceptions they have regarding the firm. According to Dowling (2001), company image is a generic evaluation, based on a set of beliefs, views and feelings people possess regarding a firm. This is different from a brand which is a compilation of a product, brand and consumer-related characteristics (such as attitudes, feelings and knowledge towards a brand) that consumers have in their minds (Arnould et al., 2004). Corporate image therefore is about the way people view the corporate. Perez et al., (2013) argue that a significant amount of research demonstrates a positive relationship between a firm's image, consumer thoughts and behaviour toward the products. Thus, having a good image in the public has a direct influence on the bottom-line.

Being involved in CSR is one way of building a good image in the public. This is because CSR communication is an element of corporate communication (Parguel et al. 2011). CSR communication embraces brand building approach (firm CSR efforts to construct a virtuous brand), reputation management approach (upholding CSR and societal obligations) and product differentiation approach (also termed ethical product differentiation meaning, environmental or social issue positioning of a product) (vanHeerden, 2013). Kotler and Lee (2005) suggest that an overall CSR corporate image is attained when a firm uses CSR as the core around which the entire brand is constructed. For example, The Body Shop has CSR communication always present and it is inevitable in all phases as it brands its products as environmentally and socially friendly (Parguel et al., 2011).

In line with the role played by CSR in corporate image building, Kotler and Lee (2005) advocate for a principle of doing CSR and letting consumers to talk about it in the society. CSR communication is an important way of identifying how consumers and the society judge firm CSR practices (van Heerden, 2013). Parguel et al., (2011) say that CSR information can be broken into uncontrollable CSR information and controllable CSR information with respect to consumer perceptions of the source. Uncontrollable CSR information sources include information received through mass media forms, word-of-mouth and non-governmental organisations. Uncontrollable CSR information highly improves firm's ethical corporate identity. van Heerden (2013) argues that

consumers should not find CSR information they source on their own different from what the firm communicates (controllable), this usually damages the firm's image. As a result, van Heerden supports the view that a firm should also do its own CSR communication.

Parguel et al., (2011) affirm that a firm's effort and recorded performance on sustainability rating indexes improves the firm's community acceptance and image since sustainability rating indexes are perceived as independent and uncontrollable information sources. Davies, Chun and Da Silva (2003) propose that for a firm to establish a realistic view of their current corporate reputation, there is need to look at image and identity. Davies et al., (2003) in turn believes that when a firm's image and identity are tallying, the firm achieves a concrete corporate reputation.

b) Corporate reputation

The term corporate reputation has been defined differently by different scholars, depending on the approach adopted by the scholars. According to Gardberg and Fombrun (2002) corporate reputation is a measure of the relative firm position with its internal and external stakeholders in the light of institutional and competitive environments. Corporate reputation like corporate image is about the way the public views a corporate. This is confirmed by Perez et al., (2013) who believe that corporate reputation shares connections with corporate image and all other information an individual has regarding the firm. A reputation is based on what the corporate does, that is good or bad. van Heerden (2013) explains that corporates, similar to human beings, might achieve a good or bad reputation. A good reputation takes time to build and can lead to trust, but one bad deed or can completely destroy the reputation of a corporate. Doorley and Garcia (2007) state that corporate reputation is built up, improved or dilapidated by a single action or spoken words.

Doorley and Garcia (2007) provide a financial approach to firm reputation by defining it as reputational capital. Corporate reputation, from consumers' perspective, has been defined by Park et al., (2014) as an outcome of the build-up of consumers' perception regarding how well their expectations and demands have been met by the firm. van Heerden (2013) suggests that corporate reputation summarises the firm's past actions and outcomes that describes the ability of the firm to deliver value to numerous stakeholders. What can be summed from these definitions is that corporate reputation is linked to the actions of a firm. Lewis (2003) provides six elements that affect how stakeholders perceive firm reputation, which are financial performance, product quality, employee handling, leadership, environmental responsibility and social responsibility. Dowling (2001) expands that corporate reputation exists in the firm's attributed values, which are in the form

of honesty, authenticity, integrity and responsibility. In contrast, a firm with poor corporate reputation cannot be trusted in its level of integrity, ability of firm operations, products or offers and communication (van Heerden 2013).

The Reputation Institute (2014) provides seven dimensions of perceptions by respondents on firm reputation; performance, workplace, products, leadership, citizenship, governance and innovation. Performance involves perceptions of firm financial performance and financial prospects. Workplace refers to perceptions of a firm's working environment and employee quality. Products involve the perceptions of prices and quality of products. Leadership are the perceptions of how well or good the firm is managed or governed. Citizenship involves opinions that a firm is socio-environmentally responsible and friendly. Governance is about whether the firm has orderly organisational system and culture. Innovation is about the perceptions that a firm has, entrepreneurial orientation and innovativeness. All these dimensions have to be considered by a corporate that wants to build a good reputation.

There are many advantages to having a good corporate reputation as shown by various scholars. Doorley and Garcia (2007) identified three main advantages of a positive corporate reputation and these are qualified people wanting to be employed, development of good supplier relationships and attracting good media attention. This means when a corporate has a good reputation, employees and the public want to associate with it, which is good for business. Dowling (2001) reveals that firms with positive reputation achieve operational and financial advantages more than those with unfavorable reputations. This view is shared by van Heerden (2013) who argues that at an operational level, a firm benefits from a good reputation through increased symbolic value, high quality perception or evaluation, higher consumer ratings, reduced perceived risk or functional risk, high level internal stakeholders morale, job satisfaction, ease acceptance with high credibility the firm's advertising or marketing efforts and reputation acts as a safety net in case of a crisis. van Heerden (2013) reasons that firms can increase prices without incurring reduced purchases and attain high profit based on the ability to retain consumers through confidence and satisfaction. It is important to understand that CSR achieves or promotes the totality of a company as a brand.

i) Using CSR to build corporate reputation

Firms do CSR mainly to create a more favourable public image or reputation and achieve more customer loyalty (Carroll & Buchholtz 2006). This means CSR plays an important role in corporate reputation building which has a direct influence on the bottom-line of a corporate. The view that

CSR is important for corporate reputation is also held by Park et al., (2014) who state that CSR in the form of philanthropy has great potential for positive corporate reputation than most CSR forms. CSR therefore enables construction and keeping of good corporate reputation, strengthening competitive advantage through specific social links or elements that differentiate a brand on market from the others (Hsu, 2012). CSR also boosts consumer confidence and satisfaction through product offerings and related advertisements influencing consumer purchase intentions (Varadarajan, 2010).

A survey done by PriceWaterHouseCoopers in 2002 regarding the main reasons firms engage in CSR revealed that respondents believe firms do CSR to improve their reputation, gain a competitive advantage, save costs, industry trends, as CEO/ board commitment and customer demands (van Heerden, 2013). These findings support the above presented views that CSR promotes good corporate reputation. According to the Kaelo Worldwide Media (2006) communities, more informed stakeholder groups and professional activists supports a firm's responsibility or answerability on their actions. The Excellence Theory suggests that firms have a better chance to be excellent even when the environment is unstable, that is ever-changing or unpredictable and firms come in to assist society (Grunig, Grunig & Dozier, 2006). The Excellence Theory proposes five prerequisites in attaining excellence, ethical and responsible reputation. Firstly, a firm has to be more participative rather than autocratic. Secondly, a firm has to open all communication channels in all directions. Thirdly, a firm should develop organic structures of operation rather than mechanical. Fourthly, a firm should present opportunities, fair and indiscriminatory treatment of both sexes or groups (minority, disadvantaged, disabled and majority). Fifthly, a firm should achieve and maintain a motivated and satisfied workforce.

Lee (2008) discusses that social responsibility is a role of municipalities and governments, and views it as drastically shifting in developing countries where these macro-social entities are impoverished resources-wise to powerful or profit-oriented firms. Lii and Lee (2012) believe that this gives firms an opportunity to build reputations through social responsiveness, sponsorships, CrM and philanthropy. Foley (2006) submits strategies that can be used by firms to improve their reputations which include clearly communicating firm values to stakeholders, aligning firm values to stakeholder values especially most powerful or relevant stakeholders, empowering employees and customers to become brand advocates, identifying how products or operations affects stakeholders, guiding firm efforts towards socio-environmental issues and active participation in the community.

ii) Corporate associations

Corporate associations are a collection of corporate elements that describe its reputation in the form of image, moods, beliefs, emotions, various forms of knowledge and evaluations consumers have on a firm (van Heerden, 2013). Perez et al., (2013) present three main categories of determining corporate associations which are social expectations, personality traits and various reasons people use as a basis of trust. Social expectations are most popular because they simply entail what the community look for in a firm behaviour. Personality traits look at important characteristics that relate to people, which community or people attribute to firms. There are many reasons that communities use to trust or distrust a firm normally premised on how consumers perceive firm honesty, reliability and benevolence (Berens & Van Riel, 2004). The corporate associations are important to include and use in CSR strategies for the society to like the firm.

iii) Brand social existence and citizenry

The Institute of Directors in Southern Africa (IoDSA) (2009) regards a registered firm or business enterprise as a corporate citizen and confirms that a firm should be a neighbour of choice. This means a firm that exists in a community has a social responsibility towards solving the challenges of the community and this can be done through CSR initiatives. Doorley and Garcia (2007) suggest that firms need to act responsibly in their communities by also taking up CSR initiatives, including considering community leaders' opinions on what they need the most from the corporate world. Carroll and Buchholtz (2006) advocate for firms' involvement in the societies and believe that firms have a mammoth stake in the societies they operate in, thus, they should play a pivotal role in developing the surrounding communities. This is because companies have the capacity to enhance themselves at the same time aiding societies. The concept of corporate citizenship emanates from the Utilitarian approach which supports the existence of firms in order to achieve joint objectives of profits and improving societies thus achieving the greatest good for the greatest number (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006). Many societies believe that a good neighbour is one who can be relied upon in good and bad times and a corporate as a neighbour is expected to fulfil the same social obligations of a neighbour – participating in solving social challenges. The existence of firms in societies is seen as a way of enhancing the social fabric of the community and that without a cast of doubt firms have a public responsibility (Kotler & Keller, 2015). In the light of this, van Heerden (2013) suggests that corporates should support and be serious about participating in social development programs for the betterment of the society and they should balance between the corporate's need for profit and human needs. Cole (2008) submits that transnational firms incorporate CSR in countries where

they operate; believing that CSR is an invaluable aspect in guiding consumer perceptions, particularly the view that a transnational firm is a responsible citizen in that country.

Society perceives a firm as a good fellow or citizen in line with how a firm uses its resources and brand power in the community (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). This is because peoples' response to products or brands is established on the assumptions, views or perceptions of the company or brand (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). van Heerden (2013) believes that as consumers are exposed to a brand, their perception of the brand increases with the amount of exposure governed by cognitive, affectionate, personal and other factors. Organisation-wide brand citizenship attitudes or conduct in workforce therefore positively correlates with customer satisfaction, trust and confidence (van Heerden 2013). A firm should achieve brand citizenship through ethical values embedded in the brand that manifest in the realm of corporate governance (professional practices and systems), staff commitment or helpfulness, relevance and legitimacy of the brand to the community (Kang & Hustvedt, 2013). Unlike other CSR forms, brand citizenship encompass the totality of the firm while for example, a CSR form such as cause-related marketing means taking on of a cause or charity (Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). Kang and Hustvedt (2013) in a brand citizenship model commended three essential elements to develop a trusted brand and these elements are communication, transparency and positive citizenship perceptions. According to van Heerden (2013) positive citizenship perceptions culminate in consumer brand trust.

iv) Brand trust

van Heerden (2013) defines brand trust as a measure of confidence that consumers have in the ability of a brand. Delgado-Ballester, Munuera-Aleman and Yague-Guillen (2003) extend that brand trust is a consumer security feeling when interacting with a brand or company based on a perception of reliability or responsibility for consumer interest and welfare. Brand trust emanates from different variables which include consistency in delivery of good quality products, service provided by the employees of the company and good reputation, among others.

Chang et al. (2012) explains that consumers trust a brand more when workers in the firm, due to a positive attitude, are willing to help in matters that are indirect to their job description. A strong and trusted brand emanates from employee attitude, friendliness, helpfulness and empathetic orientation towards people. van Heerden (2013) asserts that brand trust and citizenship is anchored on issues that include brand enthusiasm, brand consideration, brand sportsman, brand self-development, brand endorsement and brand advancement. Brand oriented human resources management enhances employee brand psychological ownership, where positive employee brand

psychological ownership positively correlates with employee work satisfaction, brand citizenship behaviour, customer satisfaction, confidence and trust (Chang et al., 2012).

Brand trust also encompasses consumer intentions in accepting a product in situations of risk (Kang & Hustvedt 2013). Tustin and De Jongh (2008) summarise brand trust as constituting brand reliability (confidence in the brand ability) and brand intentions (confidence that behavior of the brand is motivated by good intentions). According to Crosby and Johnson (2006) brand trust builds onto brand citizenship, while brand citizenship increases firm reputation, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and sales. Crosby and Johnson (2006) further assert that customers tend to be emotionally connected to brands and this relationship can be better developed using CSR. Chang et al., (2012) contend that for a firm to achieve strong brand citizenship, both employees and consumers should experience brand psychological ownership. Human resources management in a firm should incorporate employees into brand building enhancing psychological brand ownership and brand citizenship behaviour through strategy and communication.

2.13.2 Consumer attitude

The current study views consumer attitude as a dependent element against CSR communication or awareness. Fullerton (2005) opines that attitude has been widely used to understand consumer behaviour, maybe because attitude enables scholars to comprehend affective and behavioural relationships that consumers have with brands. According to Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2002), the true drivers of consumer behaviour include consumer attitude towards a brand, resulting into purchase intention, actual purchase, retention and positive word-of-mouth. Heidinger (2012) defines an attitude as a developed system of feeling or thinking about an object which can be related to a thing, action, event or condition. Planned and actual behaviour is a result of attitudes that consumers have about an object (Ajzen, 1991). Summarising the Sherif and Hovland's Social Judgement Theory (SJT) (1961), Dainton and Zelle (2011) argue that the degree with which one's attitude predict ultimate action is dependant on the power of the attitude and personal evaluation of that attitude. Notably, not all attitudes matter.

According to the Sherif and Hovland's Social Judgement Theory (SJT) (1961), consumer attitudes can be allocated to latitude of acceptance, rejection and non-commitment. In most marketing communications, for example, and the product behind a certain CSR communication, the latitude of rejection and the latitude of acceptance are determinants of consumer purchase decision. Heidinger

(2012) notes that the SJT (1961) takes cogniscance of pre-existing attitudes as a factor precluding current judgement and preference of CSR by a consumer, so, there is need to consider consumer attitude before CSR and message creation. CSR and CSR messages that fall within consumers' latitude of acceptance creates a positive attitude while those falling in the lattitude of rejection and non-commitment achieve negative attitude.

a) Consumer attitudes towards CSR messages and message features

Consumers develop positive attitudes when evaluating CSR message features that falls in the range of their latitude of acceptance. As such, the target of any brand engaging in and communicating CSR should be to have features in CSR and CSR communication that fall within consumers' latitude of acceptance (Fullerton, 2005). Heidinger (2012) suggests two forms of attitudes that can cause a CSR message feature to fall in either latitude of acceptance or latitude of rejection, which are credibility and skepticism. When a message is credible, it builds trust and when consumers are sceptical of the message, the trust is broken. Consumers hold a CSR message as more credible when the brand or firm behind the CSR has minimal control over CSR message.

Credibility as a feature on a message, is achieved when message content is accurate, believable, unbiased, trustworthy and complete (Flanagin & Metzger, 2007). Du et al., (2010) stress that trustworthiness or consumer perception of the trustworthiness of a message has been severally mentioned as critical in the credibility of a CSR message. Online consumers deduce credibility of CSR messages using features such as topic/ content, arguments credibility, information or data or examples support, internal consistency/ validity, repetition/ familiarity, framing (loss or gain) and ordering (Wathen & Burkell, 2002). Internet-based CSR messages tend to face more hurdles in achieving credibility because the content, for example web-based information is prone to alterations in favor of and by the firm behind CSR (Flanagin & Metzger, 2007). Skepticism in contrast emanates from consumer doubts about firm motives or challenges in believing the claims being made (Bousch, Friedstad & Rose, 1994). CSR message content, cognitive evaluation and context evaluation lead to the development of skepticism towards a CSR message. Aspects that leads to skeptism, such as a CSR message on a web as highlighted earlier, should be avoided because they lead to resistance towards the message and negative attitudes (Kim & Lee, 2009). According to Pirsch et al., (2007) when a firm honestly explains its CSR intentions and it sets up a long-term comprehensive or holistic CSR strategy, it stands to reduce consumer skepticism.

b) Consumer attitudes towards CSR messages

Heidinger (2012) suggests a causal association between consumer attitudes and consumer responses (brand advocacy, purchase intention, purchase behaviour and recommending). That is, the assumption is that the attitude a consumer has towards a corporate influences his/her purchase intention and buying behaviour. Heidinger (2012) identifies at least four explicit attitudes (identification, commitment, loyalty and trust) against CSR message features. Identification is described as when there is a coherence of company values and consumer values, the consumer is willing to identify with the company (Ahearne, Bhattacharya & Gruen, 2010). On the same note, Kim, Han and Park (2001) believe that when brand characteristics overlap consumer values or beliefs, there is creation of strong consumer-brand identification with that brand than any other brand. Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002) claim that consumer-brand or company identification occurs at cognitive level and also based on previous consumer involvements with the brand or company. Corporates engaging in CSR present an opportunity for customer to identify with the firm or its brands. CSR communication plays a key role of informing consumers on firm CSR activities, values and motives (Sen, Bhattacharya & Korschun, 2006). Kim et al. (2001) deduces that positive brand or company identification directly improves word-of-mouth advocacy and indirectly improves consumer loyalty.

Commitment is described as a pledge, vow or promise forming a fundamental aspect which bonds consumers to a brand or company (Fullerton, 2005). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2002) explain that commitment is a positive attitude engrossed with consumer constant emotions or willingness to stay in connection with a company or brand. The Morgan and Hunt (1994) Commitment-Trust Theory of Relationship Marketing proclaims a strong positive connection between brand identification, trust, commitment and loyalty (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). According to Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB, 1991) (Ajzen, 1991), there is commitment based on cognitive and affective phases. Cognitive phases are based on logical thoughts such as perception of a brand based on price, while affective phases are based on irrational thoughts such as emotions and moods (Lee, Shin, Park & Kwon, 2010). It is at this level that a clear and distinct position is taken whether a consumer favors or does not favor a brand or company (Heidinger, 2012).

Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2002) argue that consumer trust is probably the fundamental reason consumers stay long with a brand or company. Trust is faith, belief, hope and conviction that does not only bring loyalty (Perrini et al., 2010; Singh et al., 2012) but fosters repeat purchase (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). According to Delgado-Ballester et al., (2003) there is motivational trust (based

on irrational not allocatable sense of trust) and technical trust (based upon facts about the brand). Morgan and Hunt (1994) stress that the existing mediators to trust are shared values (leading to identification) and communication (which brings awareness and has to be truthful). Trust is a fundamental preliminary factor for products that need to be believed before using them, while on products like cosmetics which promise to make the skin finer, trust occurs after product consumption.

Loyalty in turn is considered as high devotion or allegiance. Consumers who experience an elaborated evaluation (manifest satisfaction and they can go into detailed explanation) demonstrate commitment and loyalty against those who superficially measure their level or extent of satisfaction (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995). Satisfaction thus leading to loyalty results from consumer evaluation of brand performance, as the brand is considered meeting or exceeding expectations during or after consumption (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Solomon et al., 2013). Customers believing that no other brand exists to satisfy them will become more committed than those consumers who feel satisfied only because the chosen brand meets its purpose. Raithel et al., (2012) uphold that satisfaction achieves positive consumer responses ranging from retention, loyalty, price tolerance, cross-buying activity, word-of-mouth, recommending to reducing possible unfavourable consumer responses, action and attitude.

2.13.3 Purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour

In a bid to unearth purchase intention, the study will explain the consumer decision making process first. The consumer decision making process reveals what a consumer goes through in deciding to acquire and use a product (Hanekom, 2013). The consumer decision making process implicitly embraces in it the concept of buying intention.

a) Consumer decision making process and purchase intention

Babin and Harris (2011) assert that in every culture, custom and ritual, there is an inherent element of consumption that produces value for individuals. Societal values (implied through norms) and governments (expressly through laws) have directly and indirectly regulated how consumers buy and consume products (consumer behaviour) (van Heerden, 2013). According to Babin and Harris (2011), in a free society the behaviour of consumers in purchasing and consuming products is a part of contribution to public policy. van Heerden (2013) suggests that the act of buying is an element that exist in the stages of consumer decision making process. The consumer decision making process

involves the element of consumption which occurs after the product has been bought (Solomon et al. 2013). Consumers follow a post-purchase evaluation and behaviour after the consumption stage, which is a critical determinant of future purchase or non-purchase intentions or behaviour (Hantula & Wells, 2013). Babin and Harris (2011) believe that, using the human thought and action view, the consumer decision making process is referred to as actions, reactions and consequences that occur in consumers on acquiring and using products. The buying act is a component of the consumption process, in most cases the act is preceded by the intention to buy. The consumer decision making process therefore encompasses problem or need identification, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase, consumption and post-consumption behaviour as illustrated on Figure 2.10 below.

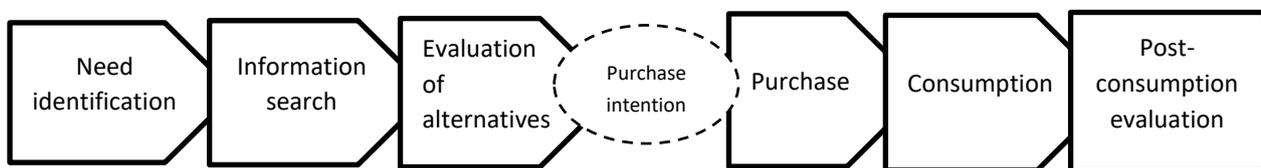


FIGURE 2.10: CONSUMER DECISION MAKING PROCESS

Source - Solomon et al., (2013): Consumer Behaviour: Buying, Having, Being

Purchase intention is the silent but critical component in the consumer decision making process existing between evaluation of alternatives and actual purchase. Basically, purchase intention can be considered as the ultimate component to guarantee final purchase or no purchase, though some authors argue against that assumption. Tustin and De Jongh (2008) studied the consumer buying process in South Africa and found that some consumers have positive ethical purchase intention but this does not materialise to actual or real buying. The reasons consumers expressed as influencing them to purchase or not purchase included product price, convenience, quality and status. With regard to the connection between CSR and the buying process, van Heerden (2013) believes that consumers have been bombarded with so much CSR information and communication to the extent that CSR has become complex, beyond the scope of consumer expectations and grasp, causing consumers to become reluctant to weigh or value CSR. The current study aims to understand how consumer intentions develop from both CSR activities and CSR communications, and then how these intentions convert to actual purchase.

b) Consumer buying behaviour and purchase intentions

Babin and Harris (2011) discuss consumer behaviour as a formal field of study indicative of a formal understanding of consumers using the manner and reasons of consumption behaviour which provide a greenlight to consumer actions, reactions and consequences. Hantula and Wells (2013) elaborates that consumer behaviour is a scientific field of enquiry that comes from different academic and practical disciplines which includes economics, marketing, psychology, social psychology and anthropology. Consumer behaviour domain defines the acquiring, consuming, disposing of products, services, ideas and experiences by individuals or groups (Kotler and Keller 2015). van Heerden (2013) says that the scope of consumer behaviour covers aspects of searching, finding, receiving, inheriting, producing and purchasing products. Sahney (2012) believes that the consuming process includes those performances in collecting, cultivating, cleaning, formulating, serving, appraising, exhibiting, keeping, sharing, wearing, demolishing up to disposal doings including throwing away, giving, depleting or recycling. Campitelli and Gobet (2010) believe that there are exceptions to the general consumer behaviour process, especially when a consumer experiences emotional, behavioural or cognitive conflict in respect to a brand. van Heerden (2013) therefore suggests the need to carry out research in respect to non-linear consumer decision making progression to ascertain and explain the occurrence of a different consumer behaviour outcomes.

Many scholars have argued about an occurrence of actual buying as a result of the existence of positive purchase intentions towards a product (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002; Chen et al., 2015; Erdem & Swait, 2004; Rahim et al., 2011; Wongpich et al., 2016). Pirsch et al. (2007) state that there is a strong direct connection between CSR and consumer product or service reaction. This is confirmed by Lewis (2003) who did a study in 1998, 28 percent respondents regarded CSR as a crucial factor in forming buying intentions towards a product or service, then in the year 2000 study the percentage went up to 41 while in the year 2002 the percentage rose to 44. Kang and Hustvedt (2013) confirm that consumers are willing to be in support of a firm that carries out CSR initiatives. According to Groza et al., (2011) CSR has a positive impact on firstly word-of-mouth then follows consumption mannerism. Walker and Kent (2009) observed that numerous consumers in the developed world buy a product on the basis that the company or brand supports good causes. From this discussion, it is clear that the issue of consumer purchase intention can be complex, though it can be agreed that CSR has both an indirect and direct effect on the consumer's intention to purchase (van Heerden 2013). The CSR effect is therefore direct when a CSR initiative is in tandem with the consumer's CSR belief and the CSR effect becomes indirect when a buying intention has been generated by a firm CSR context.

Predicting how often and when consumers buy assists firms in production and delivery capacity planning. van Heerden (2013) in support of Arnould et al., (2004) categorises buying intention into various classes of buying decisions including basic buying decision, a brand purchase choice, a specific category choice, a distribution purchase choice, an initial buying choice, a repeated buying choice and a payment decision. Kotler and Armstrong (2010) allude to an occurrence in consumers of a sudden, persistent emotional drive to purchase immediately which is often powerful. This is referred to as impulse buying. Impulse purchase can be attributed to instantaneous connection of consumer's self-image (actual or desired) and perceived meaning of the product (Kotler & Keller 2015). van Heerden (2013) argues that research work should cover aspects of purchase timing and purchase frequency with which marketing efforts are aimed, in order to predict, influence and manage consumer buying behaviour. According to Galalae and Voicu (2013) understanding the timing by which a purchase occurs should include tackling the sequences of recurring buying events that will be happening over time.

Consumers' intention to buy and the purchase act is guided by semiotics, basically termed the science of meaning (Arnould et al., 2004). van Heerden (2013) says that semiotics forms the basis of consumer behaviour as consumers derive meanings of a product, firm behaviour and marketing communications. CSR as a firm behavioural component and CSR communication as a firm marketing communication activity conveys positive meaning to the society which achieves positive consumer intentions and behaviour (Arnould et al., 2004). van Heerden (2013) discusses three factors that influence consumer purchase intention and these are persuasion, value and customer satisfaction. These are discussed as below;

i) Persuasion

Pomering and Johnson (2009) define persuasion as the minimum favourableness of consumer cognitive reactions. Cognitive reactions are those message-interrelated thoughts that develop through explanations due to one's relation to the message content, prior knowledge or attitudes stored in memory. According to Babin and Harris (2011), the persuasion concept can be approached using different models and theories spanning from the Attitude Toward Object model (ATO), the Behavioural Influence theory, the Behavioural Intentions model, the Theory of reasoned action (TORA), the Theory of Planned Behaviour, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), the Dissonance theory, the Social Judgement theory and the Balance theory.

The Attitude toward object model (ATO)

This theory is based on the view that consumers develop attitudes and the attitudes are toward an object (Brosekhan & Velayutham, 2013). Babin and Harris (2011) discuss that three aspects needs to be handled so that there is an understanding of consumer attitudes and intention. Firstly, the customer's belief that a service, product or firm should be having certain characteristics (perception of characteristics). Secondly, the strength of the belief that the service, product or company really has the characteristics. Lastly, an evaluation by the consumer of the characteristics. When the three elements are combined they determine a consumer's attitude and purchase intention. In a bid to influence consumer attitudes and intentions, marketers have to affect consumers' convictions (perception of characteristics). van Heerden (2013) proposes that marketing activities such as CSR initiatives and CSR communications can be used by marketers to shape and influence consumer perception of a product or company's characteristics. Marketers utilise the theory in understanding that consumers develop attitudes towards objects and therefore the company or a brand can be crafted as favourable object.

The Behavioural intentions model and the Theory of reasoned action (TORA)

van Heerden (2013) states that the Behavioural intentions model and the Theory of reasoned action (TORA) are both unique from the Attitude towards the object model in at least three aspects. Firstly, the models sets too much importance on the consumer's intent to act in a certain way. Secondly, the theories believe considerations should be afforded to consumers' perception of acceptable behaviour in any specific context rather than simply looking at attitude only. Lastly, the theories have refined consumer attitudes and behaviour, to attitude related purchase behaviour than merely looking at attitude toward the object. Babin and Harris (2011) assert that a consumer's behaviour is therefore influenced by the consumer's intent to act in accordance, while the intent is as a result of attitude towards the behaviour. TORA is a model that tries to forecast behaviour where consumers are considerate and in charge of their behavaiour (Arnould et al., 2004). The TORA model strongly suggests that consumer intentions are fundamental in shaping consumer behaviour (Alsamydai et al., 2015). More so, consumer attitudes towards certain behaviour and the effect of other people's beliefs on that behavior influences consumer behaviour (Bray, 2008). The theory explains consumer behaviour as a result of desire and not habit, cravings, ritual or impulse. Marketers find TORA and the behavioural intentions model useful in the sense that they explain consumers' intentional and mindful choices which form the premises of the objectives of marketing communications.

The Behavioural influence theory

The theory explains that marketers' work to change the behaviour of consumers touching on the consumers' emotions and convictions (Fagerstrom, 2005). Babin and Harris (2011) believe that consumer emotions and convictions change through attitude thus resulting in alteration of consumer behaviour. Using the Schemas theory, Babin and Harris (2011) suggest a schema-based effect, which illustrates that schemas have an emotional and affective connotation which marketers should take advantage of, in order to create a favourable attitude towards a product or brand. Bray (2008) discusses an attitude-behaviour-consistency which is defined as the degree of association between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour. The degree of association can be strong or weak and certain issues can affect the strength of the relationship, such as customer involvement in the purchase process, situational factor impediments and attitude strength on a product. The higher the customer involvement in the purchase process and the higher the attitude strength on a product, the greater the predictive power on positive consumer attitude and consumer behaviour. Campitelli and Gobet (2010) discusses the behavioural influence theory's major weakness that behaviour cannot be predicted using attitude only. That is, in as much as marketers know that behaviour can be changed through attitude, marketers should seek for other variables that can be manipulated.

The Theory of planned behaviour

This theory is similar to the Prescriptive Cognitive Models that will be presented in Section 3.2.1 in Chapter 3. Basically, the Cognitive approach or the Theory of Planned Behaviour suggests that consumers are sure of and calculate rationally what they want based on principles (Arnould et al., 2004). Ajzen (1991) believes that the consumer is less affected by advertisements, sales people or buying on a whim. Marketers take advantage of the assumptions of the Theory of Planned Behaviour by educating, informing and inputting CSR, to encourage behavioural changes in consumers.

The Elaboration likelihood model (ELM)

The ELM is a modern model that explains the processes that occur in changing consumer attitudes and the strength of these attitudes (Brosekhan & Velayutham, 2013). According to Solomon et al., (2013) consumer attitudes and strength of attitudes can be changed through consumer level of involvement in acquiring the product, consumer ability and consumer motivation in construing relevant and available information. The ELM proposes the existence of an Elaboration Likelihood Continuum (ELC), either that persuasion follows a central route or peripheral route. The ELC is predicted on the extent of consumer motivation and consumer ability in finding and evaluating chief qualities or facts of the attitude object (the object can be a brand, person, advertisement or issue)

(Babin & Harris, 2011). According to Perera and Chaminda (2012), a consumer's reasoned action occurs when a consumer has high ability and motivation to assess central issues of products and therefore thoroughly scrutinises the object's relevant and available information. Highly capable to judge and highly motivated consumers test available information against the knowledge they possess. van Heerden (2013) thus adds that there is consumer high involvement when a consumer has been presented with information relevant to their circumstances, and the consumer heightens efforts to understand the content of the message. Arnould et al., (2004) refer to this as central cues that lead to the central route of persuasion causing an enduring attitude change. van Heerden (2013) asserts that peripheral route to persuasion occurs when a message does not have consumers' central relevant matters, thus, consumers have low motivation or ability to judge central issues of an object. Marketers need to comprehend that consumers differ in response to CSR in the developing countries from the developed countries, with the developed countries' consumers more well versed with CSR issues. The developing countries' consumers require marketers to strategise CSR in terms of the forms, up to the full communication to achieve consumer change in attitude.

The Social judgement theory

A consumer operates on two latitudes, a latitude of acceptance (zone of acceptance) and a latitude of rejection (zone of rejection) (Solomon et al., 2007). Marketing communication messages are adopted by consumers based on the current attitudes they hold against a product or company (Solomon et al., 2013). Foxall (2007) asserts that the current consumer attitudes become the premises or frames of reference to relate or judge newer information. When newer information falls closer to the existing frames, it gets accepted, while that information existing far or outside the existing frames is likely to be rejected (Babin & Harris, 2011). Marketers use well-known principles and strategies to catch the consumer while new innovative strategies need to be well explained in marketing communications (Smith, 2007). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) argue that consumers have well-being and socio-environmental principles or information embedded in them which are the bedrock for CSR fruition, which marketers need to take advantage of.

The Balance theory

Fritz Heider developed the balance theory on the premise that consumers always preserve a mental constancy in behaviour or actions (van Heerden, 2013). Babin and Harris (2011) explain this as a principle of consistency, that there is consistency with regards aspects of consumer principles, attitudes and behaviour. A consumer (observer), another person and an attitudinal object form a perceived alliance or relation which can be deemed negative or positive. Marketers strive to develop

a positive attitudinal object (product or marketing communication) that is perceived positively by their direct consumers and individuals who exists in the society (Arnould et al., 2004).

The Dissonance theory

Following on the balance theory, Arnould et al., (2004) acclaimed that the dissonance theory sets a consumer as one that acts in a manner that creates a balance between principles, attitudes and behaviour. The balance theory argues on consistency of principles, attitudes and behaviour while dissonance believes that a lack of balance drives consumers to act in congruence with beliefs (van Heerden, 2013). The balance theory mostly assumes a consumer is positively minded or principled while the dissonance theory believes that if a consumer is encouraged to do a certain task or act, they deliberately balance attitude and behaviour towards the act or task. The dissonance theory proposes that it is the imbalance that exists between beliefs or principles, attitudes and behaviours that encourages consumers to align these elements either in the negative or positive (Bray, 2008). It is a fact that firms that align their CSR initiatives and CSR communications to the consumer beliefs or values tend to attain positive consumer attitude and behaviour in the marketplace. Consumers seek to revise their beliefs and attitudes in line with their expected or intended behaviour to avoid disappointment since behaviour cannot be undone (Babin & Harris, 2011).

ii) Value, purchase intention and actual buying behaviour

Consumers will not develop an intention to purchase or at the same time will not buy as long as they do not recognise a benefit. Consumers perceive and evaluate CSR benefits on a product or firm as it relates to their personal interest in the form of values, morals and priorities. Solomon, et al., (2013) assert that value confers benefits that either buyers seek in acquiring a product or benefits that firms intend to deliver to the consumers through a product. Green and Peloza (2011) argue that consumers seek for three benefits (social, emotional and functional). Emotional value is referred to as the heartfelt glow that a buyer experiences in acquiring a product with an understanding that it will benefit in many respects, including the environment or charitable cause. Social value expresses the possibility that society will like an individual after purchasing a product or supporting a certain cause. Functional value can be considered as the real or performance benefits a buyer derives from the purchased product.

van Heerden (2013) postulate that CSR initiatives and CSR communication influences product value assessment. The more a firm tends to be responsible socially, the more buyers perceive high value and attain heightened satisfaction (Perez et al., 2013). Tustin and De Jongh (2008) identified a linear

relationship between perceived value and consumer attitude in that consumers develop a more positive attitude towards a brand they believe is delivering value. Luo and Bhattacharya (2009) proposed that consumers tend to say out positive aspects of a brand in relation to how much value they have experienced in using the brand. Babin and Harris (2011) say that a firm can survive by not achieving industry satisfactions, but will not survive by not offering some kind of value to the consumers. Marketers need to understand that consumer attitude is also dependent on some product value, of which CSR is a component in the total value box.

iii) Customer satisfaction, purchase intention and actual buying behaviour

van Heerden (2013) defines consumer satisfaction as a warm, affirmative emotional state occasioning from a positive evaluation of a product usage experience or result. Customer satisfaction is an aspect that occurs after consumption, that is, it is an outcome response unlike numerous other consumer behaviour aspects. Babin and Harris (2011) considers consumer satisfaction as an emotional result that occurs through a cognitive assessment process. van Heerden (2013) says that satisfaction is buyer evaluation of the extent of usage-related fulfilment which can be in the range of overfulfilment or underfulfilment. Satisfaction occurs when a product delivers exactly or more than what the consumer expected (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014). Perez et al., (2013) believe that consumer satisfaction contains a cognitive and an affective dimension meaning that when consumers attain satisfaction at the same time identifying with a firm or brand, they tend to have a loyal attitude. The extent of consumer-company identification predicts the level of satisfaction that can be derived by consumers, while satisfaction leads to loyalty (Arnould et al., 2004).

Arnould et al., (2004) believes that what a consumer deems a product to be or to deliver in many aspects and quality being the top in most cases, becomes a criteria to measure satisfaction level. Kim (2011) suggest that firms that go an extra mile doing more than what they are expected, in the forms of activities such as CSR, tend to attain consumer satisfaction evaluation benefits. Park et al., (2014) contented that buyers' willingness to pay high price is more for a firm or brand that is ethical as a reward for ethical behaviour. Consumer satisfaction has been considered important due to its potential on word-of-mouth, repeat purchase and loyalty which can be either positive or negative (Babin & Harris, 2011). With increased consumer satisfaction, new terminologies have developed with regards to buyers who possess strong beliefs and can share these product beliefs with others (van Heerden, 2013). Consumers can be termed brand advocates (those that defend a brand) or brand ambassadors (those that speaks and stands for the brand) (Kotler & Keller, 2015). The power of

consumers can be seen in the use of social media such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and Whatsapp among others, where consumers can make or break a firm or brand if they are not happy. Perez et al., (2013) concurs that consumers are willing to disburse product and experience information and would easily commend friends or relatives when they have experienced satisfaction with a product.

2.14 Empirical studies from other countries

This section provides insights into similar studies that have been carried out in other countries, looking at the relationship between CSR and consumer behaviour. It also provides the models that were developed and tested.

2.14.1 Antecedents of Consumer CSR Awareness - Company Perspective

Using a corporate perspective, Othman et al., (2013) believe that forces behind engaging in CSR activities and CSR communications emanate from the firm's market, human or competitive orientedness and improving company performance. Market Orientation entails that CSR activities and CSR awareness are driven or determined by customer needs and expectations (Othman, Perumal & Mstafa, 2013). The researcher aligns with this view that customers should be at the centre of CSR activities. Customer satisfaction is central in firms that are marketing oriented. Customers have commendable expectations on organisations and marketers have to be responsible socially and contribute to social activities (causes) (Rahim et al., 2011).

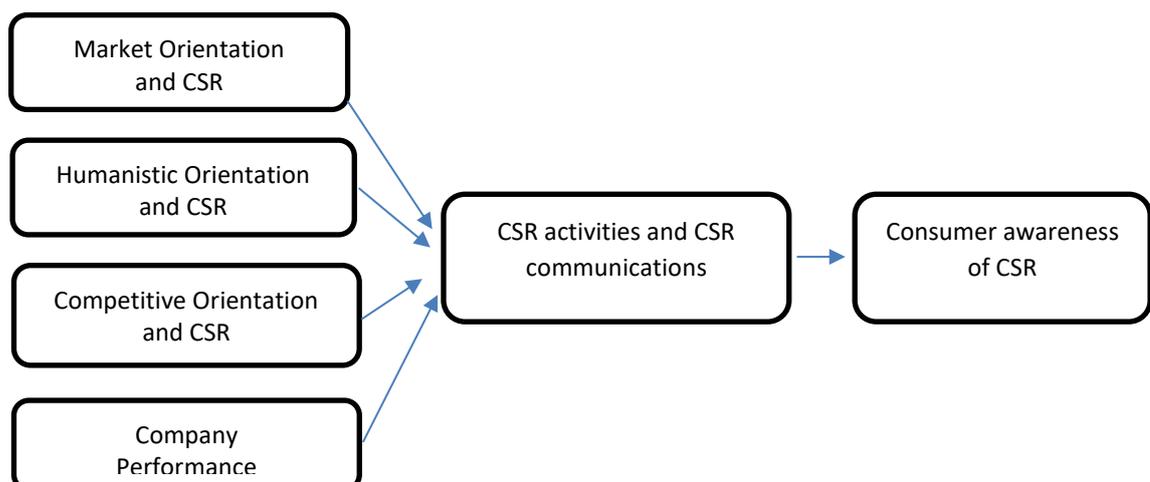


FIGURE 2.11: ANTECEDENTS OF CONSUMER CSR AWARENESS FROM COMPANY PERSPECTIVE

Source - Othman, Perumal and Mstafa (2013): Corporate Social Responsibility: Antecedents and Consequences Study of Malaysian Public Listed Companies.

Humanistic Orientation is a dimension in a firm's culture of considering and caring for others, starting from employees to the rest of the organisational stakeholders (Othman et al., 2013). Zimbabwe, the country under discussion is a Christian country with a strong Ubuntu foundation which makes it humanistic and collectivist in orientation. The humanistic approach believes that firms engage in society and environmental sustainability programs so that they enhance the standards of living (Eccles et al., 2012). The researcher will explore the views of the consumers on CSR initiatives they expect from the telecommunications companies in Zimbabwe.

Competitive Orientation demands that a firm focuses on winning and finding strategies to be more successful (Othman et al., 2013). CSR is therefore used as a part of tools that can enhance a firm's competitiveness in the marketplace (Asamoah, 2015). This study, which is consumer oriented does not strongly subscribe to this approach, as it may yield more of negatives towards the society.

Company performance is another important element in spearheading CSR by an organisation. Othman et al., (2013) agrees with various scholars that the link between corporate performance and CSR is still unclear, though firms engage in CSR with the hope of achieving or improving firm performances. Figure 2.11 shows that market orientation, humanistic orientation, competitive orientation and company performance are the drivers of CSR and CSR communication which is intended to change consumer behaviour through consumer CSR awareness.

In conducting CSR, marketers should be guided by market orientation, humanistic orientation, competitive orientation and company performance as inputs; then CSR communication should achieve commendable awareness in the consumers. The current researcher agrees with the model on the fact that the model incorporates market-orientation in CSR and CSR communication, meaning that the model acknowledges the need for consumer-oriented CSR. The major contribution of the model stems from the ideal that whatever CSR form done, consumers should be made aware of and consumer awareness of CSR is accomplished through CSR communications.

2.14.2 Antecedents and consequences of perceived CSR - Financial Holding Companies

According to Chen et al., (2016), firm perceived CSR engagement is determined by firm financial performance perceptions and firm ethical quality perceptions, while firm CSR engagement achieves

or affects consumer satisfaction, perceived corporate reputation and perceived risk. The last three ultimately lead to customer loyalty as shown in Figure 2.12 below.

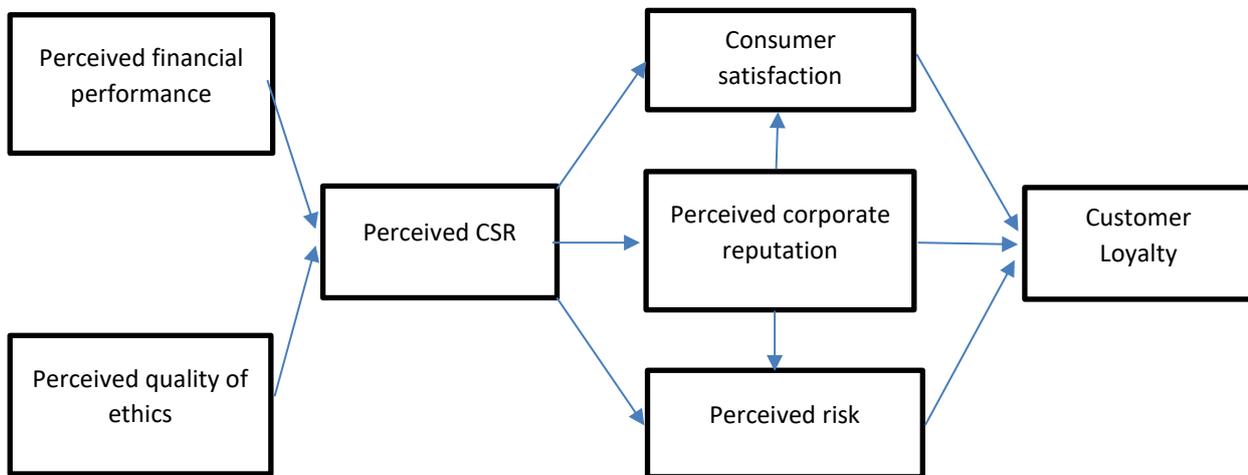


FIGURE 2.12: ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF PERCEIVED CSR ON FINANCIAL HOLDING COMPANIES

Source – Chen, Chen and Hsiao (2016): Antecedents and Consequences of Perceived Social Responsibility on Financial Holding Companies – Finance Students’ Perceptions.

Perceived financial performance in the form of economic profits enables a firm to engage in CSR, as an indicator of slack or extra resources from the firm extended to the society’s benefit (Kanji & Agrawal, 2016). This approach is not beneficial to the consumers because CSR is carried out for the reasons of spending money and not for the benefit of the consumers. The researcher advocates for a consumer-oriented CSR approach. Additionally, perceived quality of ethics creates a positive image of a firm through ethical codes that guide firm responsible behavior (Valentine & Fleischman, 2007). The major contribution of the model which supports the current study is the appreciation that when consumers perceive CSR, it results in consumer-based outcomes such as satisfaction, improved corporate reputation, low firm or product risk perception and ultimately loyalty.

2.14.3 Antecedents and Outcomes of CSR Strategies – Three Empirical Studies in China

Fan (2017) suggests that CSR (strategic and altruistic) is driven by both instrumental and moral motivation (while moral motivation is moderated by legitimacy concerns). Instrumental and moral motivation precedes firm reputation in light of consumers as shown in the Figure 2.13 below.

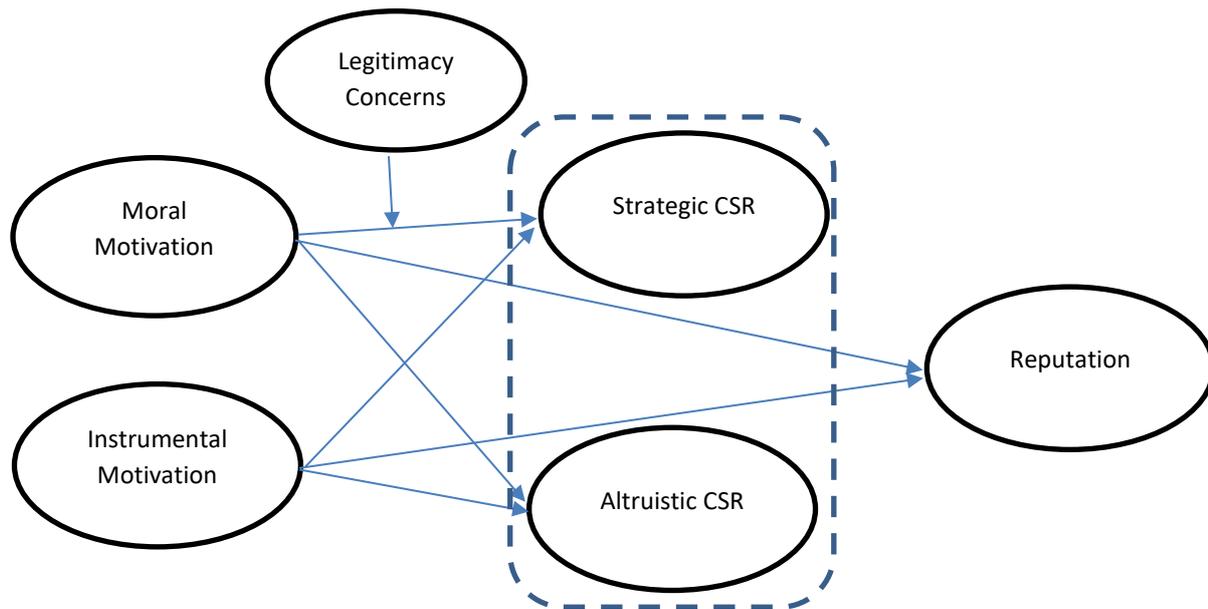


FIGURE 2.13: ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF CSR STRATEGIES (THREE EMPIRICAL STUDIES IN CHINA)

Source – Fan (2017): Antecedents and Outcomes of CSR Strategies – Three Empirical Studies in China.

Moral motivation leading to CSR encompasses those drivers or forces in management that encourage more ethical or human activities exercised by a firm (Isaacs-Morell, 2013). Fan (2017) believes that instrumental motivation CSR is adopted as a tool for market advantages. Firm engagement in CSR on the basis of moral motivation falls in the parameters of society legitimacy concerns. Moral and instrumental motivations to CSR both achieve firm reputation or consumer evaluation of the firm behaviour or activities, therefore the firm has to appeal to consumer dynamics in developing and communicating CSR (consumer-oriented CSR). The model supports the current study by recognising that CSR exists where there are consumer or society based factors that guide firms to practise and communicate CSR and attain aspects that are outcomes of CSR.

2.14.4 Antecedents of CSR for Extractive Industries in the governance systems in Africa

Marfo et al., (2016) contend that firms engage in CSR based on integrative, political, instrumental and ethical biases, as presented in the diagram below.

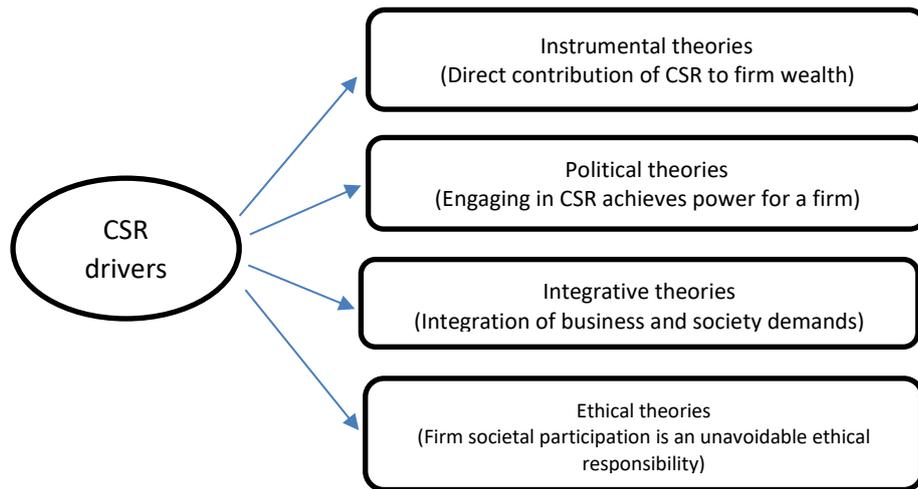


FIGURE 2.14: ANTECEDENTS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (EXTRACTIVE INDUSTRIES IN THE GOVERNANCE SYSTEMS IN AFRICA)

Source - Marfo, Chen and Hu (2016): The Antecedents of Corporate Social Responsibility for Extractive industries in the governance systems in Africa.

Instrumental theories believe CSR is a component to be adopted by management, as a mechanism to enable the firm to achieve wealth (Paine, 2003; Saeidia et al., 2015). The view propagates the impression that CSR is utilised by firms to achieve competitive stamina (Barnett & Salomon, 2012; Margolis et al., 2007).

Political theories argue that firms adopt CSR in order to achieve political power or influence in the society in which the firm operates (Marfo et al., 2016). Marfo et al., (2016) believes that a firm does not only try to achieve this power among individuals, but also in various institutions and policy makers. According to Brammer et al., (2012), integrative models look at the idea that there exists a mutual exchange between societies and businesses, that is, businesses get something from society and therefore society should get something from businesses. Thus, business demands must be integrated with societal demands for a mutually beneficial relationship (Buchholz & Rosenthal, 2005; Schwartz & Carroll, 2008). In most capitalist societies, the adoption of CSR by firms is as a result of trying to meet societal demands and be viewed as a good corporate citizen.

Ethical theories are a category of drivers to CSR that aim to see organisations following ethical values and systems. An organisation observes social participation as an unavoidable natural inherent exercise, whether the organisation benefits or does not benefit from the society (Deng, 2012). Thornton (2012) argues that a firm is evaluated using ethical behaviors in managing both itself and handling the society. The researcher agrees with the proposal of the model that marketers must acknowledge that doing CSR is a natural ethical obligation of firms (consumer-based CSR) which

should attain favourable consumer behaviour in the market place. Similar to the Antecedents and Outcomes of CSR Strategies – Three Empirical Studies in China, the major contribution of the model to the current study is that CSR is not an unmotivated expense but is driven by different aims.

2.14.5 Model of CSR initiatives, attitudes and behavioural intentions

To date, the CSR domain has no real and agreed definition, nevertheless many scholars have adopted Carroll’s pyramid model of definition and concepts (Carroll, 1979; 1991; Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006). Porter and Kramer (2006) are of the view that corporates are converging environmental, social and economic responsibilities to develop calculated societal value, making plans that lead to corporate and socio-environmental sustainability. Lii et al., (2013) talk about CSR existing in three forms which include sponsorship, CrM (Cause-related Marketing) and philanthropy. Among these aspects, sponsorship has the capacity to develop sustainable marketing, good reputation, positive attitudes towards brands, enhanced perceptions and buying intentions (Lachowetz et al., 2002; Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Lii et al., 2013) as shown in the diagram below.

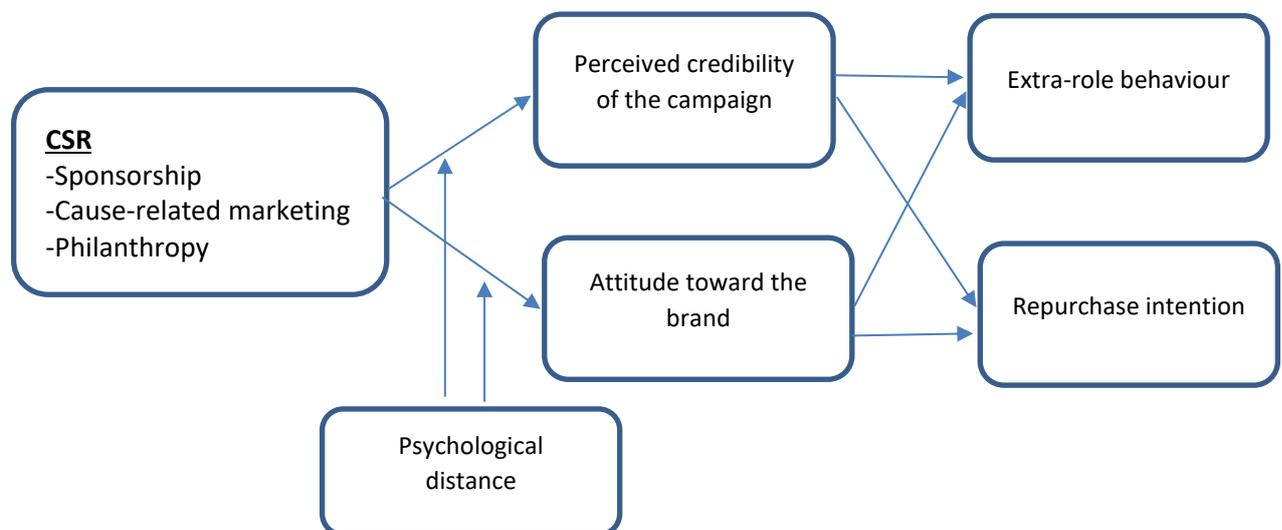


FIGURE 2.15: CSR INITIATIVES, ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

Source – Lii et al., (2013): Model of CSR initiatives, attitudes and behavioral intentions

The CSR initiatives, attitudes and behavioural intentions model presents CSR in the form of philanthropy, cause-related marketing and sponsorship. These CSR forms influence the consumers’ perceptions of the credibility of a firm and attitude towards corporate brands, leading to consumers’ extra-roles of behaviour and possible buying intention (Lii et al., 2013). According to Lii et al.,

(2013) there is a psychological distance that affects both perception and attitude towards corporate CSR initiatives. Four aspects of psychological distance were discussed in Lii et al.,’s (2013) model of CSR initiatives, attitudes and behavioural intentions, which are hypothetical distance, social distance, spatial distance and temporal distance. Temporal distance is the actual distance between a point of reference e.g. today, and time of happening of an event under consideration e.g. tomorrow or a year after. Spatial distance is actual distance between a reference location e.g. place where observer lives, and the location where the event occurred or will occur, e.g. whether the place is closer or far. Social distance which is the perception that one holds against the event, whether the person or firm endorsing is similar or dissimilar to the observer. Hypothetical distance is the measure of the chances that the event is highly likely against unlikely to happen.

According to Liviatan, Trope and Liberman (2008), there are judgements that occur about whether a consumer shares certain values with the company and these judgements either make the consumer to be closer (when values are similar) or pushes the consumer away (when values are dissimilar). A consumer who believes in generosity will favour a corporate exercising philanthropic or sponsorship activities more . Anderson, Fornell and Mazvancheryl (2004) believe that when a consumer is involved in indirect or explicitly expected or rewarded discretionary or voluntary activities (making product suggestions, buying additional services, recommending others or engaging in any form of positive word-of-mouth) they are doing consumer extra-role behavior. Consumer extra-role is viewed as one of the results of positive consumer perception and attitude towards CSR.

The researcher urges marketers that they must understand that sustainable marketing measures purchase intention that results from consumer perception and attitude, which is influenced by CSR. The model presents CSR affecting consumer perception of CSR campaigns, consumer attitude, consumer extra-role behaviour and repurchase intentions and these variables are important to the current study.

2.14.6 CSR Path Analysis

Wu et al., (2016) propose that CSR directly and indirectly produces positive purchase intentions through positively influencing brand attitude and brand image as shown in the diagram below.

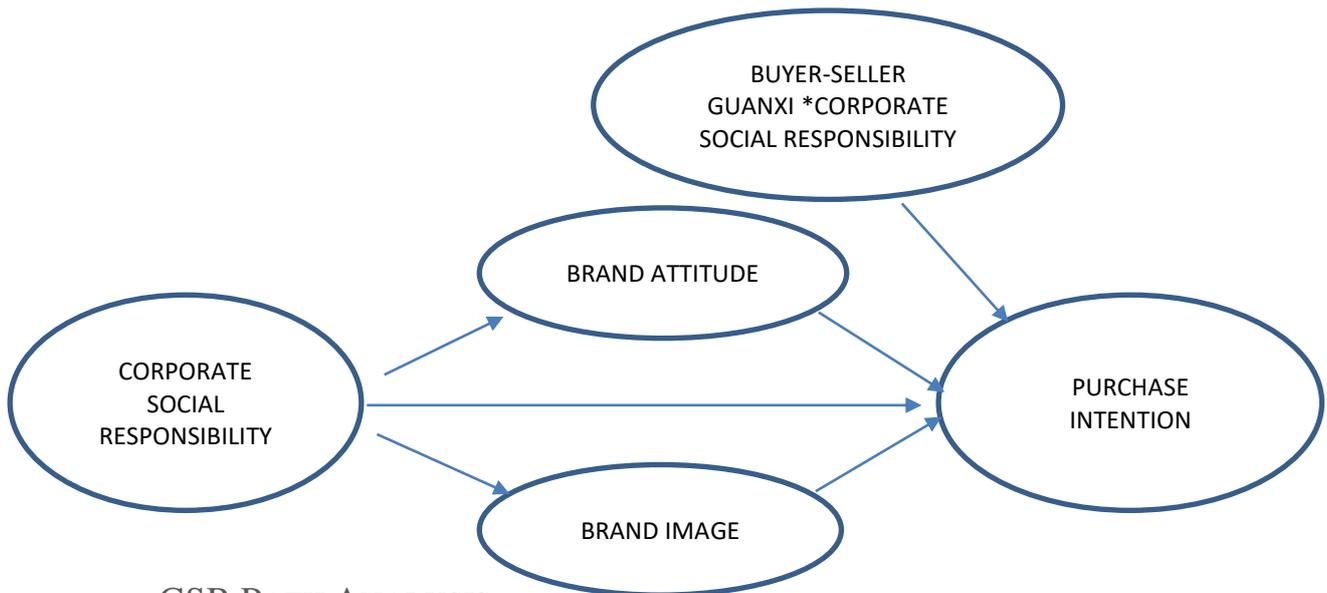


FIGURE 2.16: CSR PATH ANALYSIS

Source – Wu et al., (2016): Path Analysis - Would Corporate Social Responsibility Affect Consumers' Attitudes Towards Brand and Purchase Behaviour? Buyer-Seller Guanxi as the Moderator.

The study indicates that CSR will achieve notable positive intentions after sprucing up buyer attitude on a brand and improving the image that consumers have on a brand. Wu et al., (2016) recognises the importance of social relations through what the Chinese consider as the Buyer-Seller Guanxi. The Buyer-Seller Guanxi is a system of social networks and relations that influences purchase intention. Success of business and its extra activities is based on relations that are informal such as friendship, relative, peer, colleague, social recognition, social acceptance and social belonging as shown in the Figure 2.16 above.

The researcher recommends marketers to consider societal values and relationships that a corporate can build with the society. These relationships are far more important than efforts of changing brand image and attitude, for they directly and independently enhance purchase intention in the face of changing brand image and attitude. Marketing resources and efforts are wasted if basic relationships are misaligned. The model provides support to the current study by identifying that CSR impacts attitude, image and purchase intention.

2.14.7 CSR, Consumer-Company Identification, Brand Prestige and Purchase Intention

Similar to Wu et al., (2016), Chen et al., (2015) presents a model which explains how CSR affects consumer purchase intention directly and indirectly. That is, CSR influences consumer purchase

intention through the brand prestige and consumer-company identity factors as shown in the diagram below.

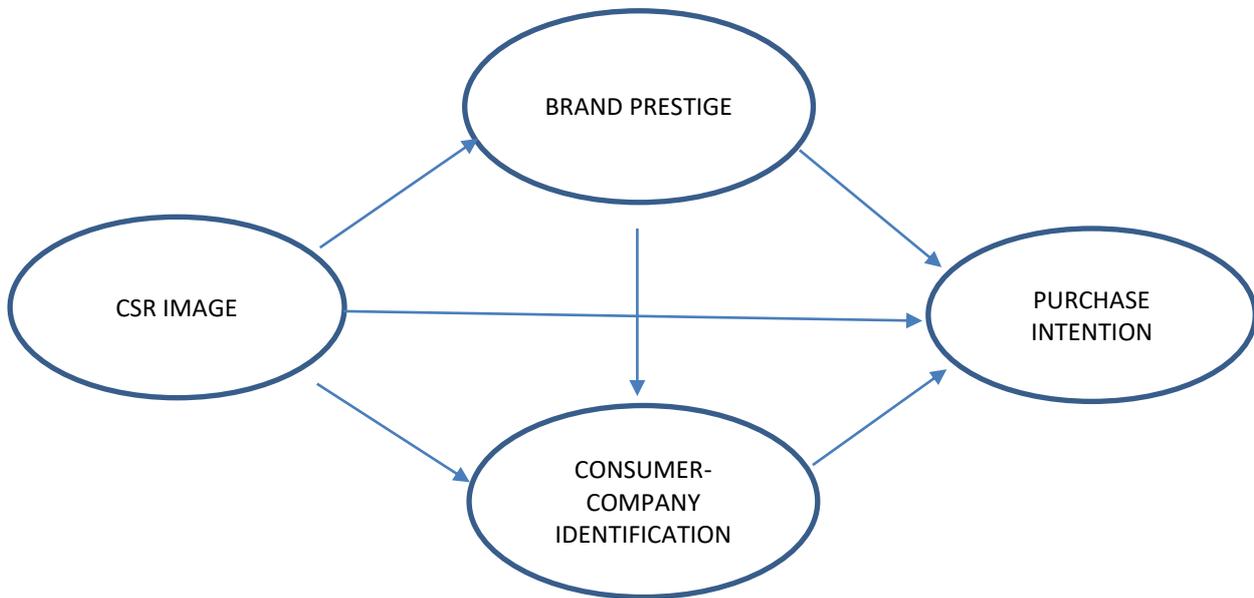


FIGURE 2.17: CSR, CONSUMER-COMPANY IDENTIFICATION, BRAND PRESTIGE AND PURCHASE INTENTION

Source – Chen et al., (2015): The relationship among Corporate Social Responsibility, Consumer-Company Identification, Brand Prestige, and Purchase Intention

Figure 2.17 above illustrates the explained relationship between CSR image, brand prestige, consumer-company identity and purchase intention. The model encourages marketers to look at purchase intention as influenced by an interlink and/ or individual impact of CSR image, brand prestige and consumer-company identity. According to Chen et al., (2015), CSR initially spruces the brand image or consumer company identity and these factors influence purchase behaviour as shown in the diagram above. Chen et al., (2015) adds that when brand prestige has been influenced by CSR, it also influences how consumers identify with the company (consumer-company identity) leading to purchase intention. Chen et al., (2015) thus advocates CSR as CSR image, meaning the impression that CSR activities have on consumers. Once consumers possess a favourable CSR image, the firm stands to accrue benefits from its CSR efforts unlike when consumers hold to contempt or suspicion CSR activities. The researcher agrees with the theory as a starting point for consumer behaviour change, through purchase intention. The model provides support to the current study by also identifying that CSR impacts brand prestige, consumer-company identity and purchase intention.

2.14.8 Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport

Walker and Kent (2009) provide a more illustrative model that relates CSR to firm reputation and customer intention to purchase. Since the model was developed in the sporting industry, it presents unique ideas of the sporting persons and the youth at large. According to Walker and Kent (2009), ideal CSR in the sporting sector involves philanthropy, community involvement, youth health and education, though philanthropy takes the lead. The researcher agrees with the model in that, in the sporting industry youth education and health are pivotal and the rest of the community is engaged or involved through massive philanthropic activities that are done by corporates to sponsor sporting events. Figure 2.18 portrays the relationships and influences of variables associated with CSR in sports.

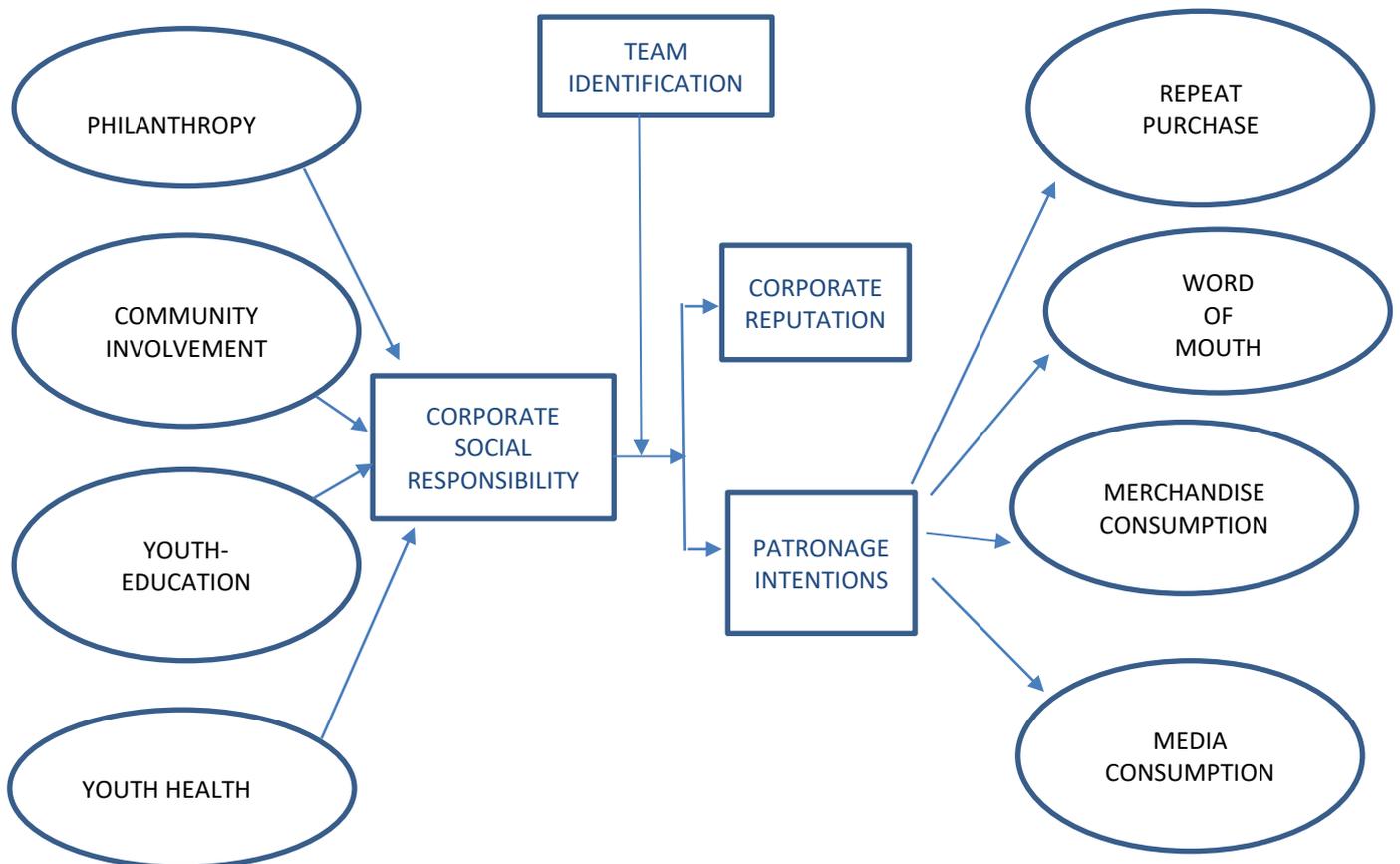


FIGURE 2.18: CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN SPORT

Source - Walker and Kent (2009): Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport

The mobile telecommunications in Zimbabwe has also engaged in various sporting sponsorship activities while using this as a platform for community involvement, youth health and education. CSR positively impacts firm reputation and buying intentions. Patronage intentions mean the intention to simply visit or identify with a firm and the intention to purchase too. Patronage

intentions are expressed by Walker and Kent (2009) as continued buying, referral, product usage which are the hallmark achievement of marketing activities. Team identification is expressed as a factor that influences firm reputation and buying intention in the face of CSR activities. Team identification explains how the consumer relates with the team in context, if the consumer relates well then firm reputation and buying intentions improve to the positive side. The model is of value to the current study because it identifies CSR parameters and consumer-society based outcomes.

2.15 Synthesis of literature

A research model was developed in Chapter Four to aid the current study and to underscore the nature of relationships that exist between the current study's constructs and variables. The study's research model borrowed constructs and variables from the underlying theoretical frameworks in Chapter Three and then behaviour of constructs and variables are addressed in the empirical evidence. The main constructs and variables borrowed include CSR awareness, corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour (as shown in the research model denoted by H6, H7, H8 and H9). The research model anticipates that CSR awareness influences corporate image (Chen et al., 2015; Chun, Yu, Choi & Shin, 2015; Lachowetz et al., 2002; Walker & Kent, 2009; Wu et al., 2016), consumer attitude (Chen et al., 2015; Heidinger, 2012; Lachowetz et al., 2002; Lii et al., 2013; Nanda, 2015; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011; Wu et al., 2016), purchase intention (Ali, 2001; Chen et al., 2015; Creyer & Ross, 1997; Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Lee & Lee, 2015; Lee & Shin, 2010; Lii et al., 2013; Walker & Kent, 2009; Wu et al., 2016) and actual purchase behaviour (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Chen et al., 2015; Johnson, Grey & Donald, 2002; Lii et al., 2013; Walker & Kent, 2009; Shafiq et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2016).

The research model further anticipates a relationship between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour as shown in the research model represented by H10, H11 and H12. The nature of relationships between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour is explained as corporate image affects consumer attitude (Lachowetz et al., 2002; Lii et al., 2013; Walker & Kent, 2009; Wu et al., 2016), consumer attitude influence purchase intention (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Heidinger, 2012; Nanda, 2015; Wu, Tsai & Tai, 2016), and purchase intention leads to actual purchase behaviour (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Lii et al., 2013; Tseng & Chen, 2008; Walker & Kent, 2009).

Literature does not provide sufficient evidence on the relationship that exists between ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness, consumer generosity culture, demographics and CSR awareness shown in the research model as H1, H2, H3, H4, H5a, H5b and H5c. The researcher suggest that there is a connection between CSR awareness and ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness, consumer generosity culture and demographics. The nature of connection between ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness, consumer generosity culture, demographics and CSR awareness is explained as ethical consumerism influences CSR awareness (Cole, 2017; Deng, 2012; Thornton, 2012; Davies et al., 2012), consumer rights awareness affects consumer CSR awareness (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012; Bello et al., 2012; 2016), socio-environmental awareness affects CSR awareness (Butcher & Xu, 2014; Chan, 2014; Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015; Oleszko-Kurzyna, 2014; Pematzoglu et al., 2014). consumer generosity culture heightens CSR awareness (Jin & Woo, 2016; Karaosman et al., 2016; Kotler & Lee, 2005), and demographic characteristics influence CSR awareness (Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015; Bello et al., 2016; Keller & Kotler, 2015; Schmeltz, 2012).

2.16 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed literature on the antecedents and consequences of CSR awareness, paying particular attention to the following variables; ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity as antecedents and corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase as consequences. The chapter defined what CSR is and linked it to other business variables. In the study, CSR was defined as obligations that span across economics, ethics, legal or philanthropic tasks that a firm performs towards the society and the study adopted a consumer-oriented CSR approach. Consumer-based CSR places the consumers at the centre of CSR activities and places a great responsibility on corporates to consult with consumers before they initiate CSR activities. In the chapter, the importance of understanding consumer behaviour was stressed as it demonstrates the development of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. Consumer behaviour thus was addressed from the level of consumer attitude, self-values, perceived motives, consumer-company identity, purchase intentions, actual purchase, re-purchase intention, loyalty, recommending and advocacy. The dire quest to comprehend consumer behaviour and the connection with corporate social responsibility motivated the researcher to carry out this study. As noted by Khaniwale (2015), consumer behaviour models are a great way to clarify the manner in which consumers process

information so that they can make choices. Different classical theories and models offered diverse viewpoints on behavioural aspects and how the aspects are interrelated (Khaniwale, 2015; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004; Solomon, 2002). The following chapter deliberates on the main consumer behavior theories that underpin this study.

Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

According to Creswell (2003) a theoretical framework is a collection of theories, models or conceptual models or constructs used by other scholars in their studies to reveal the assumptions of the current study. In other words, it is a collection of theories, models or conceptual models that have attempted to show constructs or variables used in the current study. Creswell (2014) says this is an understanding by other scholars of the nature of association on identified constructs or variables existing in the current study. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) say that a theoretical framework forms ground for emergence of a research model or conceptual framework. The current study's research model or conceptual framework borrows constructs or variables and possibly the nature of associations from previous models. Theories, models or conceptual understandings that supports the current study and its research model are discussed in the next section.

3.2 Consumer behaviour theoretical basis of the study

Profound consumer behaviour theories that support this study borrow from the consumer behaviour cognitive and humanistic approaches or schools of thought.

3.2.1 The cognitive approach

Cognitive psychology developed strongly at the end of the 20th century to become a mainstream and useful field of consumer behaviour study. Jung raised the notion that a human's mind is an information processor (Gould, 1991). This view was accepted by Foxall (1994) who argues that an individual is an 'information processor similar to the working of a computer'. The cognitive approach became strong after the development of the Stimulus-Organism-Response model by Hebb in the 1950s as shown in Figure 3.1, yielding initial steps to the cognitive way of investigations (Bray, 2008; Jacoby, 2002).



FIGURE 3.1: STIMULUS-ORGANISM-RESPONSE MODEL OF DECISION MAKING

Source – Bray (2008): Consumer Behavior Theory. Approaches and Models

When applied to consumer behaviour, this means the mind plays a major role in what one purchases and what they purchase. Bray (2008), Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) and Solomon et al., (2007) state that behaviour (observed action) is a product of an individual's mind in action or intrapersonal cognition. The cognitive approach also acknowledges the environmental and social factors as stimuli or informational inputs into the consumer mind for decision making (Foxall, 1998). As much as the cognitive approach acknowledges the environmental and social factors as stimuli, the cognitive approach contests the explicative power of environmental variables as put across by the behaviourists (Foxall & Yani-de-Soriano, 2005).

Bray (2008) identifies at least two broad classes of models of cognitive consumer behaviour that can be discerned, the analytical models and the prescriptive models.

a) Analytical models

Analytical models are categorised as the grand models due to their scope, identification of an overabundance of factors influencing consumer behaviour or decision making and their interrelatedness. Analytical models tend to take the classical five steps in making a decision, which are problem or need identification, search for information, alternative evaluation, selection of the best choice and outcome evaluation (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006; 2014; Solomon et al., 2013). Well-known analytical models include the Theory of Buyer Behaviour (TBB) (Howard & Sheth, 1969) and the Consumer Decision Making Model (CDMM) (Khaniwale, 2015).

i) The Theory of Buyer Behaviour (TBB)

The TBB model offers a complex integration of numerous marketing, psychological and social impacts on the consumer choice in an organised format of information processing (Foxall, 2005; Foxall & James, 2003). The input which can be marketing communications, accompanied by exogenous variables which includes any external information or factors such as the economy influence the human mind which has factors such as motivation or personality to produce a behaviour or output.

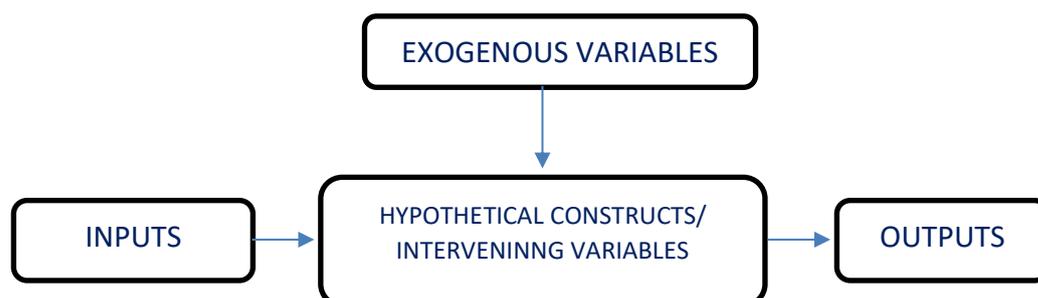


FIGURE 3.2: THE THEORY OF BUYER BEHAVIOUR

Source – Bray (2008): Consumer Behavior Theory. Approaches and Models

ii) The Consumer Decision Making Model (CDMM)

Engel et al., 1968 developed the Consumer Decision Making Model (see Figure 2.10) which was originally recognised as the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model (Bray, 2008). The work on Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model led to the development of the consumer decision making processes which comprise problem identification, search for information, evaluation of alternatives, choice, purchase, outcomes/ after purchase behaviour and divestment (Brosekhan & Velayutham, 2013; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006; Solomon et al., 2007). Consumer decisions are mainly affected at two levels, internal and external. Initially, when stimuli is received, it is processed in line with the individual's memories of previous experiences (internal) and furthermore, environmental influences and individual differences acts as external forces (Foxall, Oliveira-Castro & Schrezenmaier, 2004).

b) Prescriptive models

Prescriptive models of cognitive consumer behaviour provide guidelines, parameters or frameworks for organising consumer behaviour issues (Moital, 2007). The widely used models include the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). The common feature in the prescriptive models is that the models puts in order how components should appear and they prescribe the effect that is observed under certain causal factors (Foxall, 1997). The models are useful to marketing and consumer behaviour practitioners who seek to modify marketing stimuli in order to achieve specific consumer responses (Kotler, 2000). Fagerstrom (2005) suggests that the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) underpin most attitude studies.

i) The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

The TRA model was established by Icek Ajzen and Martin Fishbein (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The model suggests that an individual's desire or intention to do or not to perform certain behaviour is a function of two cognitive variables (Fagerstrom, 2005). Firstly, personal attitudinal judgements which are seen in one's attitude against a certain behaviour. Secondly, a subjective norm component which is seen in an individual's opinion of how other consider the importance or non-importance of the performance or non-performance of a behaviour. Figure 3.3 shows the Theory of Reasoned Action.

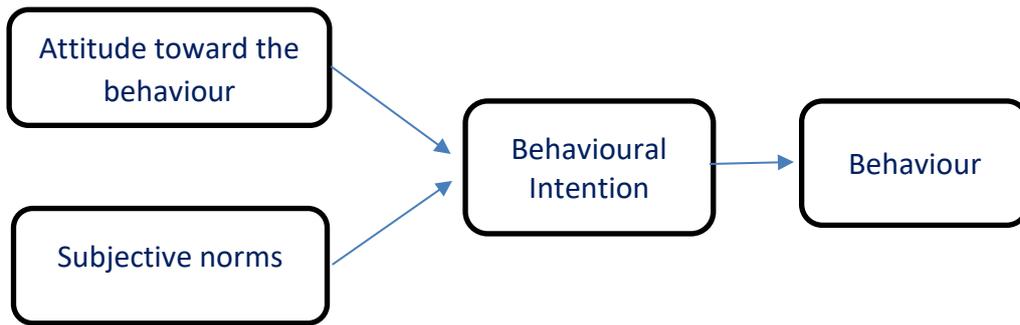


FIGURE 3.3: THE THEORY OF REASONED ACTION (TRA)

Source – Fagerstrom (2005): The behavioural perspective model. A proposed theoretical framework to understand and predict online consumer behaviour.

Attitude toward the behaviour depict whether one prefers the behavior being exhibited or not, in the event that one prefers the behavior they will also behave the same. Subjective norms entails the belief that one follows a behaviour because it will be approved or supported by people in the society. When both attitude toward behaviour and subjective norms are positive it creates positive behavioural intention which leads to a certain behaviour demonstrated. The limitation of the TRA model exists in defining behaviour as a volitional element, meaning that behaviour requires motivation mainly on the part of an individual who is behaving in a particular way (Bray, 2008; Fagerstrom, 2005; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The possibility of additional factors to the TRA spurred the growth of a modified form of the TRA model, with intervening factors, as shown in Figure 3.4 below.

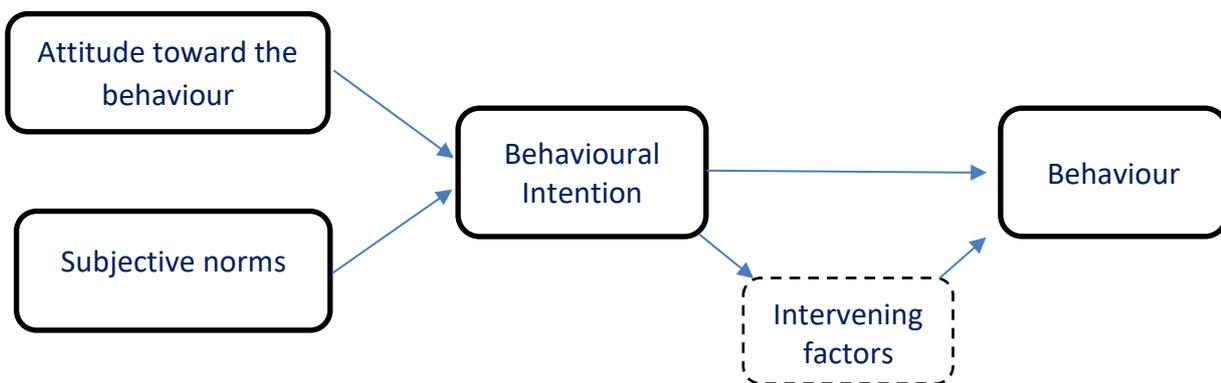


FIGURE 3.4: THE THEORY OF REASONED ACTION (TRA) – ‘MODIFIED’

Source – Fagerstrom (2005): The behavioural perspective model. A proposed theoretical framework to understand and predict online consumer behaviour.

The TRA model modified version has addition of intervening factors which imply that even if one has high or positive behavioural intention, for certain behaviours to occur they can be moderated or checked by intervening factors such as the resources available for one to behave in that way, the physical stature of an individual and so on.

ii) The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

As Icek Ajzen attempted to expand the TRA model beyond most obvious work done on voluntary behaviours in 1985, his work gave birth to the TPB model (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen inserted an additional factor, a third predicting cognitive variable to intention, which he termed the Perceived Behaviour Control (PBC).

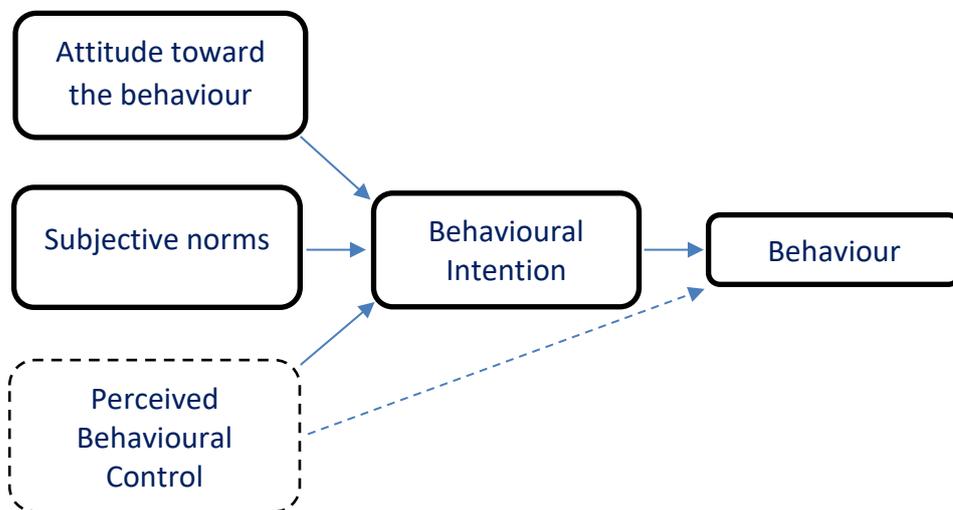


FIGURE 3.5: THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR (TPB)

Source – Fagerstrom (2005): The behavioural perspective model. A proposed theoretical framework to understand and predict online consumer behaviour.

Loudon and Bitta (1993) concur with Ajzen (1991) that the main reason of introducing the Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) is that most of the times the failure to perform certain behaviours does not only exist in the subjective norms or negative attitude, but is evident in the perceived lack of ability to perform the action. Thus, a customer who has a positive or favourable attitude and positive subjective norm (being positively supported by the community) will not perform an action because the consumer may believe that he/ she is not able to do the action (perceived behavioural control) (Ajzen, 1991).

Alsamydai, Alnaimi and Dajana (2015) agrees with Loudon and Bitta (1993) that after the TPB model, still there existed evidence of inconsistencies in the interrelatedness of attitude, intentions and behaviour. Bray (2008) in agreement with Loudon and Bitta (1993) went on to suggest components to improve the TPB model. The components include behavioural beliefs, normative norms, control beliefs and finally that there is an actual behavioural control component connecting perceived behavioral control to outright individual behaviour. The association of the components discussed is shown on Figure 3.6 below.

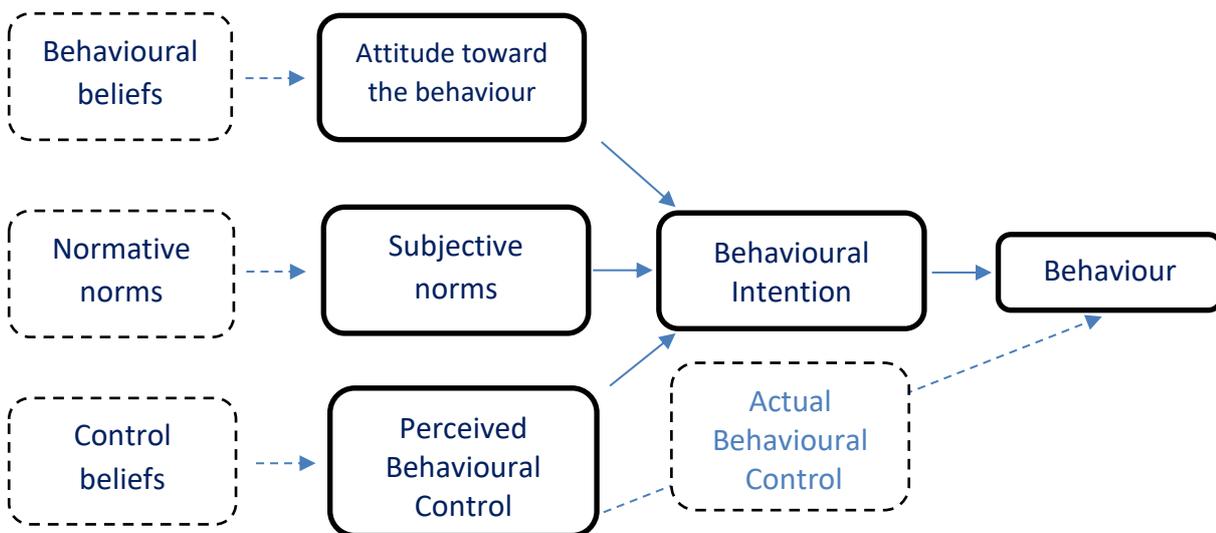


FIGURE 3.6: THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR (TPB) – ‘MODIFIED’

Source – Fagerstrom (2005): The behavioural perspective model. A proposed theoretical framework to understand and predict online consumer behaviour.

In the modified TPB model, behavioural beliefs considered as subjective assumptions that a behaviour will produce a given outcome influences attitude toward the behaviour, normative norms which are standards used to judge behaviour outcomes determine subjective norms and control beliefs which refers to one’s ability to be in control of what will happen impact perceived behavioural control. The actual behavioural control implies one’s ability to quickly perform a certain behaviour by virtue of having the skills, resources and other pre-requisites required.

The models developed under the cognitive approach focused on how the rational human mind thinks, makes decisions and spur an individual to act. Despite the fact that cognitive models appeared more appealing in explaining consumer behaviour, there came a growing number of academics who started pointing out limitations of this approach and developed the humanistic

approach (Foxall, 1993b). As such scholars started research to understand specific aspects of human behaviour.

3.2.2 The humanistic approach

Stewart (1994) highlights that emerging approaches are pronounced as humanistic, in that they try to find out concepts, introspective to individuals instead of giving a description of generic processes. In 1999, Natarajan and Bagozzi cited three perspectives to be considered in the emergence and development of the humanistic approach;

- i) The need to incorporate and not neglect the role of emotions in marketing, even if a consumer can be a rational being.
- ii) Bridging the gap between consumers' stated buying intention and the final purchasing, in order to find out the volitional phases in decision making.
- iii) To find the influence of self-sacrificing motives towards consumer behaviour together with gauging the impact of egoism in marketing theory.

The humanistic approach came up with the Theory of Trying, the Model of Goal Directed Behaviour, the Tri-component attitude model and the Multi-attribute attitude model. These models are presented in the preceding sub-sections.

a) The Theory of Trying

Gould (1991) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) state that consumers have behavioural goals rather than behavioural intentions, therefore, they exert effort purposefully to achieve these goals.

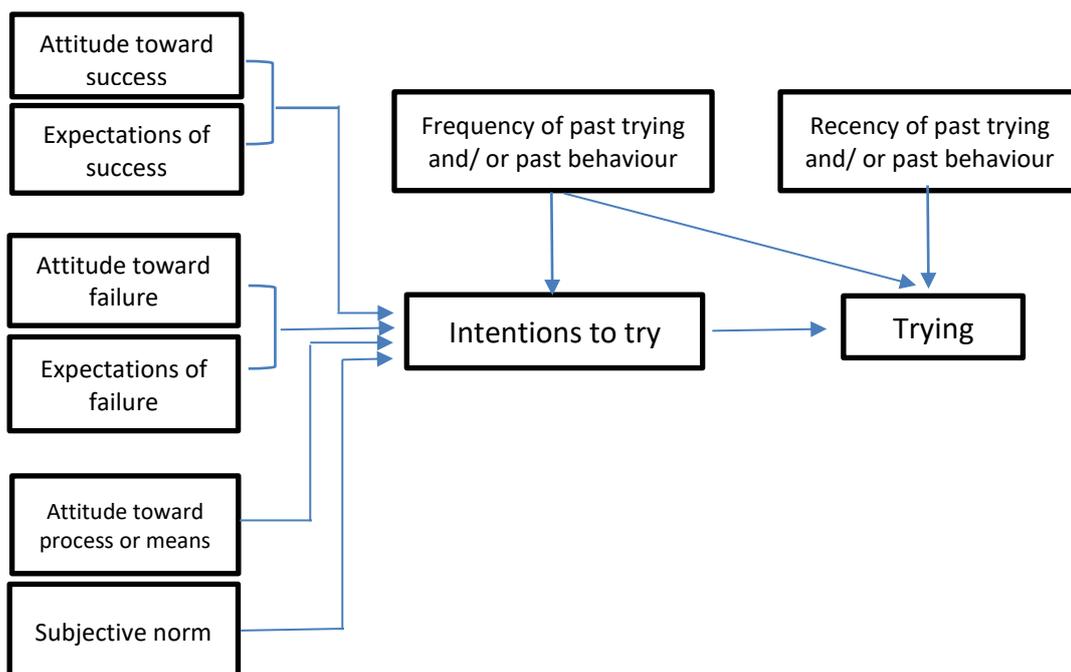


FIGURE 3.7: THE THEORY OF TRYING

Source – Bray (2008): Consumer Behavior Theory. Approaches and Models

Gould (1991) believes that previous or past experience is integrated as a key factor in the humanistic approach, as the models in this approach assess or measure the human ‘trying to act’ component. The diagram explains that trying is a result of or is encouraged by the recency of past trying and/ or behaviour, frequency of past trying and/ or behaviour and intentions to try working individually or in a combination. On the other side, intentions to try build up through a combination of attitude towards and/ or expectations of success, attitude towards and/ or expectations of failure, attitude towards processes or means and subjective norms. A further understanding of intentions is expressed in the Model of goal directed behaviour as shown below.

b) The Model of Goal Directed Behaviour

According to Fagerstrom (2005), the Model of Goal Directed Behaviour borrows greatly from the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

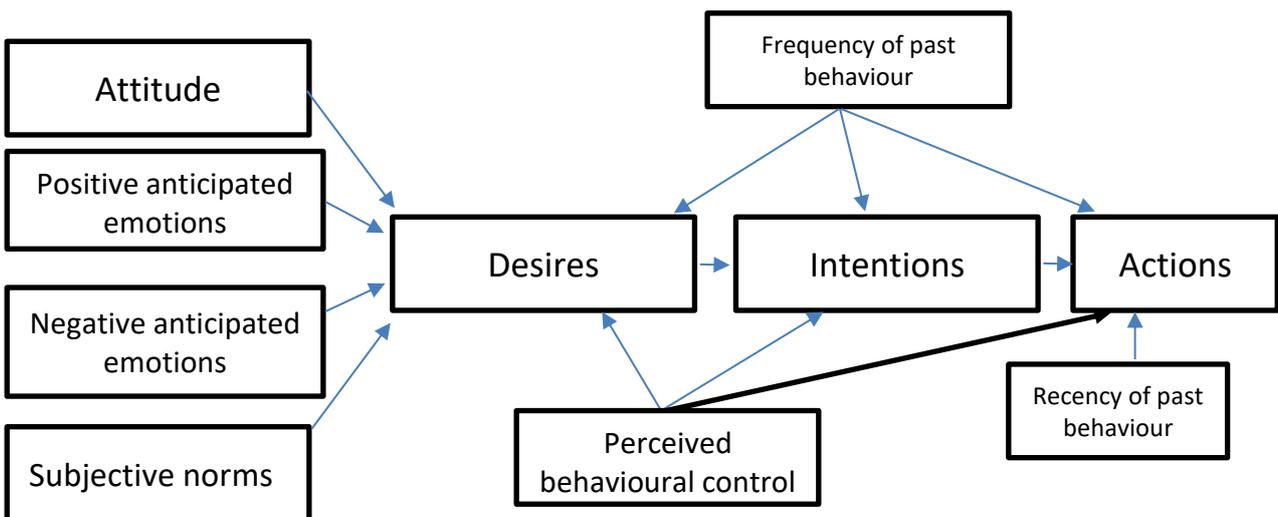


FIGURE 3.8: THE MODEL OF GOAL DIRECTED BEHAVIOUR

Source – Bray (2008): Consumer Behavior Theory. Approaches and Models

Figure 3.8 introduces the concept of desire and numerous researches prove that desire has consistently taken precedence and dominance over many acknowledged factors which are known to predict behaviour or intentions (Foxall, 1998; Foxall & Greenley, 1998; Foxall et al., 2006). Desire is created by a combination of attitude, subjective norms, positive or negative anticipated emotions. Desire stands to be the starting point of the development of intentions, therefore positive desires

leads to positive intentions. Intentions can directly lead to actions though other factors such as frequency of past behaviour and perceived behavioural control can be present to moderate or influence. Finally, this model assumes that recency of past behaviour does not influence actions through intentions but recency of past behaviour has a direct influence to actions.

c) Tri-component attitude model

Brosekhan and Velayutham (2013) agreeing with Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) proposed three components that make up or cause the development of attitude, which result in a certain behavioural disposition. Khaniwale (2015) concurs with both Brosekhan and Velayutham (2013) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) that these three components includes affective – the feeling and emotions, cognitive – the rational thinking and acting, and conative – intentional and personal motivation as shown in Figure 3.9.

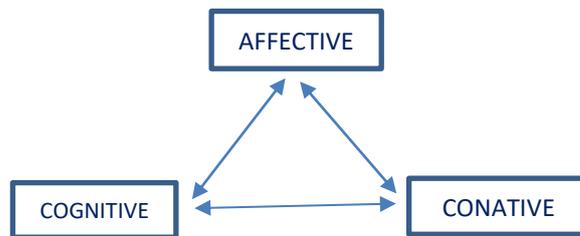


FIGURE 3.9: REFLECTION OF THE TRI-COMPONENT ATTITUDE MODEL

Source - Schiffman and Kanuk (2006): Consumer Behaviour

d) Multi-attribute attitude model

Schiffman and Wisenblit (2014) discuss three categories of attitude models which are attitude-toward-behaviour model, attitude-toward-object model and response-action model. The Attitude-toward-object model occurs when people have a tendency of appreciating favourably those objects in the custom of products (goods or services) or brands that they assume have a reasonable, fair or adequate level of features or attributes and the opposite is true (Raju & Xardel, 2007). According to Sahney (2012) the Attitude-toward-behaviour model is constructed based on people or is a people related model. Satisfaction or desire is derived from the owner or seller of the product or object to enhance positive consumer behaviour. Raju and Xardel (2007) assert that the response-action model presupposes that a person’s attitude is developed from a conscious outlook of the others around, in other words, the society of people around us shapes our attitude. The positive or negative eyes of other people on a behaviour, at the same time, the positive or negative attitudes of other people

towards a behaviour that one has exhibited could promote or discourage that behaviour (Kotler & Keller, 2015).

3.3 Synthesis of theoretical work

The theories presented in this chapter provide an understanding that basically humans (consumers) are like an organism. The theories appreciate that human beings exist in the midst of stimuli which forms the input and reactions to the stimuli, which is considered the outcome or response. Human beings therefore process the input in their mind and shows their line of thinking by exhibiting certain behaviour. The most important aspect is that stimuli is anything that comes from the general environment and response is anything that comes out or is shown by the humans. Due to the fact that stimuli is anything from the environment, marketers thus take advantage and create their stimuli. CSR is part of what marketers use as stimuli to the consumers. On the other hand, since what has been processed in the minds of customers is seen in the exhibited behaviour, marketers collect these response patterns and analyse them for further effective marketing strategies. The marketer therefore has a chance to manipulate or predict consumer responses when they manipulate the various forms of stimuli. It is crucial to note that fundamentally, consumers respond to any form of stimuli using at least three levels of response – affection, knowledge and behavior. These aspects can be complex issues that result due to the conscious and subconscious mind of a consumer. Both conscious and subconscious elements need to be studied and understood. This study looks at CSR awareness as input to the mind of a consumer, which influences consumer corporate image evaluation, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. The study acknowledges that other complex issues such as ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity awareness influence level of consumers' CSR awareness.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter underscores the development of human behaviour on the basis of the cognitive and humanistic schools of consumer behaviour. The chapter discussed models and theories provided by various scholars under the cognitive and humanistic schools which have been used to form the basis of how human behaviour occurs in the presence of CSR awareness in the next chapter. The following chapter therefore provides the research hypotheses and model of the study to illustrate the researcher's assumption on human behaviour with regards to CSR awareness.

Chapter Four: Research Hypotheses and Model Development

4.1 Introduction

Chapter two reviewed literature and chapter three provided a theoretical basis of the study; both chapters link to the problem, constructs and variables of the study. It is against the stated constructs, variables and theories that the research hypotheses and research model of this study were developed. The determination of this chapter is to deliver the study model or conceptual framework and hypotheses in terms of the constructs and variables that were identified. This chapter begins by bestowing the research model with the research hypotheses, then ends with the explanations leading to the development of the research hypotheses. The main conjectures being that a) there are factors that positively or negatively influence consumer CSR awareness (antecedents of CSR awareness) and b) there are consumer-based results of CSR awareness (consequences of CSR awareness) (Čerkasov et al., 2017; Chang & Cheng, 2017; Eshra & Beshir, 2017; Lee, 2018; Raza et al., 2018; Sun, 2016; Tong et al., 2017; Wongpitch et al., 2016). The research model is presented in Figure 4.1 below.

4.2 Research model

The research model is presented below;

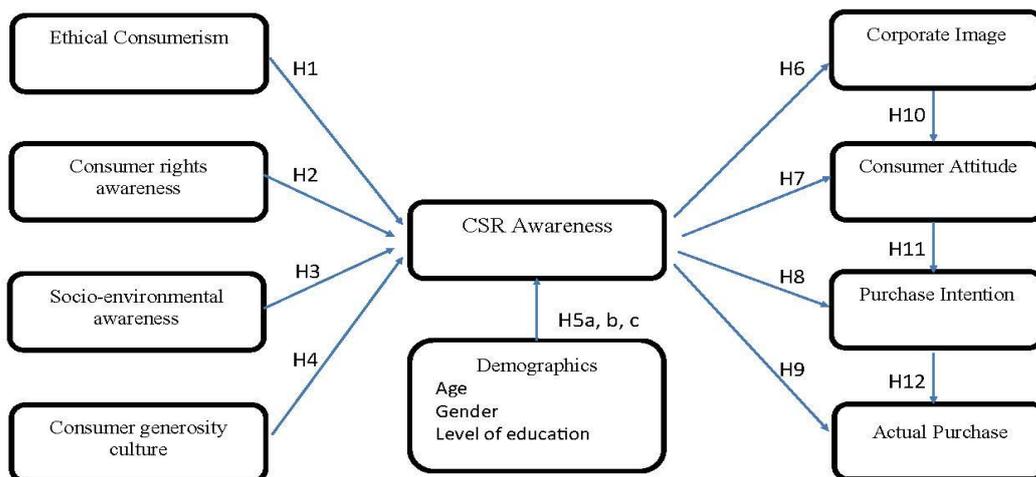


FIGURE 4.1: RESEARCH MODEL - ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CSR AWARENESS

Source: Literature Study

A conceptual framework or research model can be an adaptation of a model used in the previous research studies or the current study's own development by consolidating constructs and variables from different models or researches used in previous studies (Creswell, 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2010). The research model is the researcher's own development through studying literature, including using other theoretical frameworks. Figure 29 displays this study's research model. The proposed research model primarily suggests that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture have a direct influence on consumer CSR awareness. Secondly, the research model proposes that socio-demographic characteristics which include age, gender and level of education have an impact on consumer CSR awareness. Thirdly, the research model opines that consumer CSR awareness positively predicts the nature of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and consumer actual purchase. Lastly, the research model advocates that there is a direct association between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and consumer actual purchase.

4.3 Expressions of the hypotheses statements

A research hypothesis is an academic assertion or intellectual guess about the possible situation or relationship that may exist on variables and constructs (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013; Creswell, 2014; Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Mark, Philip & Adrian, 2009; Maxwell, Chmiel & Rogers, 2015; Taylor & Medina, 2013). A research hypothesis is considered an unproven statement that warrants testing to be done using data collected, presented and analysed (Malhotra & Peterson, 2006; Maxwell et al., 2015). Arkkelin (2014) concurs with Zikmund et al., (2010) that a hypothesis statement stands to be proven to be true and get accepted or can be untrue and get rejected, when data collected has been subjected to statistical tests. Cohen et al., (2013) state that a research hypothesis expounds the research problem and research question(s), bringing clarity by identifying specific issues or variables to be investigated and get tested or measured. Field (2005) and Pallant (2005) agree that study processes are guided by research hypotheses existing on the study's research model. The following gives an expression that led to the development of the respective hypotheses statements.

4.3.1 The influence of ethical consumerism on CSR awareness

In the literature review, Cole (2017) suggested that there is a rise of a consumer who is ethical in purchasing and presents firms with yet another responsibility hurdle. Ethical consumers prefer

ethical products; produced, marketed, distributed and disposable ethically. The emergence of such consumers leads to a society that is always on the outlook for firm operations and behaviour in the marketplace (Toal & Broomes, 2017). Firms that are responsible are easily noticeable and therefore positively rewarded (Bello et al., 2016). Literature provides evidence of factors that prevent or promote consumer awareness of CSR, amongst which there is ethical consumerism (Bello et al., 2016; Brammer et al., 2012; Cole, 2017, Friedman, 1999; Karaosman et al., 2015; Thornton, 2012; Toal & Broomes, 2017). In line with literature, the researcher hypothesised as follows;

H1. Ethical consumerism positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.2 The influence of consumer rights awareness on CSR awareness

Consumer rights and protection has been there for a long time but has been manifest or enforced differently in societies (Kotler & Keller, 2015). Consumer rights and protection has become critical in most developed societies and the developing societies are following suit (Bello et al., 2016). When consumers become aware of their rights, they become alert and assertive against anything that infringes their rights. Consumer awareness of their rights enables them to judge between responsible and irresponsible companies. Literature provides evidence of consumer rights awareness as a factor that precedes consumer awareness of CSR (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012; Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015; Bello et al., 2016; Bello et al., 2012; Kolk et al., 2015; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Wisdom et al., 2018) and it is hypothesised as follows;

H2. Consumer rights awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.3 The influence of socio-environmental awareness on CSR awareness

Globally, societies are taking an active role in preventing damage to the environment or society and promoting sustainability (Chan, 2014). Societies are fast realising and eliminating dangerous activities at the level of manufacturing, consumption and disposal. Choi et al., (2017) notice that societies require firms that are also concerned about the environment, those that are not concerned are ruled out to be irresponsible. Societies are advocating for behavioural change at individual and corporate level so that manufacturing, consumption and disposal activities do not compromise future sustainability. The level of socio-environmental consciousness determines the level of CSR alertness in a society (Ali & Frynas, 2017; Butcher & Xu, 2014; Chan, 2014; Choi et al., 2017;

Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Munoz-Torres et al., 2018; Oleszko-Kurzyna, 2014; Tibah et al., 2018), and this is hypothesised as follows;

H3. Socio-environmental awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.4 The influence of consumer generosity culture on CSR awareness

Michaels and Gruning (2018) proclaim that cultural values such as giving, give rise to societies that evaluate a firm as responsible through charitable acts. Charitable acts can be deep-rooted in individuals or collective society and naturally spans to what the society expect from organisations, on the basis that organisations are presumed to be better resourced. Kotler and Keller (2015) believe that collectivist societies relate easily with philanthropic CSR. A number of firm programs towards societies fall in the spectrum of philanthropic CSR, therefore, societies commonly understand CSR as a way of firms extending hands to the community. Literature provides evidence of a generosity culture as one of the determinants of CSR awareness (Jin & Woo, 2016; Karaosman et al., 2016; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Michaels & Gruning, 2018; Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2014), and this is hypothesised as follows;

H4. Consumer generosity culture positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.5 The influence of age on CSR awareness

Schiffman et al., (2014) holds the same view as Gray (2011) that demographic factors pose differential influence on consumer responses. Similarly, there is a difference between how consumers search for CSR and perceive CSR due to demographic factors (Garcia-Jimenez et al., 2017; Pant 2017; Singh & Malla, 2017). Marketing retention strategies, consumer response and loyalty differ across various age groups, income groups and education levels. The young prefer more technical products (Ali et al., 2010a) while the elderly are more loyal to brands or firms (Ali et al., 2010b). Liu and Zeng (2017) noted that age differences have caused distinctions in both managerial implementation of CSR and consumer appreciation of CSR. In fact, at managerial level, Liu and Zeng (2017) encourages a mixture of members so that those who appreciate CSR can cause those who do not to quickly appreciate CSR, to understand and implement CSR. Muhammad and Erica's (2019) study on age diversity management and organisational outcomes buttress the same notion by demonstrating in the results that an organisation with positive age diversity supports CSR practices.

The debate between age and CSR awareness needs to be further clarified, whether age influences CSR awareness and which age groups appreciates CSR the more. This ambiguity requires further clarification hence it is hypothesised that;

H5a. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to age.

4.3.6 The influence of gender on CSR awareness

Demographics play a role in consumers' responses to corporate activities such as CSR (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Bystrom & Malstad, 2013; Chang & Cheng, 2017; Groza et al., 2011; Hart & Ahuja, 1996) and at the same time, to questions on questionnaires as shown in previous researches (Cohen et al., 2013; Eshra & Behsir, 2017; Gray, 2011; Hair et al., 2011). Ali et al., (2010b) revealed that there is a notable difference in consumer preferences and these arose due to gender in the cellular industry, while Kumar and Ali (2011) identified that occupation, education, income, gender included and location influenced consumer attitude towards organic foods. Mangnale, Potluri and Degufu (2011) found that females appeared more ethnocentric and less adventurous than male counterparts. In a study of measuring differences in Individual and Corporate Social Responsibility (ISR and CSR), Hatch and Stephen (2015) concluded that there are significant differences in gender on ISR and CSR. Hatch and Stephen (2015) argued that women demonstrated high ISR which translated to positive perception and acknowledgement of CSR. It is against this background of noted differences arising due to gender that it is hypothesised against CSR awareness as follows;

H5b. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to gender.

4.3.7 The influence of level of education on CSR awareness

Schiffman et al., (2014) agree with Solomon et al., (2007) that socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education included, income, lifestyle and place of residence are important factors that result in differences in people's way of viewing, perceiving and responding to issues. Differences in cultural values and education levels direct CSR forms adopted by companies and CSR adoption in societies (William & Zinkin, 2008). According to Lentner et al., (2015), education levels matter against banking period on consumers' evaluation of banking services quality. Bawa (2004) proved that higher education level and lower age range caused consumers to be less ethnocentric. Karabasevic, Petrovic and Maksimovic (2016) in a study on the impact of education levels on perception of CSR concluded that in every society, the highly educated are expected to set pace on how CSR is practised. The highly educated will drive firms, by their knowledge and skills,

into socio-responsible behaviours to build a sustainable present and future. With regard to education level and CSR, it is hypothesised as follows;

H5c. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to level of education.

4.3.8 The influence of CSR awareness on corporate image

Universally, firms are conducting CSR as a way of observing ethical, economic, legal, and philanthropic duties, while also CSR has an impact on society's corporate image evaluation (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Chung et al., 2015; Lee, 2018; Distefano & Pisano, 2016; Lee & Lee, 2015; Maldonado-Guzman et al., 2017; Saat & Selamatb, 2014; Shabbir, et al., 2018; Stoyanov, 2017; van Doom et al., 2017; Wongpitch et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016). Wu et al., (2016) agree with Galalae and Voicu (2013) that organisational initiatives such as CSR when communicated spruce up the corporate image and consumer perception. Wongpitch et al., (2016) believe CSR improves organisational capacity to withstand negative criticism and competition due to a better picture that consumers or the society have. Previous studies have debated that CSR improves corporate image while others have argued that CSR communication can lead to 'self-praise' dilemma and consumer skepticism (Heindinger, 2012). Kang et al., (2016) state that CSR cannot be used to wash away company sins (bad image), but still, can be used to objectively judge firm future CSR activities. Coming to CSR and corporate image in this study, it is hypothesised that;

H6. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects corporate image in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.9 The influence of CSR awareness on consumer attitude

Kotler and Lee (2005) submit that firms exercise CSR to solicit various stakeholder favors, especially consumers through favorable behaviour. In every organisation, consumers are the main reason of conducting business operations (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Lii et al., 2013; van Doom et al., 2017). Khaniwale (2015) and Jones et al., (2000) agree with Howard and Sheth (1969) that market efficiency is gained when a firm comprehends consumers and can estimate consumer reaction or behaviour to marketing stimuli. Consumers tend to positively reward a firm that engages in CSR through many aspects including positive attitude (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Chhabra, 2014; Craig, 2013; Corporate Responsibility Magazine, 2014; Kimenju et al., 2005; Lii et al., 2013; Manimalar & Sudha, 2015; Rahim et al., 2011; Toal & Broomes, 2017). Consumers develop a favourable attitude towards a firm that does good to the society (Franklin, 2008; Kotler & Lee, 2005; Lii et al.,

2013; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Yuan-Shuh et al., 2013). In the light of literature findings, it is hypothesised that;

H7. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.10 The influence of CSR awareness on purchase intention

Significantly, authors concur that CSR awareness enhances positive consumer purchase intention (Cheng et al., 2015; Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Heidinger, 2012; Lee & Lee, 2015; Nanda, 2015; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011; Shafiq et al., 2011; Walker & Kent, 2009; Wongpitch et al., 2016). In fact, Kotler and Keller (2015) found that consumers bought more of products that carried a donation back to the community (Cause-related Marketing - CrM). Sign and Malla (2017) show that CSR matters in determining consumer purchase intention. It is therefore hypothesised that;

H8. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.11 The influence of CSR awareness on actual purchase

Communicated CSR has an influence on consumer purchase rather than when the activities are not known (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Arvidsson, 2010; Asamoah, 2015; Bigne-Alcaniz et al., 2012; Heidinger, 2012; Hong & Rim, 2010; Nanda, 2015; Saat & Selamatb, 2014; Schmeltz, 2012; Smith, 2007). Kotler and Keller (2015) list elements that companies need to search for other than CSR which drive consumer final purchase decision. These include quality, price, and corporate image that hinder consumer actual purchase in spite of the presence of CSR. Based on these views, numerous authors have supported the notion that CSR awareness leads to consumer actual purchase while others are against that notion (Ali, 2011; Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Gigauri, 2012; Lee & Lee, 2015; Lee & Shin, 2010; Shafiq et al., 2011; Wongpitch et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016). To aid in clarifying the contradicting notions, it is therefore hypothesised that;

H9. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects actual purchase behavior in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.12 The influence of corporate image on consumer attitude

Kotler and Keller (2015) agree with Gronroos (2007) about three marketing objectives which are to get, keep and grow customers. To achieve these objectives, a firm uses numerous marketing tools, among these exists those in line with or are business oriented and those tools which are voluntary undertakings (Bigne-Alcaniz et al., 2012; Chung et al., 2018; CR's 100 Best Corporate Citizens, 2013; CSRRepTrack, 2013; Davies et al., 2012; Lee, 2018; Torrico et al., 2018). Maheshwari and Kumar (2013) suggest that CSR initiatives have become more common business practice and a strategic marketing tool that drives consumers into a favourable brand and corporate image. Gudjonsdottir and Jusubova (2015) believe that a firm would not struggle with corporate image when it develops a strong brand, and later on positive consumer attitude. Maheshwari and Kumar (2013) argue that to be inspirational to all its stakeholders, a firm should be socially responsible and achieve consumer favourability. Martínez, Pérez and Rodríguez del Bosque (2014) state that when corporate image positively improves, it follows that consumer attitude positively improves too. Raza et al., (2018) agree with Casado-Díaz, Nicolau-Gonzálbez, Ruiz-Moreno and Sellers-Rubio (2014) that customers tend to prefer or favor firms that engage in CSR. Martínez et al., (2014) agree with Raischi and Smolevska (2012) that consumers perceive firms engaging in CSR as also producing high product quality. Kang et al., (2016) concur with Elving (2012) that firms do CSR and communicate in order to raise corporate image and reduce consumer uncertainty perception. Firms engaging in CSR should aim to form or develop positive consumer attitudes (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Čerkasov et al., 2017; Distefano & Pisano, 2016; Lee, 2018; Stoyanov, 2017; Wu et al., 2016). It is therefore hypothesised that;

H10. Corporate image positively affects consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.13 The influence of consumer attitude on purchase intention

Consumer attitude resides in the favourability or unfavourability views consumers have on a product and it is evident in the preference a consumer exhibits on a product (Wongpitch et al., 2016; Solomon et al., 2013). Wilcock, Pun, Khanonax and Aung (2004) agree with Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) that attitude is crucial in consumer behaviour to drive or determine purchase intention and actual purchase. According to Assael (2004), in order for marketers to understand consumer purchase intention, they must comprehend attitudes. Wongpitch et al., (2016) together with Lii and Lee (2012) concur that there was limited literature regarding the effect of attitude toward intention, but now there is vast literature accepting and establishing that generally, there is a high association between attitudes, intentions and behaviours. Lii and Lee (2012) agreeing with the Dual Meditation

Hypothesis (MacKenzie, Lutz & Belch, 1986) state that consumer attitude towards the brand affect purchase intention, that is, positive consumer attitudes lead to positive buying intention. It is against this background that it is hypothesised as follows;

H11. Consumer attitude positively affects purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.3.14 The influence of purchase intention on actual purchase

Researchers have raised much concern on the connection that may exist between buying intention and actual buying (Barnett & Salomon, 2012; Chen et al., 2015; Gigauri, 2012; Lee, 2018; Lee & Lee, 2015; Lii et al., 2013; Rahman, Haque & Khan, 2012; Shafiq et al., 2011; Singh & Malla, 2017; Wu et al., 2016; Yuan-Shuh et al., 2013). Intention to purchase is the idea that a buyer is willing or has an objective to purchase (Chen et al., 2015; Gigauri, 2012; Lee & Lee, 2015; Wongpitch et al., 2016). Schiffman and Kanuk (2006) assert that purchase intention can be transformed to real purchase, but it is affected by factors such as availability of purchasing power (money), time, convenience, ambience and so on. Tseng and Chen (2008) acknowledge the fact that purchase intention automatically turns into actual purchase when the factors considered are balanced, in an equilibrium or are more favourable. Actual purchase also known as actual purchase behaviour or simply purchase behaviour, refers to the real buying of a product, that ranges from acquiring the product to using the product (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Khaniwale, 2015; Lee & Lee, 2015; Wu et al., 2016). Kotler and Keller (2015) deliberate that actual purchase is tagged behaviour due to the fact it involves mannerisms exhibited in the buying process (acquiring or getting a product), consumption, satisfaction, loyalty and recommending. It is against such an understanding that it is hypothesised as follows;

H12. Purchase intention positively affects actual purchase behavior in the mobile telecommunications sector.

4.4 Chapter Summary

The chapter provided a research model or conceptual framework, which is proposed for the study and the model demonstrates that there are antecedents and consequences of CSR awareness. This was followed by the outlining of the research hypotheses which falls in the parameters of the selected antecedents and consequences of CSR awareness. The research model shown in the chapter denotes the position of the respective research hypotheses which have been later explained. The

chapter linked the findings of other scholars to defend, criticise or build a point on or against the hypotheses in order to support the need to research and find facts about acclaimed hypotheses.

Chapter Five: Research Design and Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology and methods used to carry out the study. A research methodology comprises the methods that are used to collect and analyse data. It encompasses the research problem, research objectives, research questions, conceptual framework and research hypotheses (Ragab & Arisha, 2017; Saunders et al., 2009). Mishra and Alok (2017) agree with Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) that the nature of the research problem determines the research objectives or research questions, while the research objectives or questions dictate the research methodology. In this study, the research methods that were used to collect and analyse data were selected in line with the aims and the objectives of the study. The primary research aim of the study is to investigate the antecedents and consequences of consumer awareness of CSR. Thus, a mixed method approach was used in this study. The chapter covers the philosophy of the research, strategy, design, target population, sample size, sampling method, development of the research instruments and data collection procedures. The section of data presentation and analysis gives detail on how data will be presented and analysed in the latter chapters. The chapter will end by covering how reliability, validity, due diligence and ethics were ensured before, during and after the study.

5.2 Research philosophy

A research philosophy, also termed a research paradigm, is generally a system of underlying beliefs or greatly a model and theory that directs a study (Gray, 2011; Nind, Kilburn & Luff, 2015). Taylor and Medina (2013) refer to a paradigm as a platform, universally of values and methods in doing research under a certain line of thought or viewpoint, which defines a strategy used to generate and develop knowledge. Aaker et al., (2007) and Wainright (1997) distinguish a paradigm from an approach, saying that the former describes an established model while the latter refers to the means of conducting research; its design, methods of collecting and analysing data. A paradigm is the underlying assumption or philosophical orientation towards knowledge (Bosch-Rekveltdt, 2015; Kuhn, 1962, 1970). The major philosophical orientations a researcher encounters in social sciences includes positivism, interpretivism/ constructivism and pragmatism (Creswell, 2014; Gray, 2011; Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). This study adopted a pragmatic philosophy.

Cohen et al., (2013) explains that the general understanding of pragmatic research philosophy centers on the belief of more than one best way to conduct research. Ragab and Arisha (2017) believe that pragmatism philosophy tends to look at the practical outcome of research, therefore disallowing any form of 'forced selection' on the available extreme philosophies. Beista (2010) argues about pragmatism orientation, that the idea is to seek what works, thus, raising the possibility of using more than one paradigm within the same research study so that research objectives are fully or widely achieved. Ragab and Arisha (2017) discussed that pragmatism is becoming a prevalent philosophy in social science research due to the fact that it enables the utilisation of the mixed method approach, facilitating what is known as combining 'paradigm wars' as illustrated on the following areas;

Ontology - Objectivism versus subjectivism; Creswell (2014) asserts that there are chances that actualities can be subjective or objective, internal and single, similarly external and multiple. According to Cameron, Sankaran and Scales (2015) adopting pragmatism philosophy means adopting a perspective that accommodates and delivers the best answer(s) to a research problem and research questions.

Epistemology; Subjective and objective indications provide acceptable knowledge with regards to the study's problem and research questions. According to Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2010) there is room for variations of views and tools, combining methodologies and methods in order to collect and interpret data comprehensively and meaningfully.

Axiology; Pragmatism attends to the practices, values or standards of objectivity and subjectivity in research (Maxwell et al., 2015).

Data collection methods often used; There is great room for adapting or flexing methods to the assumed best possible approaches (Morgan, 2016). The approaches should be hands-on, thus they combine different methods (qualitative or quantitative methods and techniques) (Onwuegbuzie, 2012; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Data presentation and analysis therefore combines quantitative and qualitative techniques (Hair, Wolfinbarger, Money, Samouel & Page, 2011).

Due to the nature of the problem and research questions, this research study adopted the pragmatic philosophy in order to combine methods, procedures and presentation techniques at various levels as discussed above.

5.3 Research strategy

Researchers in the 21st century are graced with yet a new and immensely developing research philosophy, pragmatism, that gives a broader base of research choices and strategies on fundamental perspectives of carrying out research (Butt, 2016; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2015). Being pragmatic allows the use of quantitative and qualitative methods and techniques, which means being deductive and inductive at the same time (Beista, 2010; Bosch-Rekveltdt, 2015; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2006). The mixed methods approach was adopted due to the deductive and inductive needs of this study (Morgan, 2007; 2016; Onwuegbuzie, 2012; Zikmund & Babin, 2007). Bryman (2008) encourages mixed methods in human sciences as it maximizes the process of triangulation, facilitation and complementarity to ensure reliability and validity of studies. Triangulation is the use of different tools and approaches (two or more), to address or answer the same problem (Creswell, 2014). Facilitation and complementarity are forms of techniques employed where one tool enables and/ or aids the other strategy(ies) in research (Creswell, 2014). Triangulation, facilitation and complementarity are used to defend mixed methods, though the goal of mixed methods in this study was mainly to combine open-ended questions (for qualitative data presentation), closed-ended questions (for quantitative data presentation) and the use of scientific and non-scientific research tools and procedures. Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2010) proclaim that this type of research strategy, which combines the quantitative and qualitative strategies, can also be termed a mixed research study or simply mixed research.

The mixed research strategy fits well in exploring consumer opinions, comments, ideas or suggestions on CSR (qualitative) and also in testing variables individually, testing the relationship existing between variables and developing a model (quantitative). A quantitative strategy gives the ability to measure, analyse and predict while a qualitative strategy enables narration, explanation, description and understanding of phenomena (Morgan, 2016; Zikmund & Babin, 2007). Zikmund et al., (2010) uphold that the two extreme strategies, quantitative and qualitative, complement each other both in theory and practice. In carrying out consumer behaviour studies, Lewis and Soureli (2006) after using a combined method strategy, recommended that mixed method paradigm is the best. Therefore, in line with previous scholars, this study was carried out on a combined methods because of the previously mentioned nature of the research, research needs and rigor.

5.4 Research design

Aaker, Kamar and Day (2007) assert that a research design sets parameters for the guidelines and processes to be observed in data collection. According to Bryman (2008), a research design is a framework giving direction on how a study should be conducted. Morgan (2016) notes that the research problem greatly influences the research design choice. Malhotra (2010) proclaims that research designs basically span from exploratory, descriptive and causal. Zikmund et al., (2010) identified research design types ranging from experimental, longitudinal, case study, cross-sectional (survey) and comparativity. Creswell (2014) suggests that research designs includes experimental, case study and survey, where a survey can be cross-sectional or longitudinal. Considering mainly this study's timeframe and the identified research problem, the study adopted a cross-sectional (survey) research design. A cross sectional survey allows the collection of large amounts of data on an immense problem in a specific time, on a large sample size (1100 consumers), even if the time is limited (2017 - 2019). Cross sectional surveys permit analysis or comparison of individual or multiple variables in that specified time or across other periods (Creswell, 2014; Morgan, 2016). As such in this study, the cross-sectional survey allowed studying of a specific sector, that is the mobile telecommunications sector, and sub-cases, that is variations that occurred due to people or organisational differences (Malhotra & Peterson, 2006). Most importantly, the cross-sectional survey design permitted usage of a questionnaire with a variety of structured-closed and open-ended questions (Garcia-Jimenez, Ruiz-de-Maya & Lopez-Lopez, 2017; Rivera, Bigne & Curras-Perez, 2016).

5.5 Target population

Target population refers to the total units that are of the characteristics required to respond to the cause or problem (Saunders et al., 2009). In simpler words, the target population refers to all the people who fit research criteria and in this case, it is all the mobile telecommunications consumers in Harare. According to the World Population Review (2017), Harare has a population of 1,542,813 where close to 50 percent (about 771,407) are considered the working group, above 18 years to 65 years, who are fit for the study. The working group were selected due to their ability to have their own income, able to make decisions on their own and high potential to buy or use telecommunications products. The target population criteria was; energetic, working class and awareness of mobile telecommunications sector CSR activities.

5.6 Sample design and sample size

The totality of a research sampling design must explicitly provide information about the population, target population, sample size, sampling scheme and sample characteristics (Mohajan, 2018; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Onwuegbuzie, Collins, Leech, Dellinger & Jiao, 2007). Most importantly, the sample sizes of each, quantitative phase and qualitative phase, must be stated and the study must stipulate the ultimate sample size(s) in cases of any attrition (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Morse and Niehaus (2009) recommend the use of the same respondents sample for both quantitative and qualitative phases, if the questionnaire is utilising open-ended and closed-ended questions. This recommendation was adopted in the study.

Mishra and Alok (2017) believe that a sample design should only cover the sampling techniques used, sample characteristics and sample size. Since sampling designs are more complex in mixed research methods than mono-method studies, Ragab and Arisha (2017) concurs with Morgan (2007) and Teddlie and Yu (2007) to use Onwuegbuzie and Collins' (2007) model for selecting sample designs required in mixed research studies. The scholars recommends a small departure from the traditional probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) provides a model typology of categorising mixed sampling types according to time orientation (whether quantitative and qualitative phases, concurrently or sequentially occur) and the association between quantitative and qualitative samples. The relationship between qualitative and quantitative samples occurs at the points of identical/exactly the same participants used in qualitative and quantitative phases of the study. Parallel - represents samples for qualitative and quantitative studies being different but drawn from the same population. Nested - indicates a sample member being picked for one phase of the study being a subset of those sample members used in the study phase before, and multilevel- refers to the use of two or more dissimilar sets of samples selected from different levels of the population required. Since the study used a questionnaire that has a combination of open-ended (qualitative) and closed-ended (quantitative) questions, the study automatically adopted a concurrent-identical sampling design.

Cameron et al., (2015) agree with Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2010) that researchers need to utilise typologies that have been theoretically and empirically conceptualised. Researchers should make clear the sampling design and the types of generalisations used in a study sample, ranging from statistical generalisations (representativeness), analytical generalisation (conceptual power) to case-to-case transfer (conceptual power) (Bosch-Rekvelde, 2015). Factually, large populations

accompanied with random samples lead to immense statistical generalisations, while small and judgemental samples facilitate analytical generalisations together with case-to-case transfers (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Maxwell et al., 2015; Sandelowski, 2014). This research study used the concurrent-identical sampling design, supported by judgemental sampling (selected the active, working group above 18 years reaching to 65 years) combined with convenience sampling (these participants were identified in the streets or mobile telecommunications firms' service centers). The research study used similar sample participants to respond to both open-ended and closed-ended questions.

Using Cochran's sample size calculation formula, at 5 percent margin of error and 95% confidence level, this study should have adopted the use of 384 respondents in data collection but the study used even a higher sample size. Cochran's sample size formula calculates the sample size as follows;

Sample size calculation formula

Source

$$n_o = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Israel (2018): Determining Sample Size

where

n_o is the sample size required

Z is the calculated z-value or z-value on z-tables

p is the (estimated) proportion of the population which has the attribute in question

q is $1 - p$

e is the desired level of precision (i.e. the margin of error)

therefore $n_o = ((1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5)) / (0.05)^2 = 384.16$ respondents.

Several studies, including the cases given on Table 5.1 below have ranged between 100 – 700 respondents and indicated a need for a larger and mixed sample of respondents.

TABLE 5.1: CASES ON SAMPLE SIZE

Title	Author(s)	Sample size used
An investigation of the influence of CSR on Corporate Reputation and Purchase Intention	Ali (2011)	400 students, physically distributed questionnaires
A study on the impact of congruence between the CSR activity and the company's core business on consumer response to CSR	Garcia-Jimenez et al., (2017)	120 students, online questionnaire survey

Effects of corporate social responsibility motives on purchase intention model: An extension	Wongpitch et al., (2016)	192 subjects, on a self-administered questionnaire
The Effects of CSR on Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty in China: The Moderating Role of Corporate Image	Chung et al., (2015)	276 participants responded on a 500 participants target- web based survey
The impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on Consumer Buying Behaviour in Egypt	Eshra and Beshir (2017)	140 respondents with the support of Roscoe (1975) who recommends 30-500 respondents
The impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on Consumer Purchase Decision	Gigauri (2012)	Not stated
An analysis of factors that influence consumer purchase intention in Pakistan	Shafiq et al., (2011)	220 respondents
An investigation of consumer-perceived quality in 'traditional' food chains in Greece	Krystallis et al., (2007)	268 respondents
Consumer attitudes toward issues in food safety	Brewer and Rojas (2008)	450 consumers
Consumer awareness and attitudes toward GM foods in Kenya	Kimenju et al., (2005)	604 participants

As shown in the table above, some of the cases specifically used students and neglected the general population, while other studies used specifically the general population. To attain an in-depth and robust view, the current study targeted over 1,000 respondents from the general population which includes students. Therefore 1,100 questionnaires were issued to cater for the challenge of non-response, soiled or grossly incomplete questionnaires. This is in line with Roscoe (1975)'s recommendation that, for an in-depth quantitative statistical analysis a sample size of 30 – 500 and more is recommended. Larger sample sizes are good enough and appropriate for significant statistical analysis (Creswell, 2014; Morgan, 2013; 2016). More so, Roscoe (1975) asserts that for qualitative analysis, a population of 10 – 60 respondents would suffice to reach saturation level. A saturation level is reached where there is no fresh information or themes emerging from the respondents to bring in new knowledge (Creswell, 2014; Kennedy & Montgomery, 2018).

5.7 Research instruments

These are devices, apparatus, gadgets or mechanisms a study uses to conduct research (Hair et al., 2011; Mohajan, 2018). This study used a questionnaire to collect data. The questionnaire comprised of open-ended and closed ended questions and the the questionnaire was administered to targeted consumers of mobile telecommunications sector. The open-ended questions aimed at finding the

open opinions and comments of respondents regarding mobile telecommunications CSR activities and communications. The closed-ended questions used pre-done, confirmed or standardised, less exploratory or structured questions for quantitative analysis to measure, confirm, test or predict the targeted antecedents and consequences of the study.

Questionnaires were used to collect primary data (American Educational Research Association, 2006), because they are easy to administer against field, time, comparison, analysis and ordering (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Questionnaires were designed with prior knowledge of the main constructs of the study after a comprehensive literature survey. The study used the Likert scales techniques with parameters ranging from (1) Strongly Agree to (5) Strongly Disagree. Mobara (2015) affirms that significant consumer behaviour studies have used the Likert scaled type of questions. The questionnaire was developed using pre-done, pre-designed, tested and validated concepts or ideas existing in literature and these are shown in the following section of the questionnaire development process;

5.7.1 Development of the research instrument

This section presents the sources used in literature to develop the research instrument for the current study. The research instrument was developed by taking questions from previous similar studies as they are or where necessary the questions were changed to suit the current study. Designing a research instrument requires deliberate search of constructs, themes and variables in literature to determine what has to be measured in relation to the current study (Aaker et al., 2007; Kothari, 2004). Aaker et al., (2007) discusses steps to be taken in order to develop a good questionnaire, which include planning what has to be measured, developing data collecting questions, deciding the layout, order and wording of questions, pilot testing the questions and making necessary amendments, which the researcher did in developing the research instrument. Zikmund et al., (2010) suggest that the development of a questionnaire should be done in the light of the research problem, research questions, research hypotheses and research model, which the researcher also did for the purposes of this study. The concepts and constructs that were measured/ included in the questionnaire include gender, age, level of education, occupation, monthly gross income, name of city or place of residence, residential area, religion, mobile telecommunications service provider, antecedents of consumer CSR awareness, consumer awareness of CSR and consequences of consumer CSR awareness as demonstrated in the subsequent sections;

a) Section A: Scale - Socio-demographic profile of respondents

The scale or measurements that were used to measure the socio-demographic details of the participants are shown on the questionnaire used for the study (*see Appendix 12 – Research instrument: Section A*). The components of the demographic profile were developed from authorities in literature which include Chung et al., (2015), IndexMundi (2018) and Makanyeza (2014) (*See Appendix 1 - Sources of socio-demographic profile dimensions*).

b) Section B: Scale - Antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR

The scale that was used to measure the antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR is shown on the questionnaire used for the study (*see Appendix 12 – Research instrument: Section B*). The parameters were constructed in the realm of ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture. The establishment of variables that were used under antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR in this study is based on extensive literature studied and reviewed. The sources used include; those for ethical consumerism – Huo (2016), Moisescu (2016) and Stanaland et al., (2011); for consumer rights awareness – Consumerism and Consumer Rights Awareness United Nations Bill (1985) quoted by Bello et al., (2016) and the Zimbabwe Consumer Protection Bill (2014); for socio-environmental awareness – Becker-Olsen et al., (2011), Brunk (2010), Mandhachitara and Poolthong (2011), Mohr and Webb (2005), Oberseder et al., (2014), Perez and Bosque (2013), Singh and Bosque (2008), Turker (2009), Wagner et al., (2008) as quoted by Moisescu (2016); and for consumer generosity awareness – Bediako (2017), Maignan (2001), Mohr and Webb (2005), Moisescu (2016), Palihawadana et al., (2016) and Salmones et al., (2005) (*See Appendix 2 – Sources of Antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR dimensions*).

c) Section C: Consumer awareness of CSR

The scale that was used to measure consumer awareness of CSR is shown on the questionnaire used for the study (*see Appendix 12 – Research instrument: Section C*). The variable items used were designed in the realm of ethical, philanthropic, legal and economic responsibilities of a firm. The establishment of variables that were used under consumer awareness of CSR are premised on studied and reviewed literature. The sources used include Butt (2016), Carroll and Shabana (2010), Chung et al., (2015), Kaur and Soch (2012), Ishaq (2012), Sandhu and Kapoor (2010), Wu and Lin (2014) and Yeo et al., (2011) (*see Appendix 3 – Sources of Consumer awareness of CSR dimensions*).

d) Section D: Consequences of consumer awareness of CSR

The scale that was used to measure consequences of consumer awareness of CSR is shown on the questionnaire used for the study (*see Appendix 12 – Research instrument: Section D*). The variables were constructed in the realm of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intentions and actual purchase behaviour. The establishment of variables that were used under the consequences of consumer awareness of CSR is anchored on studied and reviewed literature. The sources used include Axelsson and Jahan (2015), Bystrom and Malstad (2013), Garcia-Jimenez et al., (2017), Rivera et al., (2016), Wongpich et al., (2016) and Wu and Lin (2014) (*see Appendix 4 – Sources of Consequences of consumer awareness of CSR dimensions*).

5.7.2 Measurement scales

Issues commonly addressed in studies for measurement include concepts, variables, constructs and operationalisation (Zikmund et al., 2010). This study included a basis of what themes, concepts and variables to measure in light of the corresponding research questions and hypotheses. At least four types or levels of scale measurements were identified for this research in accordance with the field of social science research. The measurement scales can be referred to as nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Creswell (2014) deliberates on the given scales as follows; a nominal scale means a scale that exists in name only, where there is no greater or smaller, an interval scale is an improvement from the ordinal scale by introducing the distance property and a ratio scale is an improved interval scale in that it allows responses to be compared between the respondents.

Schiffman et al., (2014) concurs with Solomon et al., (2013) on identifying other measuring scales away from the mentioned. In line with this recommendations, other scales were used to measure consumer perception of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention, actual purchase behaviour in the form of comparative and non-comparative ratings. Other scales that were used to measure consumer behaviour in marketing research include Likert scales, semantic differential scales, staple scale, graphic rating scale and behavioural intention scales. The researcher mainly used the Likert scale in this study.

5.8 Data collection procedures

According to Hair Jr, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008) data collection is a process of gathering or collecting relevant information for a study. Aaker et al., (2007) supporting Zikmund

and Babin (2007) identified three broad categories to classify data collection methods, ranging from primary to secondary, qualitative to quantitative and obtrusive to unobtrusive. According to Zikmund et al., (2010) when the researcher physically interacts with the respondents in data collection, the research process is considered to be obtrusive in nature. This study used obtrusive types of data collecting method, collected both qualitative and quantitative data, and implemented both primary and secondary data collection techniques.

The researcher and research assistants collected data by getting into the streets and service centres intercepting respondents. The researcher and the research assistants greeted the respondents, explained issues about the research including purpose, confidentiality and requested the respondent to read the information sheet and sign the consent form after agreeing to participate. The researcher and research assistants also assisted in clarifying issues, recording or filling the questionnaire as per the respondents' needs or requests. Qualitative and quantitative data were discussed in this chapter under the research strategy. The study used various forms of literature for secondary data to help illuminate issues that are discussed in this study.

The study used primary data or primary research to develop empirical evidence of the research problem at hand. The questionnaire was developed in the light of the research problem, objectives, model and hypotheses that emerged from literature study. The rationale for using a questionnaire to collect data is that the study is a cross-sectional survey which requires both qualitative and quantitative data. Saunders et al. (2009) hails this approach as having a better success rate by saying, despite the fact that a questionnaire can be costly and tedious to be physically administered, a physically administered questionnaire has historically proven to have the highest response rate.

The researcher sought permission to carry out this study from the UNISA SBL ethical clearance/research committee and permission was granted as shown in the ethical certificate (*see Appendix 5 – Ethical clearance certificate with certificate number 2018_SBL_DBL_018_FA and Appendix 6 - the Supervisors Confirmation of Supervision letter*). The researcher went on to carry out the study or engage in data collection upon approval. In the field, the researcher sought permission to conduct the research study from the Director General in charge of the Telecommunications sector (*see Appendix 7 – POTRAZ Director General Approval letter*).

The researcher sought for consent with the respondents by allowing respondents to read the information sheet and sign a consent form (*see Appendix 8 – Information sheet and Consent form*).

During the entire study and beyond, the researcher respected the privacy, confidentiality, anonymity and exertion of no force, coercion, bribe or gifts towards the respondents. The researcher did not manipulate or alter data in any way to favour or disadvantage any part or cause. The researcher did not leave any data uncollected, written or recorded, in the hands of respondents or service centre employees.

The researcher hired research assistants who had marketing and research backgrounds, at the same time good at speaking and writing in the required language (English - the main language of the study). The research assistants were well oriented or inducted as to the purposes, objectives and principles to be observed before, during and after the study. The research assistants, editor and statistician used to aid in the study were required to read and fill in confidentiality and agreement forms (*see Appendix 9 – Research Assistant Confidentialty and Agreement form, Appendix 10 - Editor Confidentialty and Agreement form and Appendix 11 - Statistician Confidentialty and Agreement form*).

5.9 Data analysis and presentation methods

Data presentation, analysis and discussion involves the use of collected primary data to react to questions and goals which the study has set to answer (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Data presentation, analysis and discussion is done to explore the similarities or differences, patterns or items of particular distinction and to make these visible or sensible (Mishra & Alok, 2017).

5.9.1 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data analysis section makes up the bulk of the data analysis and presentation of the study report. The study used SPSS version 21 combined with AMOS version 12, both are statistical analysis tools to engage in understanding socio-demographic variables, construct descriptive statistics and structural equation modelling. Variables were tested with regards to significant differences, relationships and predicting the degree or extent of influence on another and influence on the final structural model developed. Firstly, the researcher assessed the scripts for maximum accuracy and precision in terms of legibility, completeness, consistence and clarity or ambiguity and conducted the following quantitative tests shown on Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2: SUMMARY - STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Purpose	Statistical Technique	Main Uses
Assessing if data can be subjected to Structural Equation Modelling	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)	Measure of sampling adequacy.
	Bartlett's test of sphericity	Support sample adequacy in identifying level of redundancy and correlations in variables.
	Exploratory factor analysis	Test the validity of the instrument and assessing level of random errors.
	Descriptive statistics	To measure the mean and standard deviation of responses on items.
	Standard error bars	To assess the totality of internal error or consistency on a component.
	Cronbach alpha and Composite reliability	Test data for internal consistency - reliability of the instrument.
	Average variance extracted (AVE)	Measure amount of variance assumed by a construct relative to the amount of variance due to measurement error.
	Squared inter-construct correlations (SIC)	Measure the amount of power of resemblance to each other of the units under the same construct.
Approval or disapproval of items	Measurement model	To assess how study variables come together to explain the proposed model.
	Structural model	To assess how constructs relate to each other, approval and disapproval of hypotheses.
Assessing the fit of the measurement and structural model	Chained multilateral index number (CMIN/DF)	To ensure model analysis is less dependent on sample size.
	Goodness of fit index (GFI)	Test the fraction of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance.
	Adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI)	Adjusts the GIF basing on the degrees of freedom.
	Normed fit index (NFI)	Mirrors the percentage by which the study's model enhances fit matched to the null model.

	Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	Penalises for model complexity and is relatively independent of sample size.
	Comparative fit index (CFI)	Is a revised form of the NFI, which takes cognizance of sample size.
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Tests how the model fit the population covariance matrix.

Sources - Arkkelin, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Hair et al., 2014; Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Morgan, 2013; Pallant, 2005; Saunders et al., 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Zikmund et al., 2010

5.9.2 Qualitative data analysis

The qualitative data analysis section makes up the smallest portion of the data analysis and presentation section of the study report. The researcher used the qualitative section to confirm factors influencing CSR awareness and the extent of CSR awareness by consumers. The analysis was done using NVIVO version 8's qualitative tools which include mainly the generation of quotable quotes, word frequencies, word cloud and text search queries from the data supplied. This makes the qualitative section to be intertwined with the quantitative section only on the part of providing additional factors (antecedents) influencing CSR awareness and demonstrating the degree of CSR awareness. Responses to open-ended questions were typed in the format readable by the NVIVO version 8 software which later provided the quotable quotes, word frequency, word cloud and text search query analysis for interpretation.

5.10 Reliability and Validity

Validity can be internal or external and can be referred to as the extent to which the supposed test measures are relevant (Collis & Hussey, 2013; Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin & Summers, 1977). Internal validity hinges on factors such as timeline, testing, instrumentation, maturation, mortality and statistical regression (Cohen et al., 2013; Saunders et al., 2007). On timeline, the study was conducted at a time when consumers can remember the mobile telecommunications sector firms, their activities and growth in the economy. On testing, the collected study data was not sensitive and did not result in the victimisation of any respondents. The researcher gave the respondents an option to ask for feedback after the study was completed to ensure that the data presented is factually correct. On instrumentation, there was reliably no changes or modification of answers done to give off biased or misleading responses due to the fact that there was one form of standardised

questionnaire that was used throughout the survey. On maturation, the questionnaire design was done in such a way that the questions were clear, short and precise to reduce fatigue, stress or tiredness. On mortality, the study adopted a cross-sectional rather than longitudinal survey and test subjects responded to the questionnaire in full the moment it was administered. The researcher eliminated dropouts by requesting voluntary participation, reading and signing of information and consent sheet before the respondent began to fill in the questionnaire.

External validity entails factors such as impact of pre-testing, effect of inclusion and exclusion criteria, multiple experiment interference and reactions to experimental arrangement (Cohen et al., 2013; Saunders et al., 2007). On impact of pre-testing, a pilot test was conducted mainly to ensure clarity, efficiency or making it easy on questioning. However, the researcher did not change the objectivity or constructs that were being measured. On the effect of inclusion and exclusion criteria, because the outcomes of a study could be maximised if random sampling and methods were used, the study used convenience-judgemental sampling approach. This approach worked well due to the size of the population which was very large and population characteristics whereby any adult consumer could respond to the questions in the study. To maximise outcomes of findings, the study picked respondents from streets and service centres of the mobile telecommunications sector firms. On multiple experiment effect, the researcher believes no similar research has been conducted on the consumers of mobile telecommunications sector that can affect the current research outcomes. On the reactions to experimental arrangements, the researcher was aware of the Hawthorne effect and therefore guarded against manipulating the physical environment in whatsoever way that could impact the respondents' free responses. The researcher ensured that the respondents answered as freely as they could, no one was taken into a secret corner to respond, for example, for this would have achieved different results.

Reliability measures consistency of research processes, questions and instruments in bringing similar outcomes with the same respondents if the study is carried out again (Creswell, 2003; Collis & Hussey, 2013). To ensure reliability, first and foremost due diligence was ensured by following and meeting the requirements of the SBL research stages and colloquium presentations. Next, the study was approved by the SBL Research Committee, upon meeting the required research standards. On an instrument in the study, the questionnaire was developed using previous researcher standards, questionnaires or literature and research constructs recommended by various indexes such as the KLD CSR index for CSR themes. Theoretical measures and dimensions were also reviewed in the literature to ensure contrast validity.

Wainer and Braun (1988) emphasises the need for reviewing initial concepts of the research to achieve contrast strength in research findings. The questionnaire was submitted to the supervisors after consultation with questionnaire experts in the Research department at Chinhoyi University of Technology. The questionnaire was also reviewed by colleagues in the Marketers Association of Zimbabwe which is a renowned professional marketing body in Zimbabwe, where the researcher is also a registered member. Before final administration of the questionnaire, the questionnaire was submitted to the UNISA Ethical Review committee and further on field pilot-tested. Reliability of questions and instruments was also tested using Cronbach Alpha test which allowed for deleting of unnecessary questions leaving out those with the highest Alpha value to be used for this study.

To attain reliability at the questionnaire development level, the researcher with the assistance of the supervisor, made efforts to ensure content or wording involved in the pre-set questions was relevant to the study. Simple English was used in the study so as to cater for all literacy levels amongst the respondents. Where necessary, prior definitions (or expansion of abbreviations) of some words which were used in the questions were to be given to ensure that the respondents understand questions faster and clearly. Most importantly, the researcher ensured that the targeted respondents' number was reached with respect to the benchmark of 1,000 respondents that were recommended by former related researches and that all scripts were at full or highest level of completion to minimise spoilt questionnaires.

5.11 Ethical considerations

Ethics are standards for behaviour that distinguish between right and wrong, moral and immoral, acceptable and non-acceptable (Hair et al., 2011). With regard to research, Saunders et al., (2009) state that ethics pertain to morals that shape how one carries out research or how the research study is conducted. The researcher practiced ethics in carrying out the research in the following manner;

5.11.1 Permission letters

The research study intent, methodology, questionnaire, company permission letters and ethical clearance request forms were submitted for ethical clearance at the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee which granted a research clearance certificate (*see Appendix 5 – Ethics clearance*). The researcher sought for individual respondent's consent by allowing the respondent to read, understand the information sheet and sign the consent form. According to Zikmund et al., (2010) a

respondent's consent is reached when the participant has understood what the research and researcher wants them to do.

5.11.2 Benefits for participants

The researcher did not offer economic or other benefits in-order to obtain participants' consent to participate in the study. The researcher did not deceive in any way or lure or cause any kind of misleading or misrepresentation or encouragement to get participants for this research or even to cause the participants to answer when they did not want to.

5.11.3 Right to participate or withdraw

The researcher collected data only from respondents who freely gave their consent to participate in the study. The aims of the study and the rights of participants to freely participate in the study were clearly spelt out in the consent form. The participants were informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any stage without suffering any negative consequences. This means the researcher did not use any kind of force to get the respondents to participate. When the respondent identified was not willing to answer, the researcher simply moved to the next possible willing candidate.

5.11.4 Language and discrimination

The study did not use any kind of offensive, discriminatory or any other unacceptable language or jargon in the formulation of questions in the questionnaire. Kotler and Keller (2015) forbid the use of strange language, uncommon language or any form that would make the respondents fail to understand the questions or requirements of the questionnaire. The study did not discriminate the participants according to sex, religious group and any other factor considered unnecessary in this study or which would render the study invalid.

5.11.5 Fairness

The study endeavoured to avoid any form of bias in the literature review, research design, data collection, presentation, analysis or interpretation and discussion. The study used the highest level of objectivity to make the research process and findings useful.

5.11.6 Reporting results and plagiarism

The researcher did not manipulate any findings to suit or fit any purpose deemed necessary but reported the research data findings as they are, or as they were extracted from data processing software used. Anywhere the researcher used scholars' information, the researcher acknowledged by citing in text and referencing in the bibliography section.

5.11.7 Data storage, security and handling

The researcher kept hard copies of the collected data in a safe locked place and digital data in a password secured laptop. The researcher ensured that the research aids in the form of field persons, editor and statistician read and signed a confidentiality agreement form in order to perform the required tasks.

5.12 Due diligence

Due diligence is considered practical stages taken to ensure no offence has been committed in the research processes (Malhotra, 2010). The researcher took responsibility and action to guard against the study's prudence with respect to originality, literature review, methodology and data collection procedure as shown in Table 5.3.

TABLE 5.3: DUE DILIGENCE

Originality	The researcher conducted a literature review to bring out knowledge gaps with respect to CSR awareness, its antecedents and consequences.
Literature review	The researcher reviewed literature in order to engage with main issues, constructs or variables of the study. Literature review enabled comprehending the forms of constructs or variables and the relationships that exist among them.
Methodology	The study used literature or scholarly backed standards on determining the target population, sample size, designing research instrument, administering the questionnaire, data analysis, data presentation and discussion of findings.
Data collection and analysis procedure	The study religiously followed the requirements and standards of the SBL Ethical Committee in collecting data. The researcher started by getting institution permission to carry out research and attained a clearance certificate. The researcher also attained agreement from research aids (field persons, editor and statistician). The researcher attained consent from respondents in the field

	before they completed the questionnaire. The researcher waited and collected completed questionnaires for data presentation and analysis.
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5.13 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the methodology or methods that were utilised to collect, present and analyse data in this study. The chapter also looked at issues of validity, reliability, measurement or scales and ethics in conducting this research study. A mixed method approach was used, then an open-ended and closed-ended questionnaire was used to collect data from 1,100 participants. The researcher observed ethical requirements such as attaining approval to carry out the research, getting consent from participants, respecting the rights of participants to privacy, confidentiality and keeping the collected information safe. Validity and reliability issues were also handled. The following chapter presents the findings of the study.

Chapter Six: Data Presentation and Analysis

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the research methodology that was used in this study. A mixed method approach was selected, which means both qualitative and quantitative data will be presented in this chapter. The analysis and presentation of results is premised on the objectives of the study, namely (i) to determine the influence of ethical consumerism, rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector (ii) to determine the effects of age, gender and level of education on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector (iii) to determine the effect of CSR awareness on corporate image, attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour on consumers in the mobile telecommunications sector (iv) to test the effects of corporate image on consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector (v) to test the effects of consumer attitude on purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector, and (vi) to test the effects of purchase intention on actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector. The major sections in this chapter have been broken down to the quantitative section (response rate analysis, socio-demographic analysis, descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, reliability and validity, and testing of research hypotheses) and the qualitative section (measurement of the extent of CSR awareness and CSR communications).

6.2 Quantitative statistics phase

The quantitative section presents data on the response rate analysis, socio-demographic analysis, descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, reliability and validity, and testing of research hypotheses as follows;

6.2.1 Response rate analysis

The initial target of the study was 1,100 questionnaires and 1,006 questionnaires were successfully completed and considered satisfactory for analysis. Response rate analysis is shown on Table 6.1.

TABLE 6.1: RESPONSE RATE ANALYSIS	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Questionnaires administered	1,100	100.0
Questionnaires completed and useful for the study	1,006	91.5%

Results in Table 6.1 show a response rate of 91.5%. According to Mishra and Alok (2017) a response rate of 70% and above on data collecting instruments administered and returned or targeted participants' response is considered as satisfactory and acceptable. A 91.5% response rate attained in this study is both satisfactory and acceptable for further data analysis to take place. The data set was cleaned before any form of analysis was applied, and data screening checks were conducted to ensure data reliability, validity and usability before subjecting to other statistical tests.

6.2.2 Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

Demographic information about the respondents is important for analysis in order to determine what characteristics of respondents are (Kothari, 2004; Ragab & Arisha, 2017). In the consumer behaviour field, it is crucial to understand the population's socio-demographic characteristics since the details constitute market segmentation variables (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Solomon et al., 2013). The study measured nine socio-demographic variables which are gender, age, level of education, occupation, gross monthly income, residential area, religion, telecommunications service provider and place of permanent residence. Table 6.2 below show the socio-demographic information about the respondents.

TABLE 6.2: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Variable	Item	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	436	43.3
	Female	570	56.7
	Total	1,006	100.0
Age	18-24 years	456	45.3
	25-54 years	495	49.2
	55-65 years	55	5.5
	Total	1006	100.0
Level of Education	Primary education	26	2.6
	Secondary education	46	4.6
	Higher and Tertiary Education	934	92.8
	Total	1006	100.0
Occupation	Student	431	42.8
	Company employee	273	27.1
	Self employed	104	10.3

	Unemployed	171	17.0
	Retired	27	2.7
	Total	1006	100.0
Gross Monthly Income	Less than \$500.00	231	23.0
	\$500-\$999	193	19.2
	\$1000-\$1499	76	7.6
	\$1500-\$1999	28	2.8
	\$2000-\$2499	25	2.5
	\$2500-\$3000	14	1.4
	Above \$3000	45	4.5
	Not applicable	394	39.2
	Total	1006	100.0
Residential Area	High density	323	32.1
	Medium density	396	39.4
	Low density	287	28.5
	Total	1006	100.0
Religion	Christianity	991	98.5
	Islam	3	0.3
	Hindu	3	0.3
	Traditional	9	0.9
	Total	1006	100.0
Telecommunications Service provider	Econet Wireless	411	40.9
	NetOne Zimbabwe	90	8.9
	Telecel Zimbabwe	68	6.8
	More than one Sim Card	437	43.4
	Total	1006	100.0
Place of permanent residence	Harare	754	75.0
	Mutare	54	5.4
	Kwekwe	13	1.3
	Masvingo	20	2.0
	Marondera	14	1.4
	Chinhoyi	50	5.0
	Kadoma	15	1.5
	Other	86	8.6
	Total	1006	100.0

a) Gender

The study shows that there were more female (56.7%) than male (43.3%) respondents, indicating that the study was conducted on a higher ratio of females than males. The results are in line with

ZIMSTAT (2017) population statistics of Zimbabwe that show that there are more females than males in the country. Twenge (2006) experienced more feministic characteristics and opinions emerging in a study due to a higher female to male ratio. Kim and Kim (2016) states that on a CSR study with more females than males, more of philanthropic or generosity CSR is expected while on CSR studies with more males, profits and firm growth are central thus preference is given on economic responsibilities in CSR. We will see if the same is true on this study.

b) Age

The study shows that 45.3% of the respondents were aged between 18 and 24, 49.2% between 25 and 54, and 5.5% between 55 and 65. According to Shabbir et al., (2018) age groups below 55 are considered more young, energetic, affluent, information and education seeking. The highest percentage of the study's respondents ($94.5\% = 45.3\% + 49.2\%$) fall in this category. This implies that respondents to this study were vibrant and information seeking, therefore are aware of firm activities which include CSR initiatives. The results are in line with ZIMSTAT's (2013, 2014; 2017) reports that Zimbabwe has had a significantly young and energetic population for a considerable number of years, which is very mobile as they shop around and seek for information.

c) Level of education

The study shows that 2.6% of the respondents had attained primary level of education, 4.6% had attained secondary level of education and 92.8% had attained higher and tertiary level of education. This corresponds with Marumbwa's (2013) contention that Zimbabwe comprises a larger population with or who are pursuing higher and tertiary studies ranging from certificates, diplomas, undergraduate and post higher level degrees locally or abroad. The higher the level of education implies a better appreciation or understanding of business activities, strategies and initiatives.

d) Occupation

The study shows that 42.8% of the respondents were students, 27.1% were the working group or employees, 10.3% were self-employed, 17.0% were unemployed and 2.7% were retired. Su (2006) argues that the student population, followed by employees in various sectors, are more affluent regarding business activities and information. The fact that the study has more students and company employees as respondents implies participants that are affluent and more aware.

e) Monthly gross income

The responses provided regarding gross monthly income show that 23.0% of the respondents had a gross monthly income of less than US\$500, while 19.2% had a gross monthly income of between \$500 - \$999. The remainder of the respondents were between US\$1000 - US\$1499 (7.6%), US\$1500 - US\$1999 (2.8%), US\$2000 - US\$2499 (2.5%), US\$2500 - US\$3000 (1.4%) and above US\$3000 (4.5%). A significant percentage of respondents indicated not applicable (39.2%) which could mean they did not have a fixed monthly income. A substantial fraction of the respondents had a gross monthly income that is below US\$999 (42.2% = 23.0% + 19.2%) and these findings concur with the World Bank (2013) categorisation of Zimbabwe as a low-income country with a GDP of US\$500 per annum. This implies that Zimbabwe is considered a poor nation with people who have low monthly incomes.

f) Residential area

The study shows that there is an even distribution of respondents' residential areas with 32.1% of the respondents residing in high-density areas, 39.4% in the medium density and 28.5% in the low density areas. The possible explanation for this kind of distribution is that most of the mobile telecommunications service firms' main, sub-offices and technical branches are situated in the central business districts and other business centers accessible by the rest of the population regardless of their residential area.

g) Religion

The results show respondents as principally Christians (98.5%) while a marginal are Islam (0.3%), Hindu (0.3%) and a small number follow the African traditional religion (0.9%). Sahwira Online (2013) concurs with Religion in Zimbabwe (2013) that Zimbabwe is greatly a Christian nation. Singh and Malla (2017) believe that a cultural component such as religion affects the manner, awareness and interest in certain CSR activities. Singh and Malla (2017) note that Indian cultures and/ or believers favour philanthropic related CSR initiatives. This is also true of Christian communities as Ramasamy et al., (2010) and Schwartz and Huisman (1995) state that Christian communities believe in collectivism and philanthropic CSR. This suggests that Zimbabwe, being predominantly Christian nation, may exhibit collectivism and philanthropic CSR.

h) Telecommunications service provider

The researcher found that 43.4% of the respondents use more than one SIM card from different service providers, while specifically 40.9% use Econet Wireless SIM card services, 8.9% use NetOne Zimbabwe services and 6.8% use Telecel Zimbabwe services. POTRAZ (2015, 2017) reports a high Econet subscriber base and an increasing number of subscribers with more than one SIM card. The latter is evidenced by a total of 17.1 million subscribers across the mobile telecommunications firms in Zimbabwe, a country which has a total population currently reaching only 14million, with more than a third of the population under 18 and most likely not having phones.

i) Place of permanent residence

The results show that 75.0% of the respondents permanently reside in Harare, 5.4% in Mutare, 1.3% in Kwekwe, 2.0% in Masvingo, 1.4% in Marondera, 5.0% in Chinhoyi, 1.5% in Kadoma and 8.6% in others areas. According to the World Population Review (2017) Harare is a metropolitan city with a capacity to draw or attract people from various areas around Zimbabwe to temporarily visit, do their business and return to their places of permanent residence. Data was gathered in Harare, but some consumers permanently reside outside Harare and come to shop there which is a possible explanation of the metropolitan city having a proportion of respondents permanently residing in other areas outside Harare.

6.2.3 Factor analysis

According to Thomas and Brad (2014), exploratory factor analysis is executed to explore the data structure, removing problem elements and cleaning data, however, this is done without manipulating the data. Exploratory factor analysis was performed for each group of constructs namely antecedents of CSR awareness (ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness, and consumer generosity), CSR awareness, and consequences of CSR awareness (corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention, and actual purchase behavior). This was done so as not to lose a lot of data since there were so many items (72 items) in the research instrument. According to Israel (2018) researchers are encouraged, during data analysis, to carry out an exercise of determining sample adequacy and make an assessment of whether data can allow for exploratory factor analysis. Therefore, before embarking on exploratory factor analysis, a test of

whether it is possible to conduct exploratory factor analysis was done using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity. The KMO statistic was used to test sample adequacy. The KMO statistics range between 0 and 1, where 0 indicates absolute sample inadequacy and 1 depicts absolute sample adequacy. The recommended KMO statistic is a 0.5 representing a minimum for sample adequacy while the Bartlett's test of Sphericity statistic has to be significant at $p < 0.05$ (Arkkelin, 2014; Field, 2005).

a) KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity statistics

Table 6.3 shows the KMO and Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity prepared to test whether data can allow for exploratory factor analysis.

TABLE 6.3: KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST OF SPHERICITY STATISTICS

Main construct	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Antecedents of CSR awareness	0.885	10,128.885	351	<0.001
CSR awareness	0.851	7,503.008	231	<0.001
Consequences of CSR awareness	0.928	11.691.845	253	<0.001

A KMO statistic of 0.885, 0.851 and 0.928 (greater than the expected 0.5) and a Bartlett's test with p value of (<0.001) (the standard is $p < 0.001$) (Field, 2005), shows that the sample was adequate on the constructs (antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR awareness and consequences of CSR awareness), no variable redundancy and variables correlate under the constructs at acceptable levels. The KMO and Bartlett's test of Sphericity statistics indicate that exploratory factor analysis can be performed on this data. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were adopted because they are particularly suited to test sample adequacy and permit exploratory factor analysis to take place (Arkkelin, 2014; Nind et al., 2015; Ragab & Arisha, 2017; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Exploratory factor analysis was the next step following the KMO and Bartlett's test of Sphericity.

b) Exploratory factory analysis

According to Darlington (2004), factor loadings are a determinant of the quality of individual items and confirm the correlated-ness or orthogonality of items. Truong and McColl (2011) suggest that an acceptable factor loading exist at 0.5 and above (≥ 0.5), while Chen and Tsai (2007) agree with Ertz, Karakas and Sarigollu (2016) that factor loadings of 0.6 and above (≥ 0.6) are a better cut-off point. The total variance explained ensures that there is no considerable random error left in any

measure or item of measure (Yamkovenko & Hatala, 2015). Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2014) concur with Peterson (2000) that total variance explained should not be the maximum 100% (100% >) but should be above 60% ($\geq 60\%$), though a total variance explained percentage of 50% and above ($\geq 50\%$) is satisfactory. An item is deleted when it appears as a single item measurement on a component, implying that a single item is not a reliable measure of a construct (Hair Jr et al., 2014; Turner, 2015). According to Hair Jr et al., an item is not valid when it appears on more than one measurement component too, a concept known as ‘cross-loading’. Table 6.4 below shows the exploratory factor analysis for antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR awareness and consequences of CSR awareness.

TABLE 6.4: EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Antecedents of CSR awareness						CSR awareness					Consequences of CSR awareness						
Rotated Component Matrix ^a						Rotated Component Matrix ^a					Rotated Component Matrix ^a						
	Component						Component						Component				
	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5
ETC1				0.633		ETH1			0.770			COI1		0.708			
ETC2				0.739		ETH2			0.737			COI2		0.815			
ETC3				0.697		ETH3			0.701			COI3		0.767			
ETC4				0.672		ETH4			0.692			COI4		0.686			
ETC5				0.678		ETH5			0.466			COI5		0.711			
CRA1					0.698	PHI1				0.782		COA1	0.538	0.408			
CRA2	0.491					PHI2				0.749		COA2	0.638	0.411			
CRA3	0.644					PHI3				0.749		COA3	0.651				
CRA4	0.668					PHI4					0.556	COA4	0.758				
CRA5	0.743					PHI5					0.549	COA5	0.687				
CRA6	0.766					LEG1	0.728					COA6	0.680				
CRA7	0.702					LEG2	0.752					COA7	0.693				
CRA8	0.745					LEG3	0.761					COA8	0.706				
CRA9	0.711					LEG4	0.651					PUI1				0.668	
CRA10	0.728					LEG5	0.621					PUI2				0.752	
CRA11	0.677					LEG6	0.589					PUI3	0.403				0.655
SEA1			0.687			ECO1						PUI4			0.484	0.434	
SEA2			0.787			ECO2		0.725				PUI5					0.517
SEA3			0.715			ECO3		0.762				APB1			0.593	0.461	
SEA4			0.664			ECO4		0.759				APB2			0.660		
SEA5			0.715			ECO5		0.730				APB3			0.594		
CGC1		0.492				ECO6		0.446			0.524	APB4			0.792		
CGC2		0.678				Extraction Method: Principal Component					APB5			0.754			
CGC3		0.715				Analysis.											

CGC4		0.731				Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser	Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations. Factor loadings less than 0.4 were suppressed. Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00 Total variance explained = 59.972%
CGC5		0.760				Normalization.	
CGC6		0.672				a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations. Factor loadings less than 0.4 were suppressed. Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00 Total variance explained = 54.759%						Factor loadings less than 0.4 were suppressed. Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00 Total variance explained = 53.345%	

The results in Table 6.4 show that all the items that are not highlighted are suitable (quality) for measuring antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR awareness and consequences of CSR awareness due to the fact that their factor loadings are above the required threshold (≥ 0.6) (Hair et al., 2014). The total variance explained by these factor loadings was 54.759% (antecedents of CSR awareness), 53.345% (CSR awareness) and 59.972% (consequences of CSR awareness) above the satisfactory threshold ($\geq 50\%$) (Hair et al., 2010) implying that the data is free from random errors.

Overall, the highlighted items were removed for further analysis because of factor loadings of less than 0.6 (CRA2 0.491, CGC1 0.492, ETH5 0.466, PHI4 0.556, PHI5 0.549, LEG6 0.589, ECO1<0.4, PUI5 0.517 and APB3 0.594). Item ECO1's factor loading does not appear due to the fact that it was eliminated by the first level decision rule of suppressing data output of factor loadings below 0.4.

CRA1 (on the antecedents of CSR awareness construct) together with PHI4 and PHI5 (on the CSR awareness construct) were deleted because the items' measurement existed under a component that is different from the remainder of the items under the same construct. According to Hair Jr et al., (2014) and Turner (2015), a single item under its own component is not a reliable measure of a construct. On CSR awareness, ECO6 was deleted due to cross-loading and on the consequences of CSR awareness COA1, COA2, PUI3, PUI4 and APB1 were similarly deleted due to cross-loading. According to Hair Jr et al., (2014), an item that appears on more than one measuring component is inappropriate for measuring a construct. The exploratory factor analysis for antecedents of CSR awareness resulted into four components as shown in Table 6.5.

TABLE 6.5: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS ON ANTECEDENTS OF CSR AWARENESS

Component	Code	Emphasis
Ethical consumerism	ETC	Consumer exhibition of ethical behaviour or tendencies on their decision-making process on evaluating a firm, buying its products or services, using, recycling and disposing off of products or services.
Consumer rights awareness	CRA	Consumers demonstration of awareness of their rights and knowledge regarding the types, forms or nature of rights in the marketplace and business world.
Socio-Environmental Awareness	SEA	Consumer awareness of or consumer perception of mobile telecommunications firm's activities with respect to societal and environmental consciousness and care.
Consumer Generosity Culture	CGC	Consumer willingness to be generous as a culture instilled in them, a social responsibility ethos and how this can relate with improving awareness of firm generosity.

The remaining items from factor analysis in Table 6.4 that were used to develop Table 6.5 confirm that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture are significant constructs that can be used to measure antecedents of consumer CSR awareness in the Zimbabwean mobile telecommunications sector, therefore, they were used for the purposes of this study.

The exploratory factor analysis for CSR awareness resulted in four components, as shown in Table 6.6.

TABLE 6.6: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS ON CSR AWARENESS

Component	Code	Emphasis
Ethical responsibilities	ETH	The awareness and understanding by a consumer of the values, morals and professionalism demonstrated by the mobile telecommunications firm.
Philanthropic responsibilities	PHI	The manner in which consumers are aware and understand how the mobile telecommunications firms extend a hand or assist in improving the community or its citizens.

Legal responsibilities	LEG	The extent to which consumers believe that the mobile telecommunications firms follow local and international legal guidelines or policies in operations.
Economic responsibilities	ECO	The extent to which consumers believe that the mobile telecommunications firms have interest in improving sales, profits, assets, growth and equity.

The remaining items from factor analysis in Table 6.4 that were used to develop Table 6.6 which confirms that ethical responsibilities, philanthropic responsibilities, legal responsibilities and economic responsibilities are accurate constructs that can be used to measure consumer CSR awareness in the Zimbabwean mobile telecommunications sector, therefore, they were used for the purposes of this study.

The exploratory factor analysis for consequences of CSR awareness resulted in four components, as shown in Table 6.7.

TABLE 6.7: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS ON CONSEQUENCES OF CSR AWARENESS

Component	Code	Emphasis
Corporate image	COI	The extent to which consumers believe that the mobile telecommunications firms have managed to be highly regarded and achieve credibility in the society.
Consumer attitude	COA	The extent to which consumers feel, react and believe in the mobile telecommunications firms. The likability and favourability of the mobile telecommunication firms.
Purchase intention	PUI	The level of willingness, wanting or desire by consumers to patronage, try out and use products or services of the mobile telecommunications firms.
Actual purchase behaviour	APB	What consumers do when buying and using the mobile telecommunications firms' products and services, in terms of frequency, variety and monthly share of wallet.

The remaining items from factor analysis that are shown in Table 6.4 were used to develop Table 6.7 which confirms that corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase

are important constructs that can be used to measure consequences of consumer CSR awareness in the Zimbabwean mobile telecommunications sector, therefore, they were used for the purposes of this study.

6.2.4 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics analysis and reporting should cover, but not be limited to the total frequency, mean, standard deviation and standard error bars (Ragab & Arisha, 2017). Saunders et al., (2009) pronounce the mean (M) as the average for a set of replies while the standard deviation (SD) measures the extent of steadiness of the replies, that is, the spread of replies around the mean. Mishra and Alok (2017) explain that the SD will equal zero when replies are the same, a small SD implies equitably unvarying replies, while a big SD means a large replies variation. Responses were categorised on a 5-point Likert scale; (1) standing for ‘strongly agree’, (2) ‘agree’, (3) ‘neutral’, (4) ‘disagree’ and (5) ‘strongly disagree’. Below are the findings for different factors;

a) Descriptive statistics for ethical consumerism

Table 6.8 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for ethical consumerism. There are 5 items that were used to measure ethical consumerism.

TABLE 6.8: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS - ETHICAL CONSUMERISM

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
ETC1	1006	1.91	0.893
ETC2	1006	1.77	0.915
ETC3	1006	1.78	0.937
ETC4	1006	2.27	0.976
ETC5	1006	2.17	1.059
Overall		1.98	0.956

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.27 ± 0.976 for the item ETC4 (descriptor ‘I seek for moral sourcing and manufacturing of a mobile telecommunication firm’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating of 1.77 ± 0.915 was on item ETC2 (descriptor ‘I look for a mobile telecommunications firm that tells the truth and is transparent’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.98 ± 0.956 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] implying that respondents exhibited a reasonable level of ethical consumerism. Figure 6.1 shows standard error bars suggesting goodness of fit testing for ethical consumerism levels in the respondents.

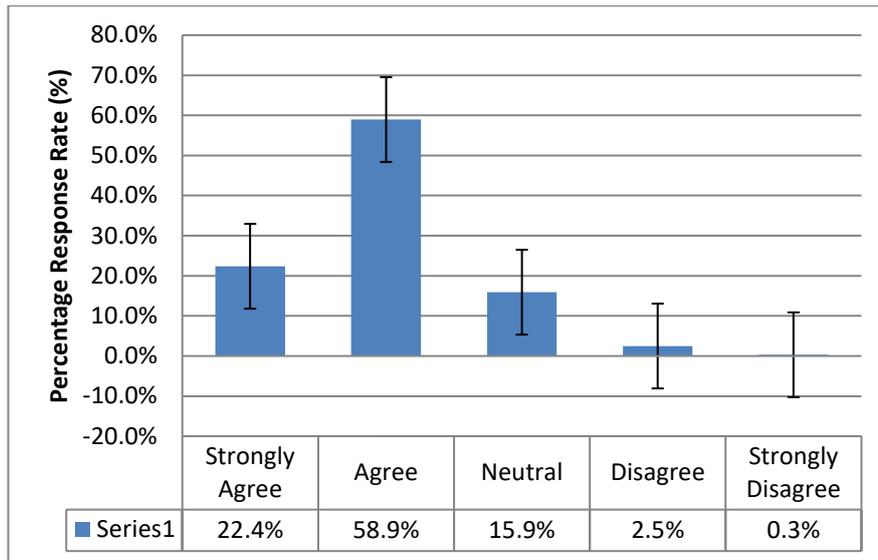


FIGURE 6.1: STANDARD ERROR BARS – ETHICAL CONSUMERISM

Results from Figure 6.1 show that 81.3% (22.4% + 58.9%) of the respondents in the survey displayed satisfactory level of ethical consumerism, as shown by 22.4% strongly agreeing and 58.4% agreeing that the listed items measure ethical consumerism. On the other hand, 2.5% disagreed while 0.3% strongly disagreed, implying that 2.8% (2.5% + 0.3%) of the respondents did not display satisfactory level of ethical consumerism.

Overall, ethical consumerism is a concept that is understood by the Zimbabwean firms and society as demonstrated by good percentages of strongly agree (22.4%) with a commendably high percentage of agree (58.9%). With such percentages, it is not amiss to state that ethical consumerism impact consumers in their decision making process.

b) Descriptive statistics for consumer rights awareness

Table 6.9 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for consumer rights awareness. In total, 9 items were used to measure consumer rights awareness.

TABLE 6.9: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS - CONSUMER RIGHTS AWARENESS

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
CRA3	1006	1.42	0.774
CRA4	1006	1.52	0.852
CRA5	1006	1.35	0.725

CRA6	1006	1.57	0.846
CRA7	1004	1.74	0.865
CRA8	1006	1.49	0.772
CRA9	1000	1.39	0.687
CRA10	1005	1.42	0.715
CRA11	1006	1.41	0.726
Overall		1.48	0.774

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.74 ± 0.865 for the item CRA7 (descriptor ‘I have a right to responsive regulatory authority’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.35 ± 0.725 on item CRA5 (descriptor ‘I have a right to privacy’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.48 ± 0.774 [(1) strongly agree and (2) agree] implying that respondents are aware of their rights as consumers. Figure 6.2 shows standard error bars signifying how well items describe respondents’ awareness of their rights as consumers.

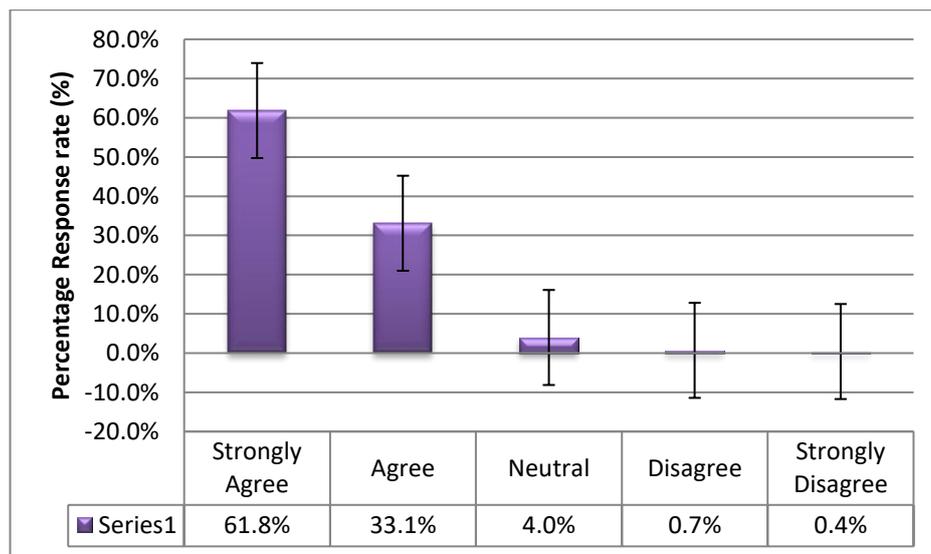


FIGURE 6.2: STANDARD ERROR BARS – CONSUMER RIGHTS AWARENESS

Results from Figure 6.2 show that 94.9% (61.8% + 33.1%) of the respondents in the survey are aware of their rights as consumers, as 61.8% strongly agreed and 33.1% agreed that the listed items adequately measure consumer rights awareness. On the other hand, 1.1% (0.7% + 0.4%) of the respondents show low levels of awareness of their rights as consumers, as 0.7% disagreed and 0.4% strongly disagreed to the items on the research instrument as pointers of consumer rights.

Zimbabweans have largely shown high level of rights awareness as indicated by a high percentage of strongly agree (61.8%) followed by a good percentage of agree (33.1%). These percentages show that consumer behaviour in Zimbabwe is greatly influenced by rights in the marketplace.

c) Descriptive statistics for socio-environmental awareness

Table 6.10 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for socio-environmental awareness. In total, 5 items were used to measure socio-environmental awareness.

TABLE 6.10: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – SOCIO-ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
SEA1	1006	2.28	1.078
SEA2	1006	2.33	1.029
SEA3	1006	2.05	0.957
SEA4	1006	2.28	1.081
SEA5	1006	2.17	1.059
Overall		2.22	1.041

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.33 ± 1.029 for the item SEA2 (descriptor ‘The mobile telecommunications firm I use makes efforts to protect the society’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.05 ± 0.957 on item SEA3 (descriptor ‘The mobile telecommunications firm I use sell products that are not harmful’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ is 2.22 ± 1.041 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] denotes a reasonable degree of respondents’ awareness of the mobile telecommunications firms’ efforts to ensure socio-environmental sustainability. Figure 6.3 shows standard error bars signifying the preciseness of items on the research instrument in describing respondents’ awareness of mobile telecommunications firms’ socio-environmental efforts.

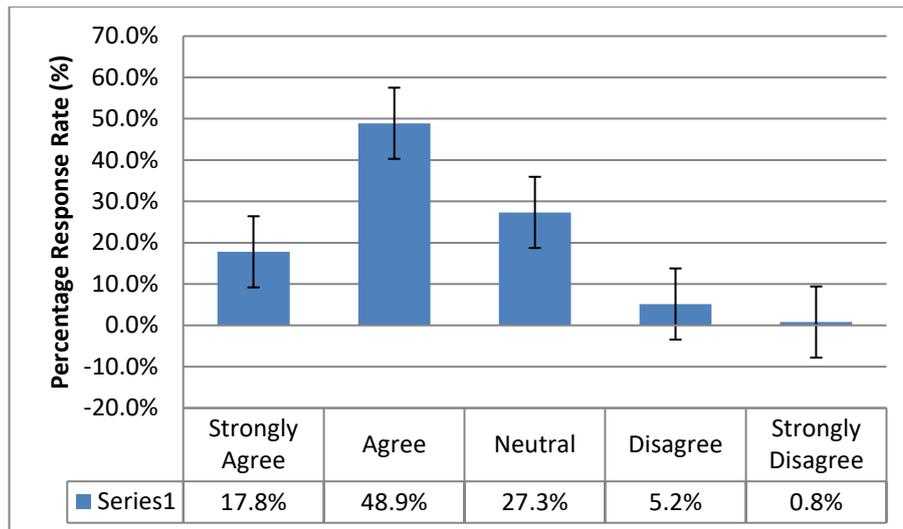


FIGURE 6.3: STANDARD ERROR BARS – SOCIO-ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS

Results from Figure 6.3 show that 66.7% (17.8% + 48.9%) of the respondents in the survey are aware of mobile telecommunications firms’ socio-environmental efforts, as 17.8% strongly agreed and 48.9% agreed that the items on the research instruments elucidate the mobile telecommunications firms’ socio-environmental efforts. On the other hand, 6.0% (5.2% + 0.8%) of the respondents did not agree that the items on the research instrument indicated the mobile telecommunications firms’ socio-environmental efforts, as 5.2% disagreed and 0.8% strongly disagreed.

Generally, Zimbabwean firms and society have demonstrated good level of socio-environmental awareness and consciousness as shown by a strongly agree percentage of 17.8% accompanied by relatively good agree percentage of 48.9%. With these percentages, it is correct to assume that socio-environmental awareness and consciousness influence consumers in their decision making process.

d) Descriptive statistics for consumer generosity culture

Table 6.11 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for consumer generosity culture. There are 5 items that were used to measure consumer generosity culture.

TABLE 6.11: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – CONSUMER GENEROSITY CULTURE

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
CGC2	1006	1.81	0.849
CGC3	1004	1.81	0.849

CGC4	1006	1.69	0.782
CGC5	1006	1.93	0.923
CGC6	1006	1.90	0.898
Overall		1.83	0.860

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.93 ± 0.923 for the item CGC5 (descriptor ‘Voluntary work to help those that need general or my area of speciality labour’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating of 1.69 ± 0.782 was on item CGC4 (descriptor ‘Support the elderly, children and the disadvantaged in any way necessary’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.83 ± 0.860 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] symbolizing a sensible amount of respondents’ generosity culture. Figure 6.4 shows standard error bars that explain the correctness of items used to define respondents’ generosity culture.

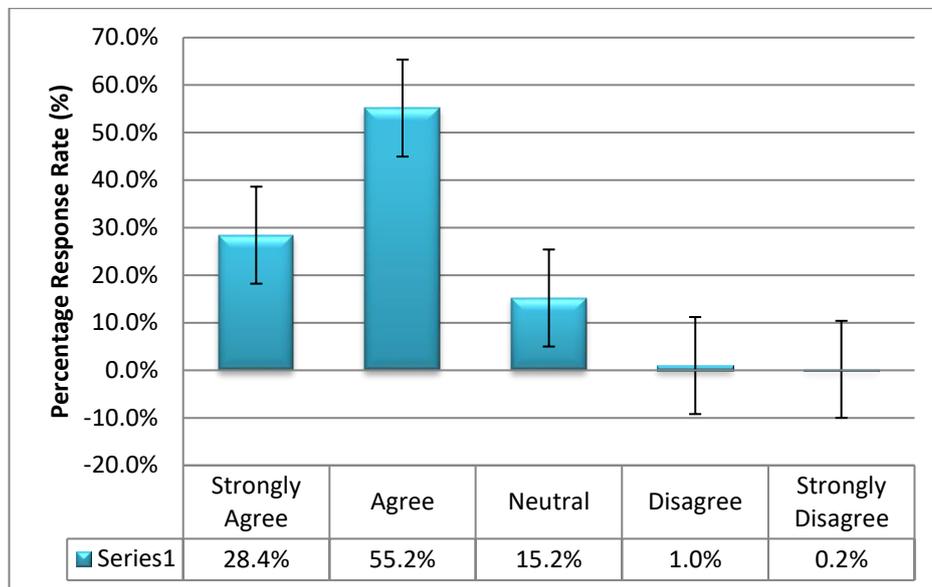


FIGURE 6.4: STANDARD ERROR BARS – CONSUMER GENEROSITY CULTURE

Results from Figure 6.4 show that 83.6% (28.4% + 55.2%) of the respondents in the survey are aware that the mobile telecommunications firms have a culture of generosity, as 28.4% strongly agreed and 55.2% agreed that the mobile telecommunications firms are generous. On the other hand, 1.2% (1.0% + 0.2%) of the respondents did not agree that the mobile telecommunications firms are generous, as 1.0% disagreed while 0.2% strongly disagreed.

Overall, Zimbabweans have a generosity culture that influences their decision making in choosing products to purchase or a company to buy from. This is represented by a reasonable 28.4% strongly agree and 55.2% agree to the understanding of generosity.

e) Descriptive statistics for ethical responsibilities

Table 6.12 presents a summation of descriptive analysis of responses for ethical responsibilities. There are 4 items that were used to measure ethical responsibilities.

TABLE 6.12: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – ETHICAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
ETH1	1003	2.37	1.166
ETH2	1006	2.18	0.975
ETH3	1006	1.90	0.999
ETH4	1006	2.23	1.086
Overall		2.17	1.057

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.37 ± 1.166 for the item ETH1 (descriptor ‘Treats customer respectfully’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.90 ± 0.999 on item ETH3 (descriptor ‘Apologizes in the event of any inconvenience to customers’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 2.17 ± 1.057 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] signifies an acceptable level of mobile telecommunications firms’ ethical responsibility efforts. Figure 6.5 shows standard error bars confirming the accuracy of items used to express mobile telecommunications firms’ ethical responsibility efforts.

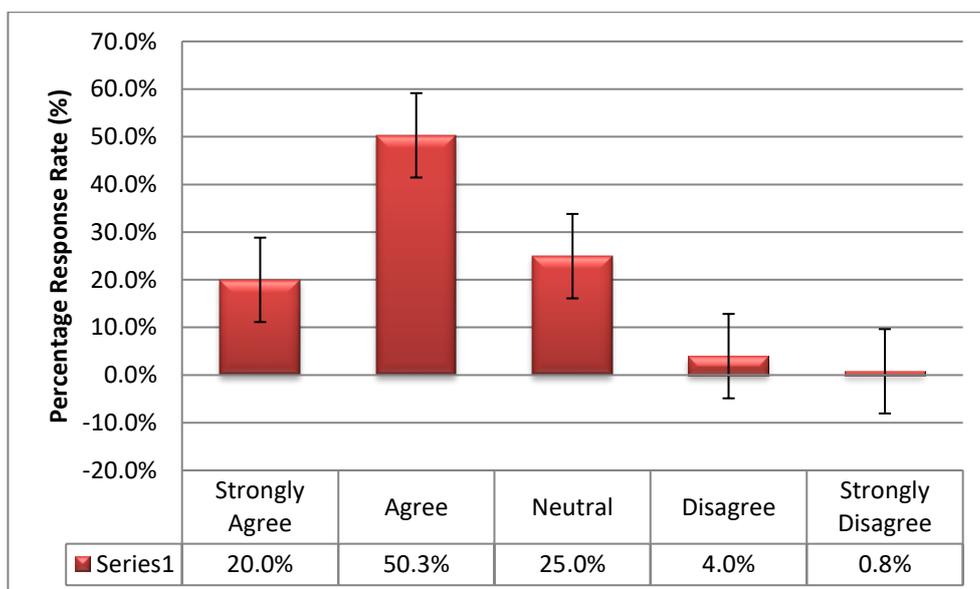


FIGURE 6.5: STANDARD ERROR BARS – ETHICAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Results from Figure 6.5 show that 70.3% (20.0% + 50.3%) of the respondents in the survey said that mobile telecommunications firms are ethically responsible, as 20.0% strongly agreed and 50.3% agreed that the mobile telecommunications firms are ethical. On the other hand, 4.8% (4.0% + 0.8%) of the respondents did not agree that the mobile telecommunications firms are ethical, as 4.0% disagreed while 0.8% strongly disagreed.

A 20.0% strongly agree and 50.3% agree demonstrates that Zimbabweans know or are aware of CSR in the form of firm moral or ethical duties.

f) Descriptive statistics for philanthropic responsibilities

Table 6.13 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of responses for philanthropic responsibilities. There are 3 items that were used to measure philanthropic responsibilities.

TABLE 6.13: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – PHILANTHROPIC RESPONSIBILITIES

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
PHI1	1006	1.69	0.881
PHI2	1006	1.69	0.875
PHI3	1003	1.87	0.886
Overall		1.75	0.881

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.87 ± 0.886 for the item PHI3 (descriptor ‘Supports societal causes, programs and the disadvantaged’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.69 ± 0.881 on item PHI1 (descriptor ‘Participates in charitable and giving activities to the society’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.75 ± 0.881 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] signifies an acceptable level of mobile telecommunications firms’ philanthropic responsibility efforts. Figure 6.6 shows standard error bars endorsing the precision of items that are used to describe the mobile telecommunications firms’ benevolence.

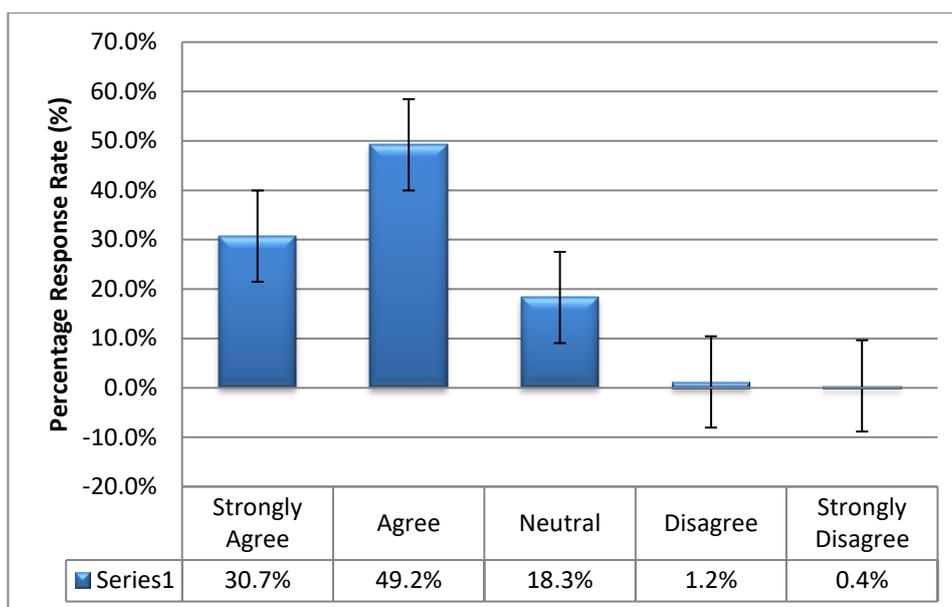


FIGURE 6.6: STANDARD ERROR BARS – PHILANTHROPIC RESPONSIBILITIES

Results from Figure 6.6 show that 79.9% (30.7% + 49.2%) of the respondents in the survey answered that mobile telecommunications firms engage in philanthropic acts, as 30.7% strongly agreed and 49.2% agreed that the mobile telecommunications firms give back to the community. On the other hand, 1.6% (1.2% + 0.4%) of the respondents did not agree that the mobile telecommunications firms engage in philanthropic acts as shown by 1.2% disagreeing and 0.4% strongly disagreeing.

Nevertheless, a 30.7% strongly agreed and 49.2% agreed shows that Zimbabweans believe that CSR exists as firm philanthropic initiatives.

g) Descriptive statistics for legal responsibilities

Table 6.14 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for legal responsibilities. There are 5 items that were used to measure legal responsibilities.

TABLE 6.14: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
LEG1	1005	2.09	0.892
LEG2	1006	2.15	0.865
LEG3	1006	2.21	0.897
LEG4	1004	2.24	0.893

LEG5	1006	2.30	1.287
Overall		2.20	0.967

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.30 ± 1.287 for the item LEG5 (descriptor ‘Observes credible human resources practices and guideline’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.09 ± 0.892 on item LEG1 (descriptor ‘Operates consistently to the general local community laws and regulations’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 2.20 ± 0.967 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] suggesting a tolerable level of mobile telecommunications firms’ adherence to legal responsibilities. Figure 6.7 shows standard error bars validating the exactitude of items used to mark the mobile telecommunications firms’ legal adherence.

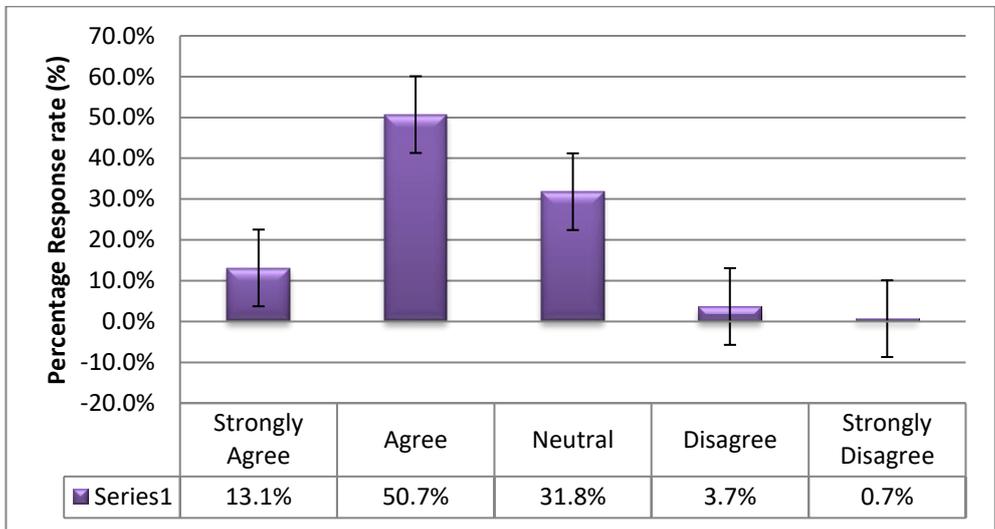


FIGURE 6.7: STANDARD ERROR BARS – LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Results from Figure 6.7 show that 63.8% (13.1% + 50.7%) of the respondents in the survey believe that mobile telecommunications firms observe legal guidelines, as 13.1% strongly agreed and 50.7% agreed that the mobile telecommunications firms follow the law. On the other hand, 4.4% (3.7% + 0.7%) of the respondents did not agree that mobile telecommunications firms observe legal procedures as shown by 3.7% disagreeing and 0.7% strongly disagreeing.

Still, a 13.1% strongly agreed and 50.7% agreed, indicate that Zimbabweans perceive or consider telecommunications firms as following legal responsibilities, thus exercising CSR in that respect.

h) Descriptive statistics for economic responsibilities

Table 6.15 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of responses for economic responsibilities. There are 4 items that were used to measure economic responsibilities.

TABLE 6.15: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – ECONOMIC RESPONSIBILITIES

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
ECO2	1006	1.59	0.778
ECO3	1006	1.73	0.799
ECO4	1006	1.75	0.891
ECO5	1006	1.75	0.865
Overall		1.71	0.833

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.75 ± 0.891 for the item ECO4 (descriptor ‘Has promotional programs aimed at increasing revenue’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.59 ± 0.778 on item ECO2 (descriptor ‘Has a very strong competitive position’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.71 ± 0.833 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] mean that mobile telecommunications firms commendably pursue economic responsibilities. Figure 6.8 shows standard error bars certifying the correctness of items used to depict the mobile telecommunications firms’ pursuance of economic interests.

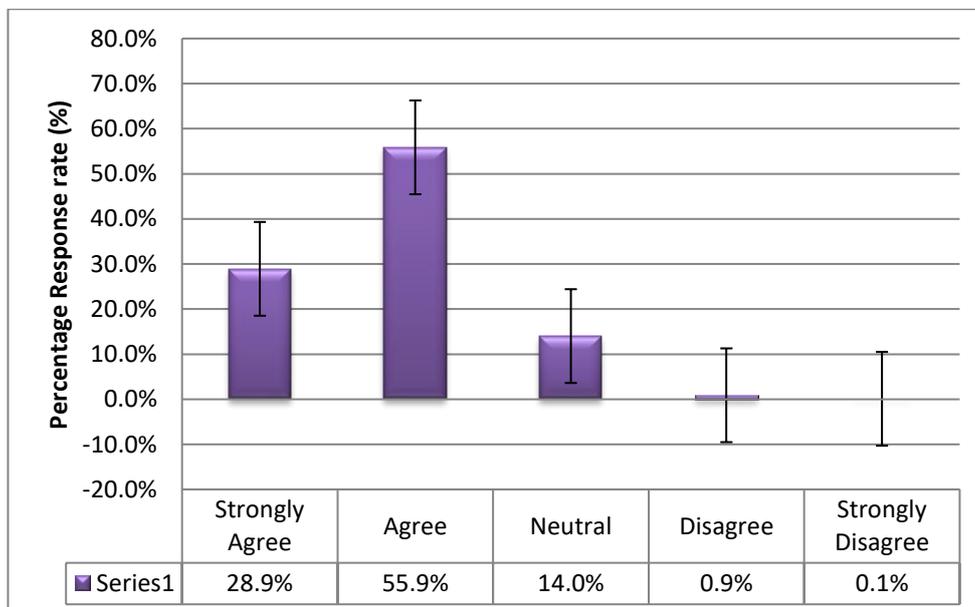


FIGURE 6.8: STANDARD ERROR BARS – ECONOMIC RESPONSIBILITIES

Results from Figure 6.8 show that 84.8% (28.9% + 55.9%) of the respondents in the survey believe that mobile telecommunications firms pursue economic interests, as 28.9% strongly agreed and 55.9% agreed that mobile telecommunications firms follow economic responsibilities. On the other hand, 1.0% (0.9% + 0.1%) of the respondents did not agree that mobile telecommunications firms' follow economic interests as shown by 0.9% disagreeing and 0.1% strongly disagreeing.

Moreover, Zimbabweans consider firms who follow economic responsibilities as exercising CSR, as shown by a 28.9% strongly agree and 55.9% agree.

i) Descriptive statistics for corporate image

Table 6.16 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for corporate image. There are 5 items that were used to measure corporate image.

TABLE 6.16: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – CORPORATE IMAGE

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
COI1	1006	1.81	0.960
COI2	1006	1.78	0.849
COI3	1005	2.03	0.951
COI4	1006	1.95	0.919
COI5	1005	1.82	0.898
Overall		1.88	0.915

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.03 ± 0.951 for the item COI3 (descriptor 'Has managed to create a positive reputation'). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.78 ± 0.849 on item COI2 (descriptor 'Has managed to create a good image'). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.88 ± 0.915 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] infer that mobile telecommunications firms' CSR works towards attaining a positive corporate image. Figure 6.9 shows standard error bars that approve the rightness of items used to represent the mobile telecommunications firms' undertaking to achieve a positive corporate image.

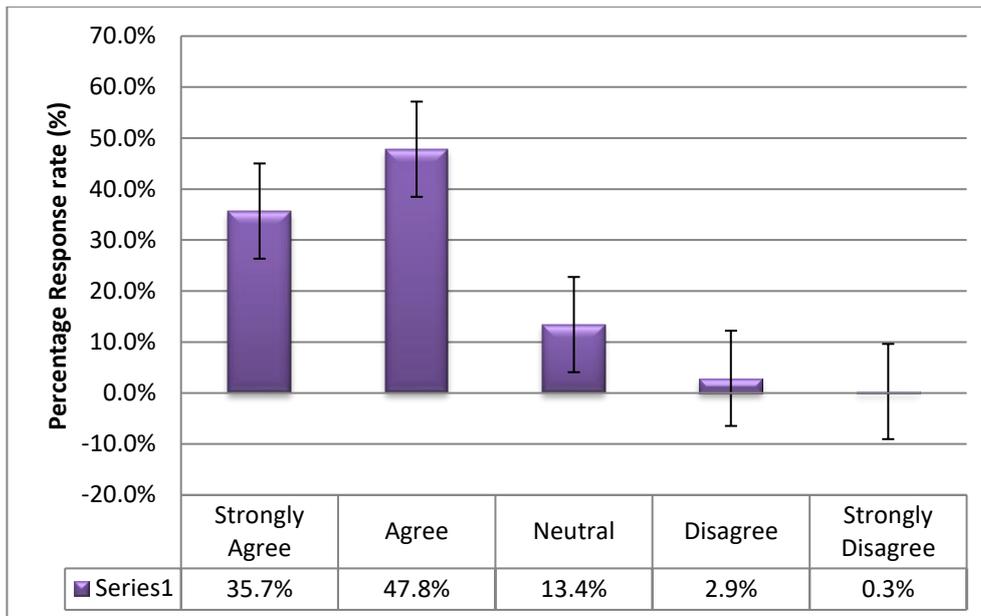


FIGURE 6.9: STANDARD ERROR BARS – CORPORATE IMAGE

Results from Figure 6.9 show that 83.5% (35.7% + 47.8%) of the respondents in the survey assumed that mobile telecommunications firms’ CSR works towards attaining positive corporate image, as 35.7% strongly agreed and 47.8% agreed that the mobile telecommunications pursue ways to build positive corporate image. On the other hand, 3.2% (2.9% + 0.3%) of the respondents did not agree that CSR by mobile telecommunications firms achieve positive corporate image as shown by 2.9% disagreeing and 0.3% strongly disagreeing.

Overall, the findings indicate that CSR influence corporate image evaluations with a 35.7% strongly agree and 47.8% agree.

j) Descriptive statistics for consumer attitude

Table 6.17 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for consumer attitude. There are 6 items that were used to measure consumer attitude.

TABLE 6.17: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – CONSUMER ATTITUDE

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
COA3	1006	2.02	0.883
COA4	1006	2.07	0.958
COA5	1004	1.99	0.892
COA6	1006	2.06	1.008

COA7	1005	2.27	1.085
COA8	1006	2.16	1.006
Overall		2.10	0.972

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.27 ± 1.085 for the item COA7 (descriptor ‘I get more satisfied with it’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.99 ± 0.892 on item COA5 (descriptor ‘I see it as giving value to the society and environment’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 2.10 ± 0.972 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] meaning the mobile telecommunications firms’ CSR achieves consumer positive attitude. Figure 6.10 shows standard error bars that denote the appropriateness of the items used to represent consumer attitude towards the mobile telecommunications firms due to CSR.

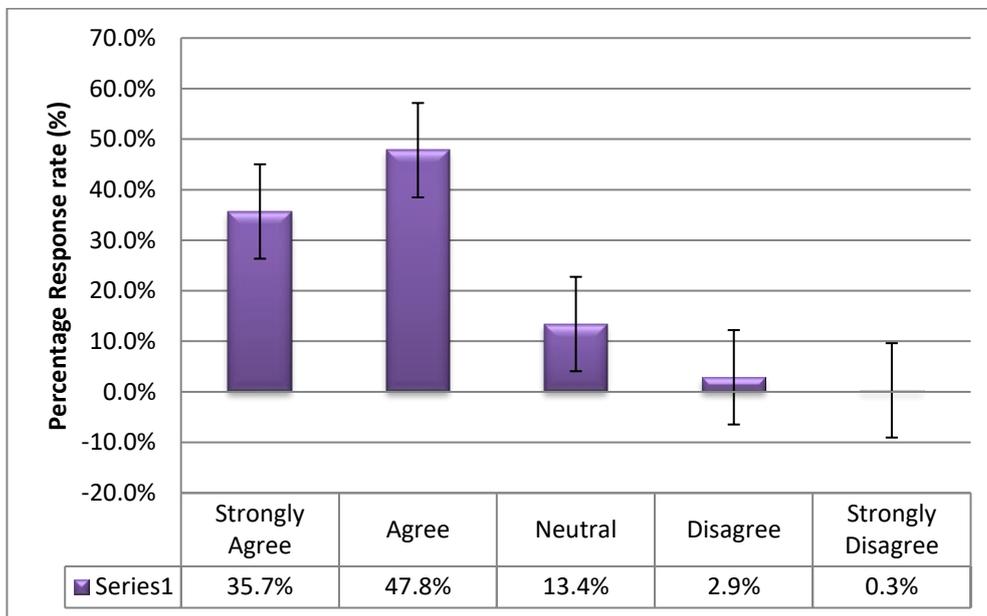


FIGURE 6.10: STANDARD ERROR BARS – CONSUMER ATTITUDE

Results from Figure 6.10 show that 83.5% (35.7% + 47.8%) of the respondents in the survey accept that CSR by the mobile telecommunications firms achieves favourable consumer attitude, as 35.7% strongly agreed while 47.8% agreed that CSR develops positive attitude. On the other hand, 3.2% (2.9% + 0.3%) of the respondents did not agree that CSR achieves positive consumer attitude as shown by 2.9% disagreeing and 0.3% strongly disagreeing.

The findings indicate that CSR influences consumer attitude with a 35.7% strongly agree and 47.8% agree.

k) Descriptive statistics for purchase intention

Table 6.18 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for purchase intention. In total, 2 items were used to measure purchase intention.

TABLE 6.18: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – PURCHASE INTENTION

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
PUI1	1006	1.89	0.868
PUI2	1006	1.98	0.876
Overall		1.94	0.872

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.98 ± 0.876 for the item PUI2 (descriptor ‘I am willing to try new and different goods and services’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 1.89 ± 0.868 on item PUI1 (descriptor ‘I am willing to buy its goods and services’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ was 1.94 ± 0.872 [(1) strongly agree to (3) neutral] which means that the mobile telecommunications firms’ CSR accomplishes consumer positive purchase intention. Figure 6.11 shows standard error bars that indicate the suitability of items used to characterise consumer purchase intention towards the mobile telecommunications firms’ products and services due to CSR.

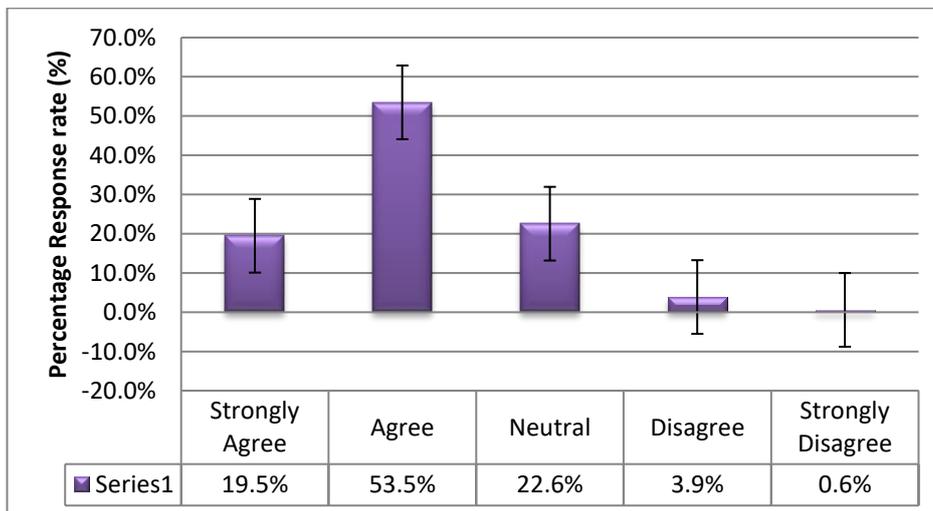


FIGURE 6.11: STANDARD ERROR BARS – PURCHASE INTENTION

Results from Figure 6.11 show that 73.0% (19.5% + 53.5%) of the respondents in the survey admit that mobile telecommunications firms’ CSR realise favourable consumer purchase intention, as shown by 19.5% who strongly agreed and 53.3% who agreed that CSR improves consumer purchase

intention. On the other hand, 4.5% (3.9% + 0.6%) of the respondents did not agree that CSR accomplishes positive purchase intentions as shown by 3.9% who disagreed and 0.6% who strongly disagreed.

To sum up, with a 19.5% strongly agree and 53.5% agree, Zimbabweans demonstrate that CSR influences purchase intention.

1) Descriptive statistics for actual purchase behaviour

Table 6.19 presents a summary of the descriptive analysis of the responses for actual purchase behaviour. In total, 3 items were used to measure actual purchase behaviour.

TABLE 6.19: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS – ACTUAL PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR

Descriptive Statistics			
Measurement item	N	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
APB2	1006	2.41	1.189
APB4	1006	2.64	1.124
APB5	1006	2.64	1.310
Overall		2.56	1.208

The highest $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.64 ± 1.310 for the item APB5 (descriptor ‘Buying its goods and services make up large part of my monthly expenses’). The least $M \pm SD$ rating was 2.41 ± 1.189 on item APB2 (descriptor ‘I always buy new and different products’). The overall item $M \pm SD$ is 2.56 ± 1.208 [(2) agree to (4) disagree] meaning that there is no clear agreement that mobile telecommunications firms’ CSR achieves consumer positive actual purchase behaviour. Figure 6.12 shows standard error bars pointing out the fittingness of items employed to exemplify consumer actual purchase mannerism towards the mobile telecommunications firms’ products and services due to CSR.

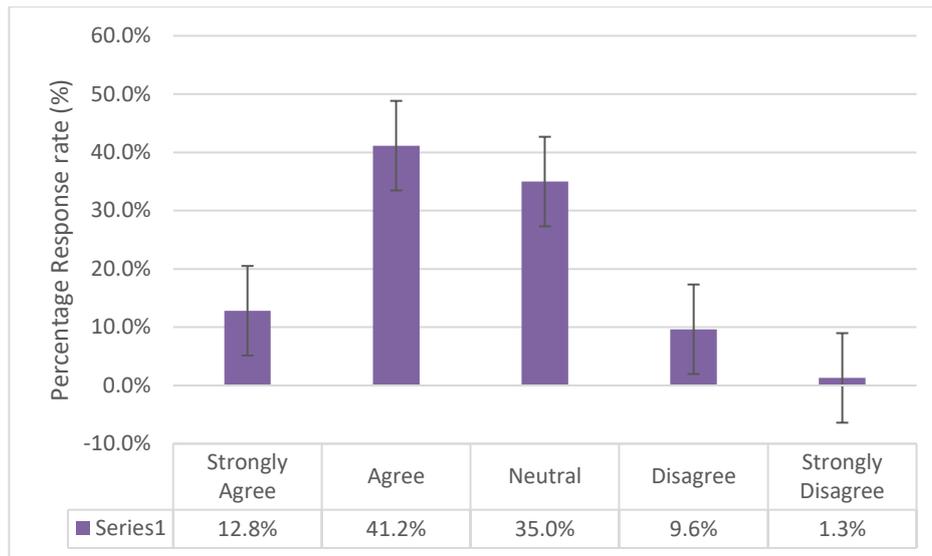


FIGURE 6.12: STANDARD ERROR BARS – ACTUAL PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR

Results from Figure 6.12 show that 54.0% (12.8% + 41.2%) of the respondents in the survey acknowledge that mobile telecommunications firms’ CSR results in positive consumer actual purchase behaviour towards the mobile telecommunications firms’ products. This is evidenced by the 12.8% who strongly agreed and 41.2% who agreed that CSR improves actual purchase behaviour. On the other hand, 10.9% (9.6% + 1.3%) of the respondents disagreed that CSR attains consumer positive actual purchase behaviour as shown by 9.6% disagreeing and 1.3% strongly disagreeing.

In sum, with a 12.8% strongly agree and 41.2% agree, Zimbabweans concur that CSR influences actual purchase behaviour.

6.2.5 Reliability statistics

Assessment of reliability was done using Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliabilities. Cronbach’s alpha (α) also referred to as scale reliability and composite reliabilities, measures the closeness a set of items are as a group, in other words, measures internal consistency (Ragab & Arisha, 2017). According to Hair et al., (2011) a higher alpha co-efficient is required and suggests that the items have a relatively high internal consistency. Standards for accepting and describing internal consistency using Cronbach’s alpha are; $0.9 \leq \alpha$ (excellent), $0.8 \leq \alpha \leq 0.9$ (good), $0.7 \leq \alpha \leq 0.8$ (acceptable), $0.6 \leq \alpha \leq 0.7$ (questionable), $0.5 \leq \alpha \leq 0.6$ (poor) and $\alpha < 0.5$ (unacceptable). When alpha assumes factor loadings to be the same for all items, composite reliability does not assume that, but takes cognisance of different factor loadings of items. According to Hair, Hult, Ringle and

Sarstedt (2017) in defining internal consistency, composite reliability values above 0.9 are considered undesirable because they infer that they are computing identical phenomena, as such, improbable to be a valid measure for a construct. Ghazali, Shah and Mahmood (2018) suggest that composite reliability values are acceptable at > 0.70 for the confirmatory research and > 0.60 still acceptable for exploratory research. Further on, composite reliabilities are acceptable when they are above the corresponding alpha value of the construct. Table 6.20 below shows the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability statistics.

TABLE 6.20: RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Construct	Cronbach's alpha reliability (α)	Composite reliabilities	No. of Items
ETC	0.735	0.741	5
CRA	0.894	0.895	9
SEA	0.787	0.793	5
CGC	0.807	0.808	5
ETH	0.759	0.790	4
PHI	0.776	0.777	3
LEG	0.798	0.799	5
ECO	0.797	0.798	4
COI	0.849	0.853	5
COA	0.868	0.875	6
PUI	0.628	0.653	2
APB	0.700	0.706	3

Results in Table 6.20 show that Cronbach's alpha (α) values are acceptable on all constructs since all alpha values on the constructs are above the minimum cut-off point of 0.6. Notably, Ghazali et al., (2018) and Hair et al., (2017) suggested an alpha benchmark ($1.0 < \alpha > 0.70$) though the lower of 0.6 is acceptable on exploratory studies. On the suggested alpha values, the lowest alpha value on this study is 0.628 on PUI, acceptable on the basis that the study was exploring consumer behaviors. Composite reliability values on all constructs are within the acceptable range ($0.9 < CR > 0.60$), this implies that data has attained a reasonable level of internal consistency.

6.2.6 Construct validity

Considering that constructs attained acceptable reliability, data was therefore further subjected to the construct validity. A two-step process, that is, convergent validity was done, followed by

discriminant validity to test for construct validity. Field (2005) purports that to achieve construct validity, there is need to use both convergent and discriminant validity. Hair et al., (2011) argues that the use of one, either convergent validity or discriminant validity, is not satisfactory to demonstrate that validity on constructs has been accomplished.

a) Convergent validity

Creswell (2014) argues that achieving convergent validity implies that items that need to be related are really related. To determine interconnectness, data was subjected to the development of the measurement model. According to Blunch (2008), the measurement model fit displays a fundamental organisation of the latent variables and the interrelations among the latent variables in a theoretical model. The measurement model postulates the indicators for each particular construct (latent variable) and weighs the reliability of each component for approximating the causal relationships (Mishra & Alok, 2017). The measurement model is considered as that part which inspects associations between latent variables and their measures, and the correlations on constructs (Byrne, 2010; Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar & Dillon, 2005). According to Hair, Black, Babin and Barry (2010) classical computations, accompanying measurement models include: indicator reliability, alpha reliability, composite reliability, discriminant validity, etc. The measurement model on Figure 6.13 was assessed based on fit indices namely chained multilateral index number (CMIN/DF), goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) as shown on Table 6.25.

Key to understanding the measurement model shown on Figure 6.13

- i) Deformed circles represent constructs used for the study, also referred to as latent variables e.g. circle with ethical consumerism and so on.
- ii) Rectangles with coded indicators represent items or questions used to measure a construct, also referred to as the measured variable e.g. rectangle with ETC1 and so on.
- iii) Double-arrowed curved lines show factor loadings for correlation between constructs while not necessarily expressing the direction of the correlation.
- iv) Single-arrowed straight lines show factor loadings for items used to measure a construct, thus confirming the strength of the items used (provides a confirmatory factor analysis).
- v) Generally, factor loadings in measurement models range between 0 to 1. There is low loading (implying insignificant) when the factor loading is going towards 0, but high factor loading (implying significant) when the factor loading is going towards 1.

- vi) Factor loadings for double-arrowed curved lines are significant or acceptable above 0 and high towards 1.
- vii) Factor loadings on double-arrowed curved lines are expected to be high on constructs closer to each other on the proposed model e.g. ethical consumerism and ethical CSR rather than distant constructs e.g. ethical consumerism and actual purchase behavior.
- viii) Factor loadings on single-arrowed straight lines are acceptable on factor loading of above 0.5, proving that the item used is statistically correct to be an item to be used for measuring the construct it directly relates to (Arkkelin, 2014; Blunch, 2008; Pallant, 2005).

Confirmation of convergent validity

The factor loadings measuring correlations between close and distant variables on the measurement model should exist from 0 to 1, where factor loadings towards 0 signify weaker correlation while factor loadings towards 1 signify a stronger correlation. The double-arrowed curved lines on the measurement model imply correlations between variables but does not tell the direction of the correlation, that is, which variable affects the other. It is expected that close variables e.g. ethical consumerism with consumer rights awareness or ethical CSR exhibit a high correlation, while distant variables e.g. ethical consumerism and actual purchase behavior or economic CSR exhibit a low correlation as shown in the figure below;

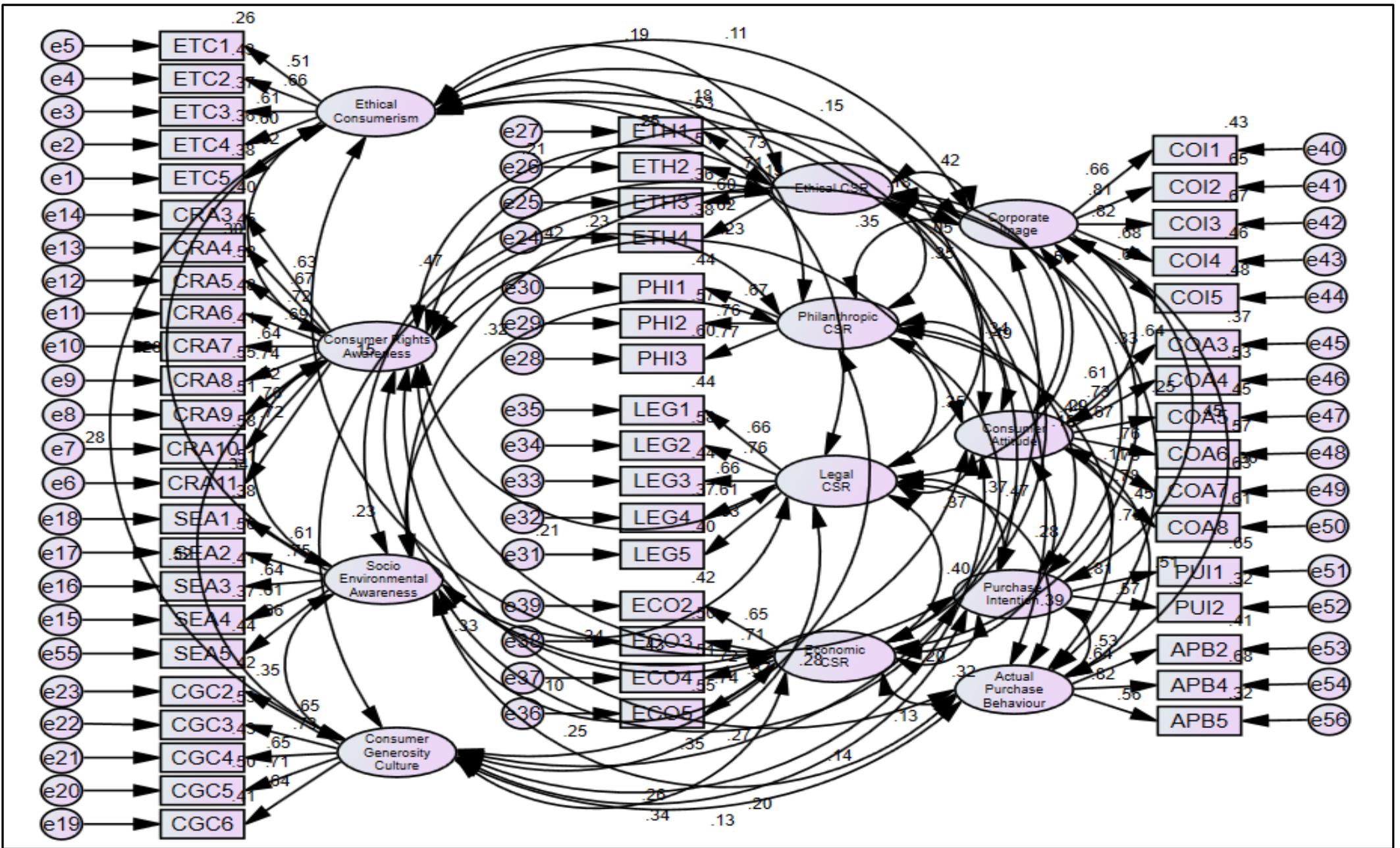


FIGURE 6.13: MEASUREMENT MODEL

In the figure above, the close and distant variables on the measurement model have factor loadings above 0 meaning that close and distant factors correlate and stand well to present the variables in the proposed model. This confirms that convergent validity was attained. The lowest correlation is shown by factor loading of 0.11 existing on ethical consumerism and corporate image while the highest correlation is shown by factor loading of 0.64 existing on corporate image and consumer attitude.

After confirming convergent validity, the measurement model was further used to portray the significance of items used to measure constructs represented in the proposed model. This allowed for further confirming that the questions used to address each construct was commendable using in this study by observing its loading. Factor loadings for items used to measure a construct are acceptable at > 0.5 . Confirmatory factor loadings for items used to measure a construct are shown attached to the single-headed arrow starting from the construct (latent variable) to the item or question (measured variable).

Confirmatory factor loadings of items measuring latent variables (constructs) explained

This section uses extracted factor loadings (from the measurement model) to confirm the significance or correctness of the items or questions that were used to express a construct. The constructs that are explained here exist under the three main pillars of the study which are antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR awareness and consequences of CSR awareness.

i) Antecedents of CSR awareness

Table 6.21 shows the confirmatory factor loadings of items under variables; ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture that were used to express antecedents of CSR awareness.

TABLE 6.219: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS - ANTECEDENTS OF CSR AWARENESS

Construct	Code	Measurement item	Factor loadings
Ethical consumerism	In my buying decision making process;		
	ETC1	I seek for the integrity of a mobile telecommunications firm	0.51
	ETC2	I look for a mobile telecommunications firm that tells the truth and is transparent	0.66
	ETC3	I seek for a mobile telecommunications firm that honour its promises	0.61
	ETC4	I seek for moral sourcing and manufacturing of a mobile telecommunications firm	0.60
	ETC5	I seek for ethical marketing and distribution of a mobile telecommunications firm	0.62
	I am aware of the fact that;		

Consumer rights awareness	CRA3	I have a right to access high quality service	0.63
	CRA4	I have a right to accurate bills	0.67
	CRA5	I have a right to privacy	0.72
	CRA6	I have a right to protection against market abuse	0.69
	CRA7	I have a right to responsive regulatory authority	0.64
	CRA8	I have a right to education and awareness as a consumer	0.74
	CRA9	I have a right to safety	0.62
	CRA10	I have a right to be heard	0.76
	CRA11	I have a right to complain and redress	0.72
	Socio-environmental awareness	I am aware of the fact that;	
SEA1		The mobile telecommunications firm I use make efforts to protect the environment	0.61
SEA2		The mobile telecommunications firm I use make efforts to protect the society	0.75
SEA3		The mobile telecommunications firm I use sell products that are not harmful	0.64
SEA4		The mobile telecommunications firm I use does not produce extensive amounts of waste and dispose to open space	0.61
SEA5		The mobile telecommunications firm I use follow and respect the social environment and environmental laws	0.86
Consumer generosity culture	I have the liberty to give my hand to the community in the form of;		
	CGC2	Giving cash or kind to those that are in need or disadvantaged in the society	0.65
	CGC3	Information, guidance, counselling or education on imminent issues to the society	0.73
	CGC4	Support the elderly, children and disadvantaged in any way necessary	0.65
	CGC5	Voluntary work to help those that need general or my area of speciality labour	0.71
	CGC6	Celebrating and helping to develop or grow other people's ideas or programs	0.84

Overall, on the construct of antecedents of CSR awareness, items subjected in the measurement model to indicate correctness when measuring the variables were above the cut-off of ≥ 0.5 , implying that the items that were used on the variables were a good measure of the variables they relate to. All the items that were used to measure the construct of antecedents of CSR awareness were therefore retained and used on the Structural model.

Ethical consumerism was measured using items coded ETC1, ETC2, ETC3, ETC4 and ETC5. Item ETC2 'I look for a mobile telecommunications firm that tells the truth and is transparent' had the highest factor loading of 0.66 and item ETC1 'I seek for the integrity of a mobile telecommunications firm' had the lowest factor loading of 0.51.

Consumer rights awareness was measured with items coded CRA3, CRA4, CRA5, CRA6, CRA7, CRA8, CRA9, CRA10 and CRA11. Item CRA10 'I have a right to be heard' had the highest factor loading of 0.76 and item CRA9 'I have a right to safety' had the lowest factor loading of 0.62.

Socio-environmental awareness was measured using items coded SEA1, SEA2, SEA3, SEA4 and SEA5. Item SEA5 'The mobile telecommunications firm I use follow and respect the social

environment and environmental laws’ had the highest factor loading of 0.86. Both item SEA1 ‘The mobile telecommunications firm I use make efforts to protect the environment’ and item SEA4 ‘The mobile telecommunications firm I use does not produce extensive amounts of waste and dispose to open space’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.61.

Consumer generosity culture was measured using items coded CGC2, CGC3, CGC4, CGC5 and CGC6. Item CGC6 ‘Celebrating and helping to develop or grow other people’s ideas or programs’ had the highest factor loading of 0.84. Items CGC2 ‘Giving cash or kind to those that are in need or disadvantaged in the society’ and CGC4 ‘Support the elderly, children and disadvantaged in any way necessary’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.65.

ii) CSR awareness

Table 6.22 shows the confirmatory factor loadings of items under variables; ethical CSR, philanthropic CSR, legal CSR and economic CSR that were used to express CSR awareness that were used to express CSR awareness.

TABLE 6.22: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS - CSR AWARENESS

Construct	Code	Measurement item	Factor loadings
Ethical	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	ETH1	Treats customer respectfully	0.73
	ETH2	Conducts business practices professionally	0.71
	ETH3	Apologizes in the event of any inconvenience to customers	0.60
	ETH4	Expediently addresses or responds to products or service faults or challenges	0.62
Philanthropic	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	PHI1	Participates in charitable and giving activities to the society	0.67
	PHI2	Supports education and educational institutions	0.76
	PHI3	Supports societal causes, programs and the disadvantaged	0.77
Legal	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	LEG1	Operates consistently to the general local community laws and regulations	0.66
	LEG2	Operates consistently to the national regulations on mobile telecommunications	0.76
	LEG3	Obeys other international standards and regulations for mobile telecommunications	0.66
	LEG4	Meets minimal legal requirements related to goods and service provision	0.61
	LEG5	Observes creditable human resources practices and guidelines	0.63
Economic	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	ECO2	Has a very strong competitive position	0.65
	ECO3	Seeks profitable business avenues	0.71
	ECO4	Has promotional programs aimed at increasing revenues	0.72
	ECO5	Is committed to increase company growth and assets	0.74

Overall, on the construct of CSR awareness, items subjected in the measurement model to indicate rightness on measuring the variables were above the cut-off of ≥ 0.5 , suggesting that the questions that were used on the variables were a correct measure of their respective variables. All the items that were used under the variables on the construct of CSR awareness were therefore retained and used on the Structural model.

Ethical CSR was measured with items coded ETH1, ETH2, ETH3 and ETH4. Item ETH1 ‘Treats customer respectfully’ had the highest factor loading of 0.73 while item ETH3 ‘Apologises in the event of any inconvenience to customers’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.60.

Philanthropic CSR was measured using items coded PHI1, PHI2 and PHI3. Item PHI3 ‘Supports societal causes, programs and the disadvantaged’ had the highest factor loading of 0.77 while item PHI1 ‘Participates in charitable and giving activities to the society’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.67.

Legal CSR was measured using items coded LEG1, LEG2, LEG3, LEG4 and LEG5. Item LEG2 ‘Operates consistently to the national regulations on mobile telecommunications’ had the highest factor loading of 0.76 while the lowest factor loading of 0.61 was on item LEG4 ‘Meets minimal legal requirements related to goods and service provision’.

Economic CSR was measured using items coded ECO2, ECO3, ECO4 and ECO5. The highest factor loading of 0.74 was on item ECO5 ‘Is committed to increase company growth and assets’ while the lowest factor loading of 0.65 was on item ECO2 ‘Has a very strong competitive position’.

e) Consequences CSR awareness

Table 6.23 shows the confirmatory factor loadings of items under variables; corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase that were used to express consequences of CSR awareness.

TABLE 6.23: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS – CONSEQUENCES OF CSR AWARENESS

Construct	Code	Measurement item	Factor loadings
Corporate image	My mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	COI1	Has managed to create a good impression	0.66

	COI2	Has managed to create a good image	0.81
	COI3	Has managed to create a positive reputation	0.82
	COI4	Is widely acknowledged as a trustworthy organization	0.68
	COI5	Is highly regarded or respected by society	0.65
Consumer attitude	About my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	COA3	I see it as an appealing company	0.61
	COA4	I prefer it more against other companies	0.73
	COA5	I see it as giving value to the society and environment	0.67
	COA6	I think that its products and services are superior	0.76
	COA7	I get more satisfied with it	0.79
	COA8	I am willing to identify with it	0.76
Purchase intention	About my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	PUI1	I am willing to buy its goods and services	0.81
	PUI2	I am willing to try new and different goods and services	0.57
Actual purchase behaviour	About my mobile telecommunications service provider;		
	APB2	I always buy new and different products	0.64
	APB4	I buy its goods and services more often than other people	0.62
	APB5	Buying its goods and services make up a large part of my monthly expenses	0.56

Overall, on the construct of consequences of CSR awareness, items subjected in the measurement model to indicate appropriateness on measuring the variables were above the cut-off of ≥ 0.5 , suggesting that the interrogations that were used on the variables were a right measure of their respective variables. All the items that were used to measure the construct of consequences of CSR awareness were therefore retained and used on the Structural model.

Corporate image was measured with items coded COI1, COI2, COI3, COI4 and COI5. Item COI3 ‘Has managed to create a positive reputation’ had the highest factor loading of 0.82 while the lowest factor loading of 0.65 was evident on item COI5 ‘Is highly regarded or respected by society’.

Consumer attitude was measured using items coded COA3, COA4, COA5, COA6, COA7 and COA8. Item COA7 ‘I get more satisfied with it’ had the highest factor loading of 0.79 while item COA3 ‘I see it as an appealing company’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.61.

Purchase intention was measured with the items coded PUI1 and PUI2. Item PUI1 ‘I am willing to buy its goods and services’ had the highest factor loading of 0.81 while item PUI2 ‘I am willing to try new and different goods and services’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.57.

Actual purchase behaviour was measured with the items coded APB2, APB4 and APB5. Item APB2 ‘I always buy new and different products’ had the highest factor loading of 0.64 while item APB5

‘Buying its goods and services make up a large part of my monthly expenses’ had the lowest factor loading of 0.56.

Table 6.24 provides the measurement model fit indices relating to Figure 6.13 validating that the measurement model was run on a best fit and therefore was both satisfactory and statistically acceptable.

TABLE 6.24: MEASUREMENT MODEL FIT INDICES RELATING TO FIGURE 6.13

Fit Indices	Measurement model	Recommended values	Sources	Decision
CMIN/DF	3.024	$2 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$	Paswan (2009)	Satisfactory
GFI	0.873	$\text{GFI} \geq 0.9$	Tabachnick and Fidell (2007)	Acceptable
AGFI	0.849	$\text{AGFI} \geq 0.9$	Sharma et al., (2005)	Acceptable
NFI	0.839	$\text{NFI} \geq 0.9$	Shadfar and Malekmohammadi (2013)	Acceptable
TLI	0.869	$0.8 \leq \text{TLI} \leq 1$	Shadfar and Malekmohammadi (2013)	Satisfactory
CFI	0.885	$\text{CFI} \geq 0.9$	Hooper et al., (2008)	Acceptable
RMSEA	0.045	$\text{RMSEA} < 0.080$	Hu and Bentler (1999)	Satisfactory

The CMIN/DF also termed normal chi-square, normed chi-square or simply chi-square to df ratio, is the chi-square fit index divided by degrees of freedom which express efforts to ensure model chi-square is independent of sample size (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). Though there is no consensus regarding the CMIN/DF statistic, Paswan (2009) declares that a value below 2 (CMIN/DF < 2) is preferred and between 2 and 5 ($2 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$) is considered acceptable. The GIF is seen as an alternate to the chi-square test calculating the portion of variance accounted for by the estimated population covariance, scaled between 0 and 1 with higher values indicating model fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Traditionally a GIF cut-off point of 0.9 is recommended (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Sharma et al., (2005) support that the AGIF adjusts the GIF basing on the degrees of freedom. The AGIF is scaled between 0 and 1 where greater AGIF values indicate well fitting models while values above 0.9 are recommended. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) say that the NFI mirrors the percentage by which the study's model enhances fit matched to the null model (uncorrelated measured variables). The NFI is scaled between 0 and 1, where greater NIF values indicate good fit of the model, while values above 0.9 are recommended (Shadfar & Malekmohammadi, 2013). According to Shadfar and Malekmohammadi (2013) the TLI is similar to the NFI though the TLI penalises for model complexity and is relatively independent of sample

size. The TLI value tend to run lower than the GFI, and TLI value close to 1 implies a good fit, while some authors allow a cut-off as low as 0.8 (Shadfar & Malekmohammadi, 2013). The CFI is a revised form of the NFI, and Hooper et al., (2008) argue that the CFI takes cognisance of sample size. Similar to the NFI, the CFI is scaled between 0 and 1, where values closer to 1 indicate a good fit (Hooper et al., 2008). Hu and Bentler (1995) however recommend a cut-off of 0.9. The RMSEA has been considered the most favoured, most informative, most sensitive indice telling how the model fit the population covariance matrix (McQuitty, 2004). The RMSEA values of 0.05 to 1.0 are symptomatic of a fair fit, while generally values below 0.08 show a good fit (Hair et al., 2011) and a cut-off close to 0.6 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) has been the general consensus amongst scholars.

The model fit indices were assessed to determine if the values were within the acceptable range and to ensure the measurement model was standard. Results show that the measurement model fit indices were acceptable and satisfactory in line with various scholars mentioned above, therefore, the measurement model reasonably fitted the data; CMIN/DF = 3.024; GFI = 0.873; AGFI = 0.849; NFI = 0.839; TLI = 0.869; CFI = 0.885; RMSEA = 0.045.

Hair et al., (2014) argue that the connection of an individual variable or item to the principal factor is expressed by the standard factor loading, critical ratio at a significant p value. Hair et al., (2014) advocate carrying out the latter three aspects (factor loading, critical ratio, p value) in order to support the measurement model and the confirmatory factor analysis. Hair et al., (2017) asserts that the higher the factor loading the better. Kuo, Wu and Deng (2009) suggest the removal of items with factor loading above 1.00 though there can be acceptance of items with factor loadings of less than 0.5 ($0.5 > \lambda$). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) consider that when the items have different frequency distributions, more stringent cut-offs going from 0.32 (poor), 0.45 (fair), 0.55 (good), 0.63 (very good) or 0.71 (excellent) can be used. Critical ratios (CRs) for items are also expected to be large enough above 2 ($CR > 2$) at the significant level p value of less than 0.001 ($p < 0.001$) (Segars, 1997). Table 6.25 shows standardised factor loadings (λ), critical ratios (CRs) and p values.

TABLE 6.25: STANDARDISED FACTOR LOADINGS, CRITICAL RATIOS AND P VALUES

Construct	Item	Standardised factor loading (λ)	CR
ETC	ETC5	0.731	-
	ETC4	0.592	9.025***
	ETC3	0.592	9.991***
	ETC2	0.592	7.568***

	ETC1	0.449	7.136***
CRA	CRA11	0.745	-
	CRA10	0.761	20.999***
	CRA9	0.692	17.583***
	CRA8	0.750	19.823***
	CRA7	0.643	17.910***
	CRA6	0.694	18.858***
	CRA5	0.691	18.177***
	CRA4	0.676	17.261***
	CRA3	0.610	16.498***
SEA	SEA4	0.724	-
	SEA3	0.621	16.060***
	SEA2	0.702	16.788***
	SEA1	0.539	13.205***
	SEA5	0.700	17.323***
CGC	CGC6	0.693	-
	CGC5	0.666	13.681***
	CGC4	0.585	12.524***
	CGC3	0.751	16.194***
	CGC2	0.648	14.574***
ETH	ETH4	0.749	-
	ETH3	0.623	12.996***
	ETH2	0.754	12.670***
	ETH1	0.653	12.020***
PHI	PHI3	0.776	-
	PHI2	0.754	19.710***
	PHI1	0.666	18.335***
LEG	LEG5	0.683	-
	LEG4	0.602	14.157***
	LEG3	0.578	11.704***
	LEG2	0.672	13.954***
	LEG1	0.632	13.482***
ECO	ECO5	0.733	-
	ECO4	0.681	19.051***
	ECO3	0.709	16.643***
	ECO2	0.686	17.198***
COI	COI1	0.619	-
	COI2	0.716	18.039***
	COI3	0.782	17.562***
	COI4	0.702	15.108***
	COI5	0.712	15.080***
COA	COA3	0.649	-
	COA4	0.715	18.863***
	COA5	0.713	16.580***
	COA6	0.771	17.035***
	COA7	0.780	17.360***
	COA8	0.771	17.920***
PUI	PUI1	0.827	-

	PUI2	0.552	13.498***
APB	APB2	0.727	-
	APB4	0.697	13.182***
	APB5	0.441	9.771***

Notes: - CR is fixed; *** p < 0.001

Results from Table 6.25 show that standard factor loadings are above 0.5 (except APB5, though acceptable), implying that the items are above the minimum cut-off point ($\lambda = 0.5$) recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Critical ratios for all the items were also large enough ($CR > 2$) and significant ($p < 0.001$), therefore acceptable as suggested by Segars (1997).

b) Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is achieved by comparing average variance extracted (AVEs) and squared inter-construct correlations (SICs) (Hair et al., 2014). Arkkelin (2014) concurs with Segars (1997) that discriminant validity is mostly realised when AVEs are above 0.5 and the square root of AVE is larger than the SICs.

TABLE 6.2610: AVEs AND SICs

Construct	ETC	CRA	SEA	CGC	ETH	PHI	LEG	ECO	COI	COA	PUI	APB
ETC	0.557											
CRA	.094	0.586										
SEA	.077	0.031	0.577									
CGC	.074	0.092	0.025	0.550								
ETH	.042	0.050	0.093	0.028	0.586							
PHI	.037	0.052	0.088	0.082	0.032	0.538						
LEG	.037	0.051	0.089	0.084	0.030	0.038	0.503					
ECO	.063	0.008	0.060	0.018	0.045	0.031	0.080	0.594				
COI	.010	0.064	0.072	0.044	0.075	0.030	0.040	0.019	0.501			
COA	.027	0.059	0.030	0.024	0.041	0.023	0.080	0.071	0.053	0.540		
PUI	.028	0.014	0.008	0.038	0.096	0.078	0.042	0.094	0.022	0.068	0.594	
APB	.003	0.032	0.075	0.029	0.094	0.021	0.023	0.022	0.058	0.025	0.358	0.503

*Diagonal figures in bold represent AVEs while the figures below the AVEs represent SICs

According to Hair et al., (2014), AVEs describe the amount of variance assumed by a construct relative to the amount of variance due to measurement error while SIC describes how powerful units in the same construct bear a resemblance to each other. Table 6.26 shows results of AVEs and SICs. Results on Table 6.26 demonstrate that the circumstance for discriminant validity were met, that is computed AVEs are larger than resultant SICs as recommended by Arkkelin (2014) while Segars (1997) asserts that AVEs should be > 0.5 . According to Hair et al., (2017) when data has passed

both reliability and validity tests then data can be further subjected to the development of the structural model to aid in validating the acclaimed hypotheses of the study.

6.2.7 Hypotheses testing

Testing hypotheses is the next step, in order to accept as true or reject as false the acclaimed statements or associations between variables (Mishra & Alok, 2017; Ragab & Arisha, 2017). Structural equation modelling (SEM) in AMOS was used to test proposed hypotheses. In the SEM, CSR awareness was treated as a second order construct because it is multi-dimensional. The research hypotheses that were tested in this section are as follows;

H1. Ethical consumerism positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H2. Consumer rights awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H3. Socio-environmental awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H4. Consumer generosity culture positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H5a. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to age.

H5b. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to gender.

H5c. There are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR due to level of education.

H6. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects corporate image in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H7. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H8. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H9. Consumer awareness of CSR positively affects actual purchase behavior in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H10. Corporate image positively affects consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H11. Consumer attitude positively affects purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.

H12. Purchase intention positively affects actual purchase behavior in the mobile telecommunications sector.

According to Turner (2015) a structural model, as demonstrated on Figure 6.14, is also called the inner model because it shows the connections or paths among constructs or latent variables. According to Hair et al., (2014), representative calculations executed in structural model comprise; path coefficients, collinearity, coefficient of Determination (R²), total effect (direct and indirect effects), effect size etc. As was computed on the measurement model earlier on, the study's structural model on Figure 6.14 was also measured based on the following fit indices; CMIN/DF, GFI, AGFI, NFI, TLI, CFI and RMSEA as shown on Table 6.27. Figure 6.14 below provides a structural model output from AMOSTM to aid in the testing of hypotheses.

Key to understanding the structural model shown on Figure 6.14

According Pallant (2005), the structural model shows how the constructs of the study or main variables stand to represent the proposed research model. Arkkelin (2014) states that the structural model is useful in approving or disapproving study hypotheses. The following notes are key in comprehending the structural model;

- i) Ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture exist as the main variables under the construct of antecedents of CSR awareness.
- ii) Age, gender and level of education were measured with respect to the extent to which they can cause significant differences in the level of CSR awareness.
- iii) Corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour exist as the main variables under the construct of consequences of CSR awareness.
- iv) The structural model also presents the measured relationship between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour.
- v) Generally, factor loadings range between 0 – 1. There is low loading (implying insignificant) when the factor loading is going towards 0 but high factor loading (implying significant) when the factor loading is going towards 1 (Arkkelin, 2014; Blunch, 2008; Pallant, 2005).

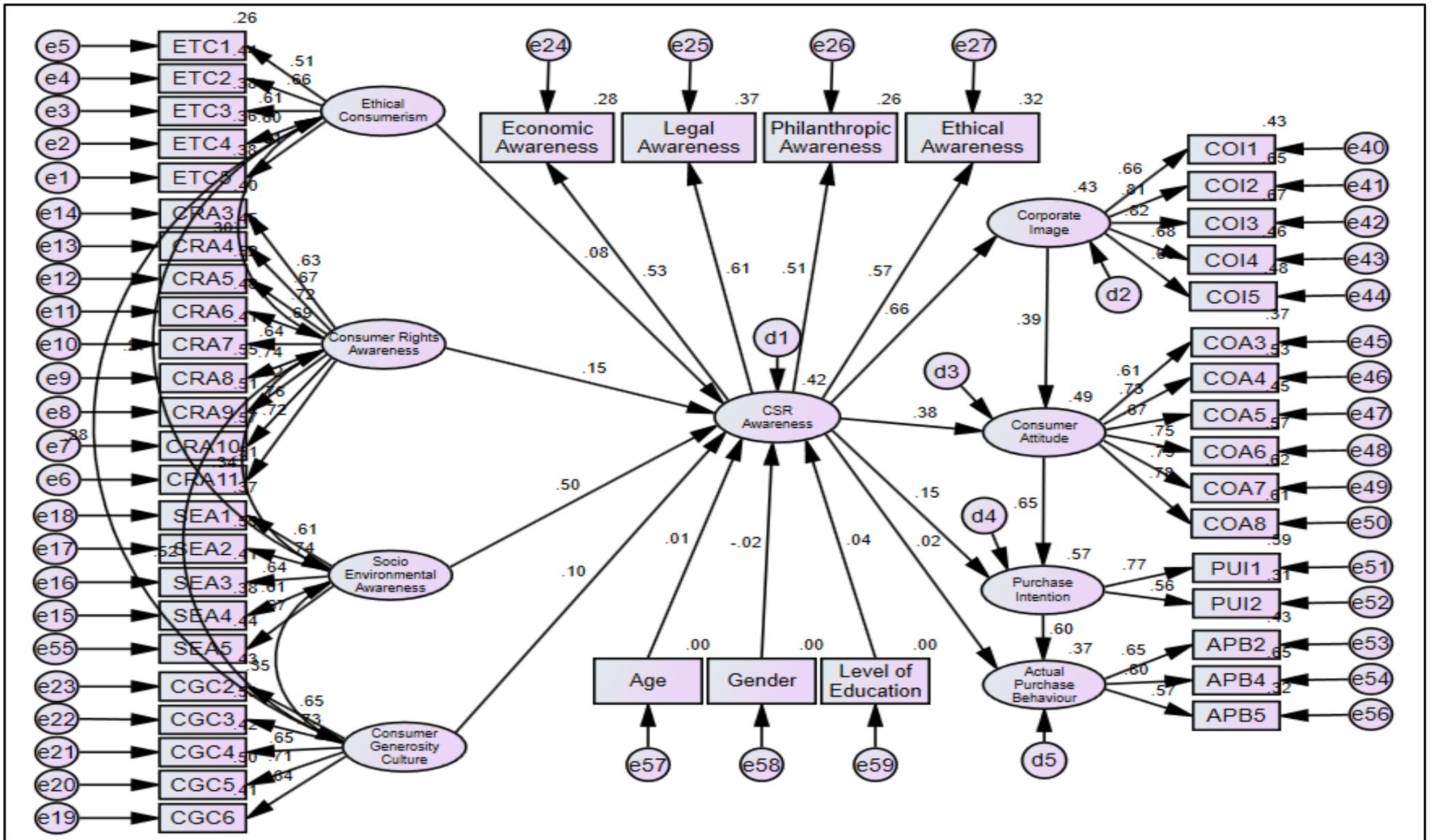


FIGURE 6.14: STRUCTURAL MODEL

Enlightenment of the structural model

This section uses factor loadings that were extracted from the structural model to confirm the significance and relationships that exist between constructs and variables that were used to express the structural model. It should be noted that though the factor loadings may be minimal on the structural model, but the fact that they are above 0 means there is an effect. The structural model was accepted on the basis that the former statistical tools that were used (exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistics, reliability statistics, convergent validity, confirmatory factor analysis, standardised factor analysis, critical ratios, p values and discriminant validity) had achieved the required standards on the same constructs, variables and items.

i) Antecedents of CSR awareness

Overall, the factor loadings on antecedents of CSR awareness were above 0 implying that the variables (ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture) have a direct influence on CSR awareness. Socio-environmental awareness had the highest influence on CSR awareness with factor loading of 0.50, followed by consumer rights awareness (0.15), consumer generosity culture (0.10) and lastly, ethical consumerism (0.09). From these findings, it is clear that variables such as ethical consumerism (0.09), consumer rights awareness (0.15) and consumer generosity culture (0.10) do affect CSR awareness though the impact is minimal compared to socio-environmental awareness (0.50).

ii) Demographic factors and their influence on CSR awareness

Overall, the factor loadings on demographic factors and their influence of CSR awareness were at a level of 0.00 for age, gender and level of education, meaning demographic factors that were identified in this study do not influence CSR awareness.

iii) Consequences of CSR awareness

The factor loadings on consequences of CSR awareness are above 0 as shown on corporate image (0.68), consumer attitude (0.38) and purchase intention (0.15), meaning that these variables were directly influenced by CSR awareness. Actual purchase behaviour, with factor loading of 0.02, exists as the only CSR awareness consequence variable in this study that has factor loading largely close to 0 implying that the variable is insignificantly affected by CSR awareness. Corporate image (0.68) is highly influenced by CSR awareness followed by consumer attitude (0.38) and lastly purchase intention (0.15).

iv) Relationships between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase

There is confirmation of a direct association between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour as shown by factor loadings that are above 0. Corporate image has a direct influence on consumer attitude (0.39), consumer attitude onto purchase intention (0.65) and purchase intention onto actual purchase behavior (0.60). Consumer attitude onto purchase intention (0.65) has the highest factor loading and therefore stronger influence exists while corporate image onto consumer attitude (0.39) has the lowest factor loading signifying a low but acceptable influence.

Table 6.27 provides the model fit indices relating to Figure 6.14, validating that the structural model was run on a best fit, therefore, both are satisfactory and statistically acceptable.

TABLE 6.27: STRUCTURAL MODEL FIT INDICES RELATING TO FIGURE 6.14

Fit Indices	Structural model	Recommended values	Sources	Decision
CMIN/DF	2.829	$2 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$	Paswan (2009)	Satisfactory
GFI	0.898	$\text{GFI} \geq 0.9$	Tabachnick and Fidell (2007)	Acceptable
AGFI	0.880	$\text{AGFI} \geq 0.9$	Sharma et al., (2005)	Acceptable
NFI	0.858	$\text{NFI} \geq 0.9$	Shadfar and Malekmohammadi (2013)	Acceptable
TLI	0.890	$0.8 \leq \text{TLI} \leq 1$	Shadfar and Malekmohammadi (2013)	Satisfactory
CFI	0.902	$\text{CFI} \geq 0.9$	Hooper et al., (2008)	Satisfactory
RMSEA	0.043	$\text{RMSEA} < 0.080$	Hu and Bentler (1999)	Satisfactory

The model fit indices, that are shown on Table 6.27, were computed to determine if the values exist in the acceptable range and to certify that the measurement model is sufficient. Results show that the measurement model fit indices were acceptable, therefore, the structural model soundly fit the data: CMIN/DF = 2.829; GFI = 0.898; AGFI = 0.880; NFI = 0.858; TLI = 0.890; CFI = 0.902; RMSEA = 0.043 (Hooper et al., 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Paswan, 2009; Shadfar & Malekmohammadi, 2013; Sharma et al., 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 6.29 presents in sum the results of hypotheses testing.

TABLE 6.2811: RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypothesis	Hypothesised Relationship	SRW	CR	P	Remark
H1	Ethical consumerism & CSR awareness	0.099	2.467	0.014	Supported
H2	Consumer rights awareness & CSR awareness	0.147	3.337	< 0.001	Supported
H3	Socio-environmental awareness & CSR awareness	0.454	8.958	< 0.001	Supported
H4	Consumer generosity culture & CSR awareness	0.092	2.024	0.043	Supported
H5a	Age & CSR awareness	0.013	0.412	0.681	Not supported
H5b	Gender & CSR awareness	-0.037	-1.185	0.236	Not supported
H5c	Level of education & CSR awareness	0.051	1.624	0.104	Not supported
H6	CSR awareness & Corporate image	0.681	10.813	< 0.001	Supported
H7	CSR awareness & Consumer attitude	0.363	6.237	< 0.001	Supported
H8	CSR awareness & Purchase intention	0.173	2.562	0.010	Supported
H9	CSR awareness & Actual purchase behaviour	-0.079	-0.998	0.318	Not supported
H10	Corporate image & Consumer attitude	0.424	7.376	< 0.001	Supported
H11	Consumer attitude & Purchase intention	0.703	9.913	< 0.001	Supported
H12	Purchase intention & Actual purchase behaviour	0.751	8.068	< 0.001	Supported

Notes: SRW standardised regression weight, CR critical ratio, P probability

Results from Table 6.28 show a summary of hypotheses that were supported (H1, H2, H3, H4, H6, H7, H8, H10, H11, H12) and hypotheses that were not supported in the study (H5a, H5b, H5c, H9) using standardised regression weight (SRW), critical ratio (CR) and probability (P). SRW was used to correct for heteroscedasticity (Turner, 2015). Higher positive weights were recommended on observations because they provided reliable information about the regression function. Benter and Chou (1987) advises that SRW values should not be above 1 while values above 0.09 are preferred ($1 < SRW > 0.09$). The objectives of CR and p values were stated earlier on, and the standard remains that CRs are expected to be large enough above 2 ($CR > 2$) at the significant level p value of less than 0.001 ($p < 0.001$) (Hair et al., 2014; Segars, 1997). A hypothesis ought to fulfil more than one of the required statistics in order to allow for acceptance of the proclamations, and especially that the p value should not be extremely high above the cut-off (Division of Statistics and Scientific Computation, 2012). The lower the p value the greater the confidence and the lower the chances of data errors (Field, 2005).

Results from Table 6.28 show the following;

- Hypothesis H1 was supported (SRW = 0.099, CR = 2.467, p = 0.014). This implies that ethical consumerism positively influences consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.

- Hypothesis H2 was supported (SRW = 0.147, CR = 3.337, $p = < 0.001$). This means that consumer rights awareness positively influences consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.
- Hypothesis H3 was supported (SRW = 0.454, CR = 8.958, $p = < 0.001$). This entails that socio-environmental awareness positively influences consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.
- Hypothesis H4 was supported (SRW = 0.092, CR = 2.024, $p = 0.043$). This shows that consumer generosity culture positively influences consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.
- Hypothesis H5a was not supported (SRW = 0.013, CR = 0.412, $p = 0.681$). This infers that age does not influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.
- Hypothesis H5b was not supported (SRW = -0.037, CR = -1.185, $p = 0.236$). This denotes that gender does not influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.
- Hypothesis H5c was not supported (SRW = 0.051, CR = 1.624, $p = 0.104$). This indicates that the level of education does not influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry.
- Hypothesis H6 was supported (SRW = 0.681, CR = 10.813, $p = < 0.001$). This reflects that consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry positively affects corporate image.
- Hypothesis H7 was supported (SRW = 0.363, CR = 6.237, $p = < 0.001$). This confirms that consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry positively affects consumer attitude.

- Hypothesis H8 was supported (SRW = 0.173, CR = 2.562, p = 0.010). This demonstrates that consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry positively affects consumer purchase intention.
- Hypothesis H9 was not supported (SRW = -0.079, CR = -0.998, p = 0.318). This validates that consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications industry does not affect actual purchase behavior.
- Hypothesis H10 was supported (SRW = 0.424, CR = 7.376, p = < 0.001). This proves that corporate image positively affects consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- Hypothesis H11 was supported (SRW = 0.703, CR = 9.913, p = < 0.001). This means that consumer attitude positively affects consumer purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector.
- Hypothesis H12 was supported (SRW = 0.751, CR = 8.068, p = < 0.001). This establishes that consumer purchase intention positively affects consumer actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector.

6.3 Qualitative analysis

This section presents findings of a qualitative nature that were drawn from open-ended questions. A total of 29 questions were selected for analysis because they were fully completed, and the answers were both comprehensive and coherent. The first question sought to determine; ‘To what extent are you aware of CSR by mobile telecommunication firms? Explain your answer’.

Answers in this section will be presented in emerging themes, quotable quotes, word frequency, word tree and word cloud analysis generated using NVIVO software. The next section explores the extent to which consumers in Zimbabwe are aware of CSR initiatives by the telecommunications sector firms.

6.3.1 Consumer awareness of CSR initiatives

The first open-ended question on the questionnaire explored the degree of CSR awareness by respondents and the findings are presented in Table 6.29.

TABLE 6.2912: EMERGING THEMES ON THE EXTENT OF CSR AWARENESS

n = 29 respondents		
Emerging themes on the awareness of CSR	No. of respondents mentioning the same theme	% of respondents who mentioned the same theme
CSR not publicly communicated	7	24.13%
Through health awareness campaigns of cholera and assisting communities	7	24.13
Through scholarships provided	4	13.79%
Through renovating facilities	2	6.89%
Through environmental campaigns	2	6.89%
Through employment	2	6.89%
Through public relations awareness	2	6.89%
Through online information published on websites of mobile telecommunications companies	1	3.44%
Only know Econet service provider	1	3.44%
Through sponsorship of soccer	1	3.44%
Through social media and newspapers	1	3.44%

Table 6.30 shows that a significant portion (total of 75.87%) of respondents are aware of CSR initiatives done by mobile companies and these initiatives include: health campaigns, scholarships, renovating facilities, employment, online CSR information and sponsorships. These initiatives have a direct impact on the community. Respondent 7 said that;

“I am not really aware of the CSR but I have noticed some scholarships”.

The respondent was aware of the initiatives done by mobile companies in the country but did not link that to CSR. This may be due to the fact that CSR is usually synonymous with charity initiatives. Whilst the first respondent could not link scholarships to CSR, some respondents were fully cognisant of the CSR programs that are carried out by the mobile companies. Respondent 12 said;

“To a greater extent I am aware. They do charity work e.g the Joshua Nkomo Scholarship and recently they took action against the cholera outbreak in the nation”.

Respondent 30 added that;

“To a greater extent they have managed to paint a bigger picture in Zimbabwe through helping the elderly and young to fulfil a meaningful purposeful life. This has caused an increase in their market share”

The mentioned respondents represent the views of many participants who showed a greater awareness of CSR initiatives that are done by mobile telecommunications companies in Zimbabwe. These initiatives according to the participants include scholarships, fighting against diseases and helping the young and old to live purposeful lives. The findings of the study prove that corporates, as community citizens can contribute to solving challenges that are faced by their consumers. This validates the necessity of CSR in communities and the importance of communicating CSR.

A significant percentage of respondents (24.13%), however, were of the view that CSR is not being well communicated to the public and this is evident in the following quote;

“I am not aware of the CSR because they have not taken the courtesy to explain it to the general public through means that every customer can access the information” (Respondent 18)

This respondent, is one of the seven who stated that they were not aware of CSR initiatives. The findings show that it still remains the duty of the mobile telecommunications firms to communicate CSR initiatives, so that all their consumers are aware of the good they are doing in communities. The mobile telecommunications firms need to go an extra mile of not simply communicating CSR but educating the consumers about CSR and their CSR activities.

A word frequency analysis was conducted to determine the words that frequently appeared while unfolding the issues of CSR initiatives. Table 6.30 shows that the words include CSR, cholera aid, lesser extent, environment, help, lot of assistance and outbreak.

TABLE 6.3013: WORD FREQUENCY ANALYSIS ON AWARENESS OF CSR

Word	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage (%)
Telecommunication	17	35	9.07
Mobile	6	32	8.29
Firms	5	31	8.03
CRS	3	30	7.77
Econet	6	12	3.11
Know	4	6	1.55
Cholera aid	7	5	1.30
Also	4	4	1.04
Lesser	6	4	1.04
Environment	11	3	0.78

Harare	6	3	0.78
Help	4	3	0.78
Lot of assistance	3	3	0.78
Outbreak	8	3	0.78
Public	6	3	0.78

The word frequency analysis has been supported by an extraction of the words with the highest frequency presented in the largest font size through a word cloud analysis shown on Figure 6.15. The word frequency analysis shows that respondents are aware of CSR, as the term had a frequency of 7.77% and appeared 30 times. The term CSR is limited to the forms or shapes that CSR initiatives takes such as Cholera aid, environment and assistance. It could be that respondents are limited on the knowledge of CSR forms or that the mobile telecommunications firms are engaging in fewer forms of CSR.

The word cloud analysis in Figure 6.15 confirms that the words CSR, cholera aid, lesser extent, environment, help, lot of assistance and outbreak are resounding in what respondents submitted as their knowledge of unpacking what CSR is.



FIGURE 6.15: WORD CLOUD ANALYSIS ON AWARENESS OF CSR

The word tree analysis shown on Figure 6.16 below attempts to summarise the findings on the emerging themes, word analysis, quotable quotes analysis, word frequency analysis and word cloud analysis in designing the extent of CSR awareness and what CSR is to the respondents.

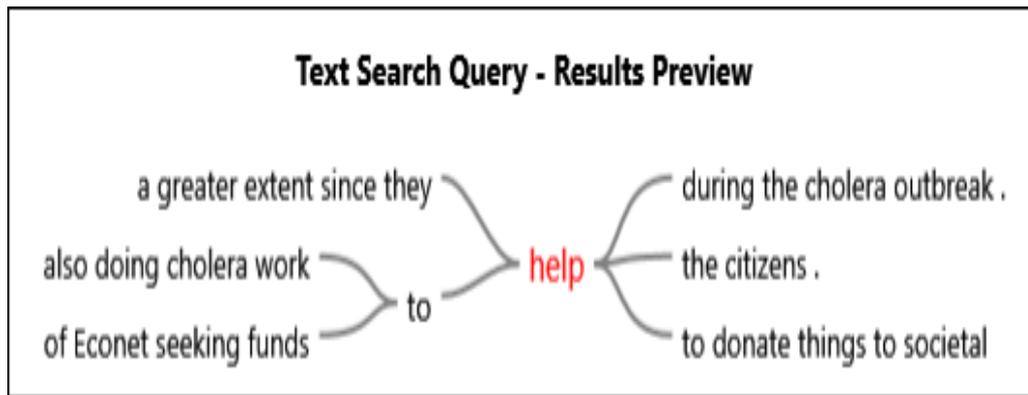


FIGURE 6.16: WORD TREE ANALYSIS ON AWARENESS OF CSR

The word tree analysis shows that respondents are aware of CSR to a greater extent and mostly as various forms of help by mobile telecommunications firms.

6.3.2 Factors influencing CSR awareness

The second open-ended question on the questionnaire was: ‘What factors can influence your awareness of mobile telecommunications firms’ Corporate Social Responsibility? Explain how do each of the factors influence your awareness?’

Similarly, the answers were presented in emerging themes, quotable quotes, word frequency, word tree and word cloud analysis generated using NVIVO software. Table 6.31 show the main aspects that were raised by the respondents on that question.

TABLE 6.3114: EMERGING THEMES ON FACTORS INFLUENCING CSR AWARENESS

n = 29 respondents		
Emerging themes on factors influencing awareness of CSR	Number of respondents who mentioned the same theme	% of respondents who mentioned the same theme
Good or excellent service delivered to clients	7	24.13%
Allocate resources for charity programs for communities	6	20.68%
Sending Text messages consistently	4	13.79%
Through scholarship programs	4	13.79%
Practice of good ethics	3	10.34%
Exhibitions that provide adequate information	2	6.89%
Broadcasting through television	2	6.89%
Engagement with students through lectures for more innovation ideas	2	6.89%
Awareness through telecommunication products on demand	2	6.89%

Through roadshows campaigns	1	3.44%
Through clean-up campaigns	1	3.44%
Lack of solid management structures	1	3.44%
Follow-ups through phone calls	1	3.44%
Create employment opportunities	1	3.44%
Maintaining trust between the firm and clients	1	3.44%

Table 6.31 shows that the factors that promote CSR awareness according to the consumers are; firm good services, company help or assistance to the community, sending messages, good ethics, exhibitions, broadcasting through mass media and assisting students. Following are some of the views of the respondents on factors that promote or hinder CSR awareness:

“Exhibitions - these help me to be aware of what the organisation is doing as some information out there may be insufficient or incorrect and this would be a ground to get questions answered as well as get the right information from the manufacturers/ service providers”(Respondent 2)

“Charging affordable and reasonable prices for goods and services. They should consider that some of their customers are unemployed since the unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is extraordinarily high. Good ethics of the firm and a strong reputation it built throughout its life. The viable stakeholders’ regulation” (Respondent 6)

“Increase their advertisement as we can know more about their new products and services, and these advertisement should reach even the remote areas. Indulge in promotional activities that way everyone will want to participate and educate them more” (Respondent 14)

“Educational awareness and campaigns; because without prior knowledge or information platforms I am less knowledgeable about the telecoms” (Respondent 19)

“Exhibitions, conferences and advertisements in media can influence my awareness of telecommunications firms’ Corporate Social Responsibility” (Respondent 23)

The quotes show that firms engaging into CSR need to utilise different forms of marketing and communications techniques or channels in order to increase awareness of CSR, ranging from exhibitions, advertising, educational awareness or campaigns and mass media broadcasting. Respondents agree that firms that charge reasonable prices, offer excellent services, help community, practice good ethics, engage students in innovative ideas, have solid managerial structures, create employment and maintain client trust are also exercising CSR. Table 6.32 presents a word frequency analysis of factors that influence CSR awareness.

TABLE 6.32: WORD FREQUENCY ANALYSIS ON FACTORS INFLUENCING CSR AWARENESS

Word	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage (%)
Responsibility	14	29	7.02
Social	6	29	7.02
Advertising	11	6	1.45
Help	4	5	1.21
Information	11	4	0.97
Messages	8	4	0.97
People	6	4	0.97
Public	6	4	0.97
Services	8	4	0.97
Advertisement	13	3	0.73
Cleaning campaigns	5	3	0.73
Customers	9	3	0.73
Econet	6	3	0.73
Ethics	6	3	0.73
Firm	4	3	0.73

Table 6.32 shows that the words that frequently appeared in-line with factors influencing CSR awareness include advertising, CSR messages, CSR information, campaigns and firm ethics. Figure 6.17 supports the fact that respondents demonstrated little CSR knowledge and factors influencing CSR awareness, as fewer words were stressed to indicate factors influencing CSR awareness (word with the highest frequency has the largest font size). Figure 6.17 below presents a word cloud analysis of these factors.



FIGURE 6.17: WORD CLOUD ANALYSIS ON FACTORS INFLUENCING CSR AWARENESS

The word tree analysis shown on Figure 6.18 below attempts to summarise the findings on the emerging themes, word analysis, quotable quotes analysis, word frequency analysis and word cloud analysis in demonstrating factors that influence consumer awareness of mobile telecommunications firms' CSR activities.

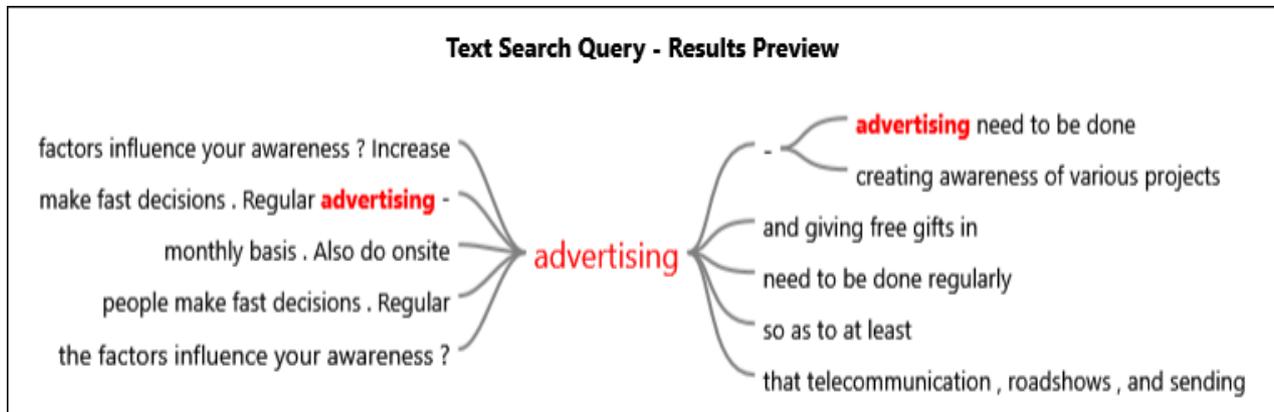


FIGURE 6.18: WORD TREE ANALYSIS ON FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CSR AWARENESS

The key findings of the qualitative phase are;

- i) In general, CSR awareness needs to improve in Zimbabwe as a significant percentage of respondents are not fully aware of CSR.
- ii) It is the duty of firms to communicate CSR through various marketing communications.
- iii) CSR initiatives which involve community or members' engagement such as community programs, campaigns and assistance enhance CSR visibility.
- iv) Marketing communication activities are central in promoting or hindering CSR awareness.
- v) Respondents measure and are aware of firm CSR through other practices such as good services, affordable prices, good ethics, solid management structures, employment creation, engaging students and maintaining clients' trust.
- vi) It is clear that respondents have limited knowledge of factors that influence their awareness of CSR.

6.4 Overlap between qualitative and quantitative results

Qualitative findings confirm the following findings in the quantitative phase;

- i) The society generally acknowledges the existence of CSR by mobile telecommunications firms in the community, mostly known as simply CSR. These include help during outbreaks such as cholera, sponsorships, community programs, environmental campaigns, renovating public facilities, employment, healthy awareness campaigns, traffic safety campaigns, donations, practice of good ethics, engaging students in company operations, clean up campaigns and good service provision.
- ii) The society believes firms are not being fully active in communicating CSR, which can be done through social media, newspapers, television channels, company websites, sending text messages, roadshows, advertising and various campaigns.
- iii) The society assumes that indicators of poor CSR strategies include lack of solid management, lack of customer follow-ups, failure to maintain trust between firm and clients, failure to raise awareness through the products themselves, failure to have exhibitions that provide adequate information and charging unaffordable prices.
- iv) The respondents agreed that there are factors that enhance or hinder CSR awareness by consumers which resides in the parameters of the firm CSR and marketing efforts as highlighted in this section's point (iii) above.

6.5 Chapter summary

The aim of this chapter was to present data results that were attained using the questionnaire that was administered (which contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions). The findings mainly touched on response rate analysis, socio-demographic analysis, exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistics, reliability statistics, construct validity and testing of hypothesis on the quantitative analysis phase (SPSS and AMOS was used). NVIVO was used on the qualitative analysis phase to generate emerging themes, quotable quotes, word frequency, word tree and word cloud analysis. One of the aims of Chapter Six was to prove the worthy of items and constructs used to represent antecedents of CSR awareness, CSR awareness parameters and consequences of CSR awareness. Chapter Six tested the proposed hypotheses, among other statistics, by developing a structural model of the study. The chapter ended with the qualitative presentation of CSR awareness, antecedents of CSR information collected from open-ended qualitative questions and a brief overlap of the qualitative findings to the quantitative findings. The next chapter looks at the discussion of research results and findings.

Chapter Seven: Discussion of Results

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and analysed the collected data. Qualitative and quantitative methods and tools were used. This chapter goes further to discuss the findings of the study, so that conclusions may be drawn. The discussions of results in this chapter are premised mainly on the hypotheses of the study. The chapter uses prior studies to provide a basis of synthesising empirical results. The chapter has been broken down into empirical results and supporting literature in the following sections; antecedents of CSR awareness, socio-demographic factors influencing CSR awareness, consequences of CSR awareness and the relationships that exist between the variables outcomes of CSR.

7.2 Data transformation

The quantitative approach was the central method of collecting and analysing data, while the qualitative approach was used to address two open-ended questions of the study. Figure 7.1 shows the relationship between qualitative and quantitative phases of the study.

As shown in Figure 7.1, the two methods were synthesised to form a coherent whole even though there could be very minimal interlink between the quantitative and qualitative data due to the nature of the questions used in the study.

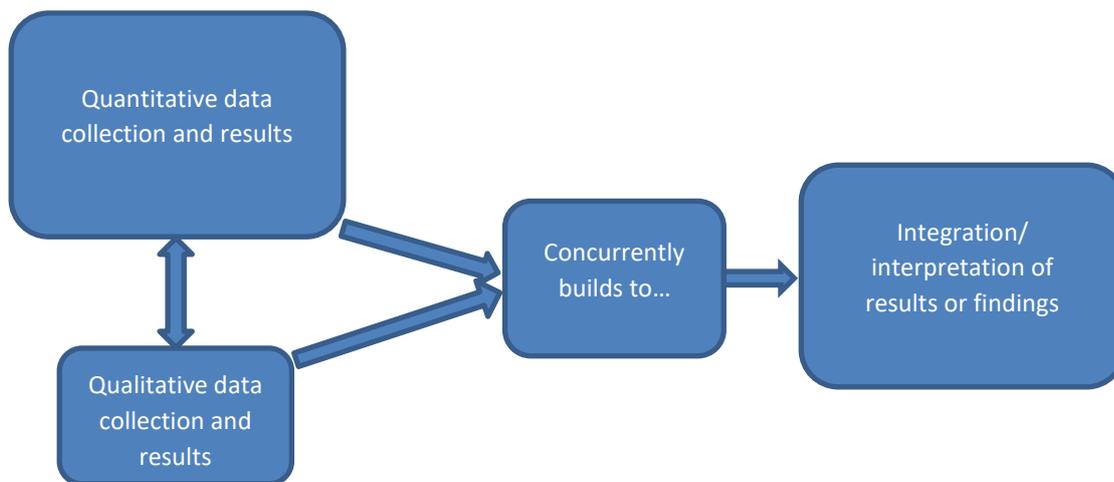


FIGURE 7.1: INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.3 Antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR

The hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4) in this section were meant to unearth the determinants (antecedents) of consumer awareness of CSR in the form of ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture. The results are discussed as follows;

7.3.1 Influence of ethical consumerism on consumer awareness of CSR

It is hypothesised that ethical consumerism positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector (H1) and this study found out that ethical consumerism affects consumer CSR awareness.

Many studies have applauded ethical consumerism as an emerging but previously silent factor affecting consumer awareness of CSR and consumer buying behaviour (Brammer et al., 2012; Čerkasov et al., 2017; Cole, 2017; Devinney et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2005; Papaoikonomou et al., 2011; Thornton, 2012; Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). In line with these studies, the assumption that ethical consumerism positively influences consumer awareness of CSR was confirmed in this study, which means H1 was supported. Practically, ethical consumerism implies that consumers look at ethical issues that span firm operations or products and make decisions. This means consumers are sensitive to firms' behaviours or initiatives resulting in raising consumer awareness of CSR. The study results are similar to authors who revealed that ethical consumerism matters in consumer CSR awareness and consumer buying behavior (Adams, 2002; Carrington et al., 2010; Cole, 2017; Davies et al., 2012; Deng, 2012; Ethical Consumer, 2008; Isaacs-Morell, 2013; Papaoikonomou et al., 2011; Tustin & De Jongh, 2008). Karaosman et al., (2015) agree with Tustin and De Jongh (2008) that ethical consumerism is becoming a crucial issue to consider in future business strategies. Recent studies indicate that ethical consumerism is a determinant of consumer awareness of CSR (Brammer et al., 2012; Čerkasov et al., 2017; Cole, 2017; Davies et al., 2012; Isaacs-Morell, 2013; Thornton, 2012). Cole (2017) asserts that with ethical consumers, the decision to buy, consume and re-patronise products resides in how the consumer feels that the product is ethically produced, marketed, distributed and disposed. When consumers buy from firms with standards and practices that violate ethical sourcing, ethical marketing, ethical supplying or distribution they would have engaged in what is termed moral boycott or negative buying. Schmeltz (2012) argues that when

ethical consumerism levels are high in a population, the search for CSR also becomes heightened. Singh and Malla (2017) say that consumers relate their ethical norms to firm ethical practices, therefore, CSR activities that infringe consumer ethical boundaries will be easily noticeable.

7.3.2 Influence of consumer rights awareness on consumer awareness of CSR

The researcher hypothesised that, consumer rights awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector (H2). The current study results confirm the aforementioned H2 as positive.

This is in line with findings of many other scholars who noted that the relationship between consumer rights awareness, consumer awareness of CSR and consumer behavior is positive (Alsmadi & Alnawas, 2012; Alsmadi & Khizindar, 2015; Bello et al., 2016; Kolk et al., 2015; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Lii & Lee, 2012; Toal & Broomes, 2017). Kolk et al., (2015) argue that consumer rights are the 21st century's hallmark of attracting and maintaining relationships with the educated and sophisticated society. With the continued rise in education and consumer assertiveness, consumer rights and protection determines whether firms are responsible or irresponsible towards their society. According to Alsmadi and Khizindar (2015) consumers' awareness of rights raises a sense of perceiving firm social responsibility and corporate behaviour that infringes upon consumers. Alsmadi and Alnawas (2012) argue that corporate behaviour that infringes upon consumer rights is regarded as corporate irresponsibility. Bello et al., (2016) believe that corporate social responsibility is appreciated in observing or honoring consumer rights and protection. Bello et al., (2012) explain that for long, consumer rights and protection has been embedded in consumerism, which Solaiman et al., (2008) deliberate as planned or organised movements by entities (governments, citizens and independent bodies) to protect consumers. Kotler and Keller (2015) allude that it is a firm's responsibility to observe, uphold and be on the look-out for consumer rights. Toal and Broomes (2017) believe that consumers who understand and search for their rights are better positioned to identify, understand and evaluate corporate behavior and initiatives such as CSR. Kolk et al., (2015) assume that society relates its rights and privileges as consumers, to what firms can do as they either follow the law or engage in voluntary initiatives. This being the case, corporates have to uphold consumer rights and also act ethically in order to continue doing business.

7.3.3 Influence of socio-environmental awareness on consumer awareness of CSR

The researcher hypothesised that socio-environmental awareness positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector (H3). Results of the study support H3 implying that there is an link between socio-environmental awareness and consumer CSR awareness.

The level of socio-environmental awareness in a society determines the amount of CSR search, and therefore, level of CSR awareness. Level of identifying CSR is raised automatically by a higher socio-environmental awareness sense and comprehending firm socio-environmental responsibility (Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015; Kotler & Keller, 2015; Yuan-Shuh et al., 2013). Creel (2010) believes that consumers who are socio-environmentally aware are also mindful of firms' socio-environmental responsibility and therefore can objectively evaluate firms' behaviors toward the society or environment. Oleszko-Kurzyna (2014) believes that consumers rate firms' responsibility to the society or environment on the basis of the public environment, market environment, relations with investors, employment, environmental protection or ecological management and society protection.

7.3.4 Influence of consumer generosity culture on consumer awareness of CSR

It is hypothesised that, consumer generosity culture positively influence consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector (H4). Results from the study show that H4 has been supported meaning that consumer generosity culture and CSR awareness are directly linked.

In a Christian country like Zimbabwe, with an underlying philosophy of Ubuntu which promotes collectivism, it is expected that generosity is valued by the society. This is in line with previous research which shows that generally, societies with a high generosity culture hastily identify with firms' CSR initiatives, especially those that fall in the breadth of philanthropic activities (Craig, 2013). Eccles et al., (2012) consider collectivist societies, which have values or beliefs that are grounded in living together, bigheartedness and a helping hand, as the founding podiums of various forms of giving or extending a hand to the community. Alonso and Grijalvo (2016) believe generous societies align their values to firm behavior and they expect firms to be generous too. Generosity in a culture leads to an improved sense and recognition of CSR exercises targeted at aiding society, and consumers generally identify with a firm that has similar individual and/ or collective values (Chung et al., 2018; Craig, 2013; Elbedweihy & Jayawardhena, 2014; Jin et al., 2016; Schiffman &

Wisnblit, 2014; Williams & Zinkin, 2008; Woo & Jin, 2016). According to Kanji and Agrawal (2016) firms can decide to engage in forms of giving or resort to giving as a way of attracting customers to buy and firms also engage in CSR out of slack resources too (having extra finance to spend towards the community). The stakeholder approach holds firms accountable for economic interests, while community development theories suggest that firms should be in a position to give to the society (Belal & Roberts, 2010).

7.4 Socio-demographic influence on consumer awareness of CSR

The hypotheses (H5a, H5b, H5c) in this section were meant to find the connection between consumer awareness of CSR and socio-demographic variables (age, gender, level of education). Understanding socio-demographic variables is crucial in consumer behaviour studies in order for marketers to develop effective marketing strategies (Du Plessis, Rousseau, Boshoff, Ehlers, Engelbrecht, Joubert & Sanders, 2007; Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman & Hansen, 2009). Due to population socio-demographic differences, consumers respond differently to circumstances in general and marketing stimuli in particular (Galalae & Voicu, 2013; Hantula & Wells, 2013; Kotler & Keller, 2015).

7.4.1 Influence of age on consumer awareness of CSR

The researcher hypothesised that there are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR arising due to age (H5a). Study results do not support H5a, implying that age differences do not influence consumer awareness of CSR and this could be possible due to high education levels in Zimbabwe across the population age groups.

Various age groups had more or less the same level of CSR knowledge and awareness. Study findings contradict some scholars' findings that age does influence consumer awareness, with older people being more aware of CSR initiatives than the youth. Ali et al., (2010a) found that marketing retention strategies differ across various age groups and income groups, especially in high value technical products or services. Ali et al., (2010b) also noticed a difference in how consumers respond, due to age differences, in the cellular industry following product quality, features and CSR. Shabbir et al., (2018) ascertained that consumers differ in loyalty due to their differences in age, income level and level of education. This variable needs to be investigated further as age is an important factor in purchasing behaviour.

7.4.2 Influence of gender on consumer awareness of CSR

The researcher hypothesised that there are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR arising due to gender (H5b). Results of the study do not support H5b, meaning that there are insignificant differences in consumer awareness of CSR between males and females in Zimbabwe. The Zimbabwean education fraternity provides space or opportunities for both gender and this could explain the balanced level of CSR awareness on both males and females.

CSR awareness is similar across genders implying that CSR communications have to be equally communicated to both gender groups. The researcher noted that males search for CSR in a similar manner to females. Study results are somehow different from other findings in literature. Ali et al., (2010b) noticed a difference in consumer preferences due to gender in the cellular industry following product quality and features. Males preferred more technical features while females did not want to be bothered by complex features. Kumar and Ali (2011) identified education, income, gender, occupation and location as major factors causing differences in consumer awareness of organic foods in India. While elderly consumers disfavoured foreign products, younger consumers, females, high income group and the educated had a favourable positive attitude towards foreign products (Apil, 2006). Mangnale et al., (2011) noted female tendencies that were more ethnocentric than male counterparts, even though there were no differences in buying foreign products due to income, age and education levels.

7.4.3 Influence of level of education on consumer awareness of CSR

The researcher hypothesised that there are significant differences in consumer awareness of CSR arising due to level of education (H5c). Study results do not support H5c, suggesting that there are no momentous differences in consumer awareness of CSR across respondents' due to various levels of education. As has been highlighted earlier, Zimbabwe is considered a high literacy country with most people undergone tertiary level education enhancing chances of being equally aware of CSR.

This entails that respondents did not differ in their search and level of CSR awareness because of variances in education. As a result, CSR communication need to be similar across consumers with different education levels. This study's results are different from other studies' outcomes. William and Zinkin (2008) noted that differences in cultural values and education levels influence CSR type

or forms, CSR acceptance and adoption. Lentner et al., (2015) learned that the time which a consumer has been banking (banking period) did not have influence on how consumers evaluated or assessed banking services but their education level mattered. Consumer ethnocentrism was negatively or inversely associated with education, more so the older people proved more ethnocentric than the younger, more educated people (Bawa, 2004).

7.5 Consumer awareness of CSR

The hypotheses (H6, H7, H8, H9) sought to find the connection between consumer awareness of CSR and consumer behaviour in the form of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour.

7.5.1 Influence of consumer awareness of CSR on corporate image

The researcher hypothesised that consumer awareness of CSR positively influence corporate image in the mobile telecommunications sector (H6). Study results show a positive connection between consumer awareness of CSR and corporate image.

CSR is the good the firms does to the society, which automatically elevates the name, brand or the firm doing the good work. When society cares about what firms do to the community or environment in upholding ethical and professional behavior, the H6 relationship becomes high (Kotler & Lee, 2005). van Heerden (2013) notes that corporate image evaluation (corporate brand and reputation verdict) is either improved by CSR or consumers use corporate image to objectively judge CSR. Ellen et al., (2006) noted that corporate image is exploited by consumers through what is termed a corporate image-cause fit; which is an evaluation of the corporate prior behavior, current values in line with CSR programs. Champniss and Rodes (2011) believe that a brand that recognises both private and public responsibilities, stands out on both customer equity and social equity. Chiang and Han (2012) believe that the social responsibility of a firm starts internally, thus, when employees are happy, they help spruce up the image of the firm by being highly motivated and innovative. Johansen and Nielsen (2012) trust that strong brand and corporate identity achieve or maintain a strong position in the marketplace and can stand negative or harmful criticism. Consumers highly regard a firm that practices CSR, whether by following the act of law or voluntarily, such a firm is considered a corporate citizen (Babin & Harris, 2011; Chang et al., 2012; Minor, 2011; Perez et al., 2013; Reputation Institute, 2014; Stanaland et al., 2011; van Heerden, 2013).

7.5.2 Influence of consumer awareness of CSR on consumer attitude

The researcher hypothesised that consumer awareness of CSR positively influence consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector (H7). The study results support H7 indicating a positive connection between consumer CSR awareness and consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector.

CSR awareness drives consumer attitudes to be either negative or positive. Consumer attitudes becomes favourable when consumers are aware of firm's social responsibility activities. Fullerton (2005) believes that CSR is one of the determinants of positive consumer attitude, while Schiffman et al., (2014) believe that consumers develop an attitude towards corporates when they evaluate corporate behaviour or concerns towards the society. Galalae and Voicu (2013) avow that CSR, as one of corporate voluntary activities, has the energy to change consumer attitude. Sahney (2012) argues that marketing elements, such as CSR, which influence consumer attitude are important to study in order to improve corporate strategic marketing (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Brewer & Rojas, 2008; Čerkasov et al., 2017; Distefano & Pisano, 2016; Heidinger, 2012; Nanda, 2015; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011; Saat et al., 2014; van Doorn et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2016) and others believe that CSR improves corporate image first before touching on other consumer behaviour dynamics (Alcaniz et al., 2010; Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Chung et al., 2015; Distefano & Pisano, 2016; Lee, 2018; Maldonado-Guzman et al., 2017; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011; Shabbir et al., 2018; Stoyanov, 2017).

7.5.3 Influence of consumer awareness of CSR on purchase intention

The researcher hypothesised that consumer awareness of CSR positively influence purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector (H8). Results of the study supports H8 meaning that consumer awareness of CSR positively impacts purchase intention.

In the question of whether doing good pays, it was noted that doing good achieves a positive consumer intention to purchase firm products (Kotler & Lee, 2005; Saeidia et al., 2015; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Many previous studies support the notion that CSR awareness improves purchase intention (Ali, 2011; Cheng et al., 2015; Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Heidinger, 2012; Lee & Lee; 2015; Lee & Shin, 2010; Nanda, 2015; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011; Shafiq et al., 2011;

Walker & Kent, 2009; Wilcock et al., 2004; Wongpitch et al., 2016). Consumers buy products if the pricing mechanism carries a component of giving back to the community, which is referred to as Cause-related Marketing (CrM) (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Walker & Kent, 2009). Intention is a well thought or reasoned out, conscious plan to make an action (Nanda, 2015), which makes it fundamental to find out what components do consumers use to reason out an action (Bystrom & Malstad, 2013), to see if in any case CSR is crucial (Barnett & Salomon, 2012; Margolis et al., 2007; Yuan-Shuh et al., 2013). Sign and Malla (2017) also found that CSR matters in determining consumer behavior actions such as consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual buying. Lee (2018) adds that CSR determines consumer re-purchase and loyalty intentions.

7.5.4 Influence of consumer awareness of CSR on actual purchase behavior

The researcher hypothesised that consumer awareness of CSR positively influence consumer actual purchase (H9). Study results contradict H9 suggesting that consumer awareness of CSR does not lead to actual purchase. The results could be due to the current economic hardships that Zimbabwe is going through despite the level of CSR awareness.

When it comes to actual purchase, firms need to search for other factors that drive consumer final purchase. Kwon and Schumann (2010) submit that price and quality are amongst valuable predictors of consumer final purchase. Marumbwa (2013) confirms that the mobile telecommunications sector has had allegations of high prices coupled with poor services and this could also be the reason why CSR did not amount to actual purchase. The results of this study dispute various authors who have supported the notion that CSR awareness leads to consumer actual purchase (Ali, 2011; Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Gigauri, 2012; Lee & Lee, 2015; Lee & Shin, 2010; Shafiq et al., 2011; Wongpitch et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016).

7.6 Relationship between the consequences of consumer awareness of CSR

The hypotheses in this section (H10, H11, H12) were directed to find the connection between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour.

7.6.1 Influence of corporate image on consumer attitude

The researcher hypothesised that corporate image positively influence consumer attitude (H10). Results of the study supports H10 connoting that there is a positive relationship between corporate image and consumer attitude.

H10 implies that if a firm has a positive or good company image, it acquires good or positive consumer attitude. These findings are in line with other scholars who revealed that consumers favor a firm that has a good corporate image and would like to identify with it (consumer-company identity) (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Chen et al., 2015; Dowling, 2001; Elbedweihy & Jayawardhena, 2014; Michaels & Grunig, 2018). Various authors believe that corporate image foretells consumer attitude towards a product (Alcaniz et al., 2010; Chung et al., 2015; Lee, 2018; Martinez et al., 2014; Shabbir et al., 2018; Stoyanov, 2017).

7.6.2 Influence of consumer attitude on purchase intention

The researcher hypothesised that consumer attitude positively influence purchase intention (H11). Results of the study support H11, by confirming that consumer attitude is a determinant of purchase intention. This entails that consumer attitude forecasts possible purchase intention. Other scholars supports the fact that a positive consumer attitude results in a positive consumer purchase intention (Axelsson & Jahan, 2015; Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Cerkasov et al., 2017; Distefano & Pisano, 2016; Heidinger, 2012; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011; Pentz, 2011; Saat & Selamatb, 2014; van Doom et al., 2017; Wilcock et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2016).

7.6.3 Influence of purchase intention on actual purchase behaviour

The researcher hypothesised that purchase intention positively influence actual purchase behaviour (H12). Results of the study support H12 indicating that purchase intention positively influences consumer actual purchase.

H12 confirms that consumer actual buying is influenced by buying intention. In other words, positive purchase intention results in actual purchase or actual acquiring of products. A number of scholars found that if consumers do not exhibit positive intentions towards a firm or its products they will not actually buy the product (Ali, 2011; Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Bray, 2008; Butt, 2016; Carrington et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2015; Creyer & Ross, 1997; Eshra & Beshir, 2017;

Gigauri, 2012; Grimmer & Bingham, 2013; Lee & Lee, 2015; Lee & Shin, 2010; Nanda, 2015; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008; Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2014; Shafiq et al., 2011; Wongpitch et al., 2016; Wu & Lin, 2014; Wu et al., 2016).

7.7 Chapter summary

Research results were discussed in light of research hypotheses and major issues raised by the respondents corresponding with literature or other studies. The findings show that antecedents of consumer CSR awareness which include ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environment awareness and consumer generosity culture have a positive impact on CSR awareness. The study also found out that socio-demographic factors which include age, gender and level of education did not have significant influence on consumer CSR awareness. Additionally, the findings of the study conclude that CSR awareness has a direct impact on corporate image, consumer attitude and purchase intention but not on actual purchase. Finally, the study confirmed a positive relationship among corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. The next chapter presents conclusions and implications (theoretical, practical, methodological, future research) of the study.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions, Recommendations and Implications

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter integrated and discussed the study results in relation to each hypotheses. This chapter presents the conclusions, recommendations and implications of the study. It also touches on the contributions of the study to theory and practice, direction for future research and the recommendations of the study. Recommendations will be drawn from the findings and conclusions of the study.

8.2 Conclusions and recommendations

The study investigated the antecedents and consequences of consumer awareness of CSR in Zimbabwe's mobile telecommunications sector. Based on the comprehensive discussions of the results in Chapter 6 and 7, the main findings and conclusions of the study have been summarised under the objectives of the study as follows:

a) To determine the factors influencing consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector

The study sought to determine whether the selected factors influence consumer awareness of CSR. From the results of the study it can be concluded that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture have a direct influence on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector. There is also evidence in literature that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture influence consumer perception and awareness of CSR. Ethical consumerism is seen as a type of consumer awareness or behaviour that follows ethical values in buying decisions (Carrigan et al., 2010; Cole, 2017). Consumer rights awareness measures the level of awareness and exercise of consumer rights or protection (Bello et al., 2016; Toal & Broomes, 2017). Socio-environmental awareness assesses the level of knowledge or exercise of socio-environmental sustainability practices (Chan, 2014; Hawrysz & Foltys, 2015; Oleszko, 2014). A generous culture measures the extent to which the society values and follows bigheartedness related practices (Jin & Woo, 2016). In order for a firm to raise or improve consumer CSR awareness, the study recommends firms to employ CSR strategies that incorporate high level sentiments of ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture.

b) To determine the effect of demographics on consumer awareness of CSR in the mobile telecommunications sector

The study sought to determine if selected demographics; age, gender and level of education have a direct influence on CSR awareness. From the results of the study it can be concluded that age, gender and level of education did not have an influence on the respondents' awareness of CSR in Zimbabwe. In other words, there were no significant differences in the level of CSR awareness based on the respondents age, gender or level of education. Age in the study described the age groups differences of respondents that are important with respect to the ZIMSTAT (2014a) population survey. Gender labels refer to whether one is male or female according to nature. Level of education identifies the form of education that one has achieved at the time of data collection. These socio-demographic factors were not seen as having an influence on CSR awareness, though in numerous studies the same factors caused noticeable differences in study results. The study recommends that CSR communication be uniform irrespective of age, gender and level of education in Zimbabwe.

c) To determine the consequences of CSR awareness on consumer behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector

This objective sought to measure the connection between CSR awareness and consumer behaviour on selected factors (corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase). From findings it can be concluded that CSR awareness has an impact on corporate image evaluation, consumer attitude and purchase intentions but does not influence consumer actual purchase. Corporate image evaluation is the fact that CSR awareness enable consumers to judge the image of a firm as favourable (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Lee, 2018; Stoyanov; 2017). Consumer attitude is seen in the preference or un-favourability a consumer holds towards a brand or firm (Choi et al., 2017; Wongpitch et al., 2016). Purchase intention is the probability or willingness to acquire a service or product (Nanda, 2015; Tian et al., 2011). Actual purchase behaviour is the final act of acquiring or owning a product (Chen et al., 2015; Gigauri, 2012). From the results, it can be concluded that if firms want to positively influence corporate image evaluation, consumer attitude and purchase intention, then firms should make consumers aware of CSR activities. The study results also shows that firms need to manipulate other factors, outside CSR awareness, in order to attain actual purchase.

d) To test the effect of corporate image on consumer attitude in the mobile telecommunications sector

This objective sought to determine the link between corporate image and consumer attitude. From the findings of the study it can be concluded that when consumers have a positive corporate image it leads to a favourable or positive attitude. Consumer attitude was defined earlier as the favourability or un-favourability tendencies consumers develop and hold towards a firm, that are either negative or positive with regards to the image that a corporate has built. Scholars agree that a firm that has attained a negative image will inevitably attain a negative consumer attitude (Heidinger, 2012; Nanda, 2015; Pawlak & Zasuwa, 2011). From the study findings, it can be established that in order for firms to positively influence consumer attitude, they should protect, defend, create or build a positive corporate image. CSR is a component that is considered voluntary and genuine, that can be used by firms in building, maintaining and protecting a positive corporate image.

e) To test the effect of consumer attitude on purchase intention in the mobile telecommunications sector

The objective sought to measure the association between consumer attitude and purchase intention. From the study findings, it can be determined that consumer attitude is positively linked to purchase intention. When consumers exhibit a positive attitude towards a product, it results in positive buying intention. The willingness or desire to acquire a good or service can be accounted for by the attitude that a consumer holds of the firm or product (Ali, 2011; Chen et al., 2015; Wongpitch et al., 2016). The study commends that it is crucial for marketing practitioners to change consumer attitudes in their favor in order to promote purchase intention and CSR can aid in achieving positive consumer attitude.

f) To test the effect of purchase intention on actual purchase behaviour in the mobile telecommunications sector

The objective sought to evaluate the relationship between purchase intention and actual purchase. From the results of the study it can be concluded that consumer purchase intention is closely linked to consumer actual purchase. If consumers possess a favourable willingness or intention to purchase, it follows that they will buy the product. Consumer actual purchase is not an abstract phenomenon but can be explained, extrapolated or articulated through consumer purchase intentions too (Anim & Agbemabiese, 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Lee & Lee, 2015; Wu et al., 2016). From the results it can

be agreed that if firms want to attain actual purchase, the firms need to comprehend and induce purchase intentions through marketing strategies and CSR is one of the marketing strategies.

8.3 Implications of the study

This sub-section discusses the implications of the study on theory, practice, methodology and future research.

8.3.1 Theoretical implications

The outcomes of the study demonstrate that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and a generosity culture influence consumer perception or awareness of CSR. Currently, there is insufficient evidence in literature regarding measuring these factors in connection to CSR. Furthermore, the study supports other scholars' findings that consumer awareness of CSR influences consumer evaluation of corporate image, affects consumer attitude and purchase intention. The study contributes further by measuring the association among corporate image evaluation, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour. Lastly, the study has been conducted in a less developed country which gives insight into the domains of CSR and consumer behaviour in developing countries. The study contributed to theory in the following manner;

Firstly, there is lack of evidence on studies that have investigated the antecedents of CSR awareness in the form of ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture in general, in Africa and in Zimbabwe specifically. Studies that have looked at antecedents of CSR, considered the precursors of CSR as financial performance, ethics and legal frameworks (Chen et al., 2016; Fan 2017; Marfo et al., 2016; Othman et al., 2013). More so, the studies in literature used company perspectives, provided firm-based factors and did not underscore factors promoting or hindering CSR awareness from a consumer's perspective. The studies looked at what promotes or hinders firms from engaging in CSR rather than what promotes or hinders consumer CSR awareness. Ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture have been dealt with in literature as far as definitions and descriptions are concerned, while the current study measures and explains their influence on CSR awareness. The contribution of the study is that ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and generosity culture influence consumer awareness of CSR.

Secondly, there is insufficient evidence of studies that focused on results or consequences of CSR awareness, mainly from a consumer perspective, with respect to corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. Firm-based studies that looked at consequences of CSR activities bracketed CSR results as general market responses, perceived corporate reputation, competitive edge, improved finances, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Chen et al., 2016; Fan 2017; Groening, 2015; Kang et al., 2016; Marfo et al., 2016; Othman et al., 2013). Furthermore, a few consumer-based studies that looked at results of CSR practices focused on perceived credibility of the campaigns, attitude toward brand, brand image, purchase intention, consumer-company identification, repeat purchase and word of mouth (Lii et al., 2013; Stoyanov, 2017; Walker & Kent, 2009; Wu et al., 2016), which is different from this study. The contribution of the current study, therefore, is demonstrating that CSR awareness has a direct impact on corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention but not on consumer actual purchase. Additionally, there are other factors to consider in the consumer ultimate or actual purchase decision other than CSR and these still need to be explored.

Thirdly, there is lack of consistent evidence of studies that focused on the relationship that exists among corporate image, consumer attitude, buying intention and actual purchase, in that order using a consumer perspective. Some studies have looked at one or two of the components, for instance, most studies looked at consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase, as individual factors not measuring a relationship (Ali, 2011; Lii et al., 2013; Martinez et al., 2014; Walker & Kent, 2009; Wongpitch et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016). The study measured a possible linear or direct relationship among corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase which currently has unclear evidence in literature. The contribution of the study is that corporate image, consumer attitude, buying intention and actual buying have a direct linear relationship.

Fourthly, CSR and consumer behaviour domains have been extensively studied in the developed countries, but these are at their infancy stages in the developing worlds in general, and in African developing countries, in particular (Ali & Frynas, 2017; Bird & Smucker, 2007; Jamali & Mirshak, 2007). Kotler and Lee (2005) believe the level of CSR attention by both consumers and firms is significantly different between developed to the developing countries. That being the case, it is possible that CSR awareness achieves differential precursors and results too. This study's input to

knowledge is through providing a measured relationship of the aforementioned precursors and results of CSR awareness in an African developing country.

Lastly, the study contributes to knowledge by demonstrating confirmed and non-confirmed relationships between studied constructs and variables in the models as presented on Figure 8.1 and Figure 8.2.

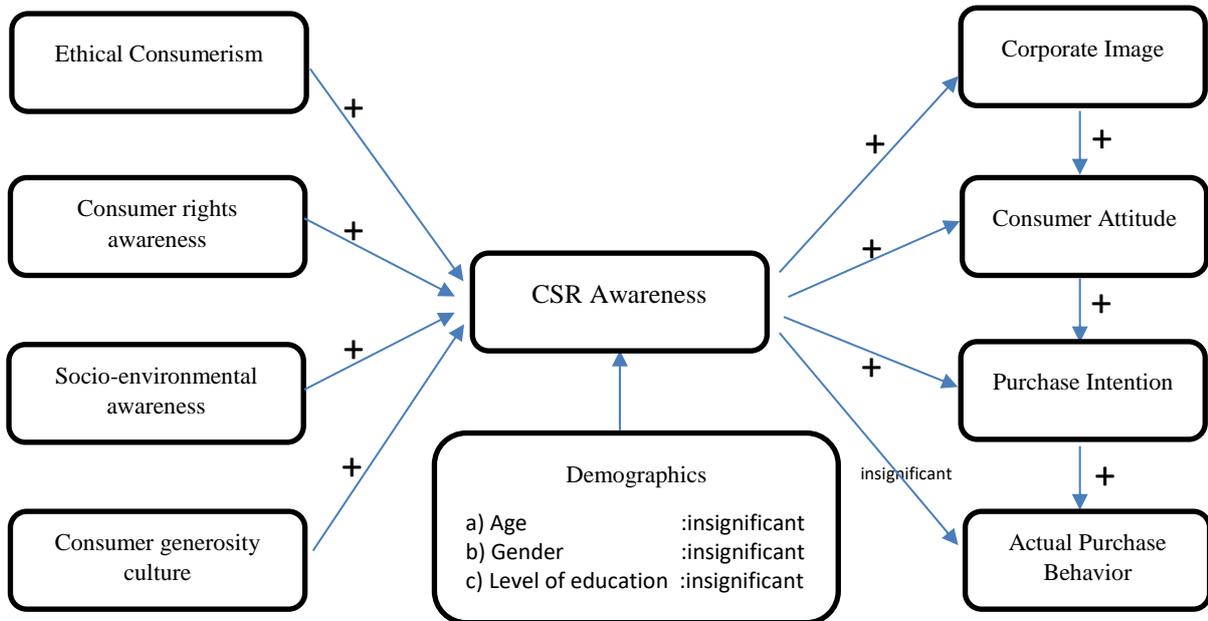


FIGURE 8.1: ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CSR AWARENESS

Using the accepted and disapproved hypotheses, with literature support, Figure 8.2 is developed as the adopted empirical model of the current study.

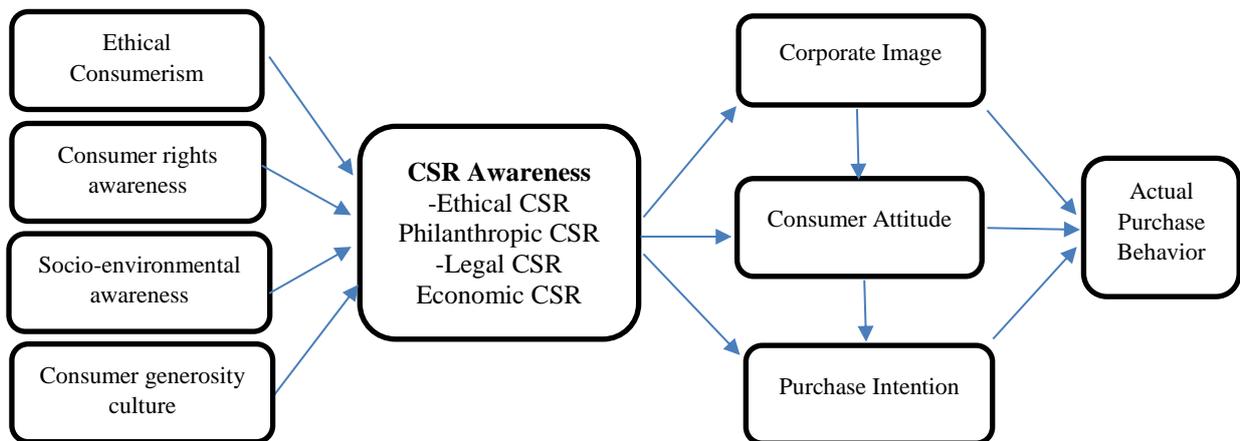


FIGURE 8.2: ADOPTED EMPIRICAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

8.3.2 Practical implications

The practical implications of the study are submitted as follows;

a) **Mobile telecommunications sector firms**

The implications of the study to the Zimbabwean mobile telecommunications sector are as follows;

(i) Demand-side practice of CSR

The study urges mobile telecommunications firms to practice CSR derived from a consumer perspective. CSR initiatives that address society problems enhance community recognition than those practiced for the sake of it. CSR in practice has always been in the best interests of the firm, that is, either 'working' for management or that is manageable within the firm's budget. The findings of this study propose a shift from firm-based to consumer-oriented CSR, as this approach is mutually beneficial to the consumer and the firm. Research shows that some firms have severally misallocated resources without achieving targeted consumer appeal due to the fact that they have attended to societally irrelevant aspects (Wisdom et al., 2018). Such an approach is not beneficial to both parties, thus, firms are advised to actively engage the community and go through research before engaging in CSR. Society should determine CSR initiatives in line with their challenges, where it becomes easy for society-firm identification (consumer-company identification) (Chen et al., 2015; Elbedweihy & Jayawardhena, 2014). Global companies that have assisted communities on relevant problems in the past and those that continue to do so, have their corporate names widely identified with that aid, program or project. This is beneficial to the overall image of the companies.

(ii) CSR investment and market efficiency

According to Kang et al., (2016) firms should be in a position to calculate optimal CSR investment against market efficiency. Optimal investment is the type, time or costs incurred in carrying out a CSR initiative while market efficiency is the number of old, new and potential consumers that are attracted and positively change their minds about the firm due to the CSR initiative (Perera & Chaminda, 2012). Market efficiency is also seen in the firm's capability to mitigate negativity, develop competitive muscles and lobby, influence or change legislation. Firstly, when engaging in CSR, firms should underscore the type of change or consumer appeal they require (Carrington et al., 2010; Davies et al., 2012; Walker & Kent, 2009). The firm should research on the type of consumer, their specific needs and societal needs (Carrington et al., 2010). Then the firm should select the ideal CSR initiatives and CSR communication strategies that effectively reach and

influence consumer behaviour (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Secondly, CSR is used as a competitive tool across industries (Asamoah, 2015; Davies et al., 2003; Saeidia et al., 2015). CSR puts firm brand and image in a positive renown to society (Chen et al., 2015; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). Thirdly, CSR can be used as a buffer against negative outcomes in the marketplace and it maintains a good name for the company (Einwiller et al., 2006). Management therefore should practice CSR initiatives that achieve significant recognition and set the firm at a better position or image. Lastly, CSR in practice is used by Multi-National and Trans-National firms to influence governments and local authority decisions. Management can use CSR to logically avoid taxation, attain society to government favour. Firms that exercise CSR are in a position to influence the society opinions and government actions (Davenport, 2000; Graafland et al., 2007; Popa & Salanta, 2014).

b) Government of Zimbabwe

Currently, there are no governing policies, incentives or rules of law regarding CSR practice in Zimbabwe. Similarly, there is an accompanying huge financial challenge on the government of Zimbabwe to address societal challenges and social investments. Since the government of Zimbabwe is financially incapacitated, firms can be useful in addressing societal problems, community investments and positive development. The government of Zimbabwe can set guidelines on what CSR practices firms can engage in, probably following the nature of industry, especially for hazardous industries and providing incentive schemes for firms engaging in CSR such as offering tax holidays. The government of Zimbabwe can implement tax on firms to generate funds for sustainability programs and laws that promote identification of better, cleaner methods of production to eliminate companies' impact on non-renewable resources.

8.3.3 Methodological implications

The present study utilised a consumer perspective to determine antecedents and consequences of CSR awareness. By so doing, the study contributed new information to literature on CSR awareness in Zimbabwe, Africa and the world over; moreso in the marketing field. The study is different from numerous studies which utilised a company perspective and other specific aspects like students as core informants. Using the generality of customer perspective provided in-depth view of CSR awareness, factors that promote or hinder CSR awareness.

The study measured the connection between corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. Literature holds insufficient evidence of the measured relationship between

corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. The variables used are available in literature having been measured either individually or against other non-CSR business or market aspects. Where the variables were measured against CSR, numerous studies focused on the constructs individually or in pairs and not from corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention to actual purchase in totality. The study provides insight into how corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase are directly related.

8.3.4 Future research implications

The current study has limitations in that the study only focused on Zimbabwe and on one sector. It is possible that other countries and/ or sectors may provide different results of factors affecting CSR awareness and consumer behaviour consequences of CSR awareness. There is need to conduct a similar study in another developing country or countries and/ or sectors.

The study also looked at antecedents of CSR awareness mainly in the form of ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture. This limits the results of the study to the measured influence of ethical consumerism, consumer rights awareness, socio-environmental awareness and consumer generosity culture in connection to CSR awareness. There is need to look into other unique antecedents of CSR awareness. Furthermore, the study focused on consumer behaviour consequences of CSR awareness in the form of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. This entails that the study is limited in explaining consumer behaviour consequences of CSR awareness in the form of corporate image, consumer attitude, purchase intention and actual purchase. There is therefore need to look into CSR awareness influence on other consumer behaviour aspects such as perception, learning, motivation, emotions, image, involvement and so on.

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Appendix 1 - Sources of socio-demographic profile dimensions

The establishment of variables or items that were used under socio-demographic characteristics of this study was based on extensive literature studied and reviewed in the literature review section of this study. Socio-demographic factors guidelines have been adapted from relevant, associated authorities such as Chung et al., (2015), IndexMundi (2018) and Makanyeza (2014).

City		Position		Age	
Liaoning	57.00%	Student	35.70%	18-24	29.00%
Shandong	15.00%	Company employee	48.30%	25-30	60.70%
Beijing	13.00%	Government official	3.70%	31-40	8.30%
Shanghai	8.30%	Others	12.30%		
Guangdong	3.30%				
Jilin	3.30%				
N=276					
Education level		Know CSR		The level of CSR	
Under high school	0.30%	Yes	53.70%	Low	45.70%
High school	2.30%	No	46.30%	Middle	51.70%
College graduate	64.70%			High	2.70%
Postgraduate or Ph.D.	32.70%				

Source – Chung et al., (2015): The Effects of CSR on Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty in China:

The Moderating Role of Corporate Image

Age structure

- 0-14 years:** 38.9% (male 2,658,563/female 2,711,017)
- 15-24 years:** 20.47% (male 1,383,337/female 1,442,738)
- 25-54 years:** 31.9% (male 2,207,012/female 2,196,996)
- 55-64 years:** 4.27% (male 233,771/female 355,738)
- 65 years and over:** 4.46% (male 251,968/female 363,944) (2017 est.)

Source – IndexMundi (2018): Zimbabwe Demographics Profile 2018

Tick where correct answer	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	139	45.6%
Female	166	54.4%
Age		
18 – 19	4	1.3%
20 – 24	56	18.4%
25 – 29	80	26.2%
30 – 39	93	30.5%
40 – 49	61	20.0%
50 – 59	11	3.6%
Marital status		
Single	121	39.7%

Married	160	52.5%
Divorced	9	3.0%
Widowed	9	3.0%
Separated	2	0.7%
Living together	4	1.3%
Name of city where you stay		
Harare	175	57.4%
Bulawayo	130	42.6%
Residential area		
Low density	116	38.0%
Medium density	90	29.5%
High density	99	32.5%
Highest level of education		
Grade 7	1	0.3%
ZJC	18	5.9%
O-Level	21	6.9%
A-Level	33	10.8%
Diploma	98	32.1%
Bachelor's	102	33.4%
Master's	28	9.2%
Doctoral	4	1.3%
Monthly gross income (USD)		
Less than 500	128	42.0%
500 – 999	86	28.2%
1,000 – 1,499	55	18.0%
1,500 – 1,999	18	5.9%
2,000+	18	5.9%
Ethnic grouping		
Shona	233	76.4%
Ndebele	56	18.4%
Other	16	5.2%
Number of household members		
1	12	3.9%
2	30	9.8%
3	48	15.7%
4	84	27.5%
5	63	20.7%
6	55	18.0%
6+	13	4.3%
Religion		
Christianity	299	98.0%
Islam	2	0.7%
Hindu	1	0.3%
Other	3	1.0%

Source - Makanyeza (2014): Consumer Awareness, Ethnocentrism, Attitude and Purchase Behaviour toward imported poultry products: A Zimbabwean Perspective

Appendix 2 - Sources of Antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR

a) Ethical consumerism dimensions

The study used the constructs and variables by both adapting and adopting the main elements used in previous studies.

Ethics and Social Responsibility Statements

Perceived Quality of Ethics Statements (PES)

PES1. Relative to other companies in the industry, the company's corporate credo is good.

PES2. Relative to other companies in the industry, the company's code of ethics is good.

PES3. Relative to other companies in the industry, the company's ethics statement is good.

Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility (PCSR)

PCSR1. The company is committed to well-defined ethics principles.

PCSR2. The company ensures that their employees act in a legal manner.

PCSR3. The company plans for their long-term success as well as society's.

PCSR4. The company plays a role in our society that goes beyond the mere generation of profits

Source – Stanaland et al., (2011): Consumer Perceptions of the Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility

Ethical consumerism level

What does ethical consumption mean to you?
Is there any ethical issue that concerns you in your daily consumption?
As a consumer, are there any ethical concerns in your daily consumption?

Source – Huo (2016): Exploring the meaning of ethical consumption: A Chinese perspective

Measuring perceived CSR

Dimension	Item
Sales practices	Selling customers products they cannot afford
	Selling customers products they do not really need
	Selling customers products that are bad for their health
Dishonesty	Making misleading claims to customers through advertising
	Having sales people make false claims to customers about products
Offensive material	Exposing customers to provocative images through advertising
	Exposing customers to products that are offensive to some people
	Exposing customers to products and images that are not family friendly

Source – Moisescu (2016): Development and validation of a measurement scale for customers' perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibility

b) Consumer rights awareness dimensions

The Zimbabwean consumer protection bill of 2014 was used as the main basis of variables to measure the level of consumer awareness of their rights. The variables are supported by Bello et al., (2016) eight (8) forms of consumer rights founded by the United Nations in 1985.

Zimbabwe Consumer Protection Bill (2014)

PART III- FUNDAMENTAL CONSUMER RIGHTS

7. Right to the satisfaction of Basic Needs
8. Right to safety
9. Right to be informed / display of prices
10. Right to choose
11. Right to be heard
12. Right to redress
13. Right to Consumer Education
14. Right to information in plain and understandable language
15. Consumer's right to select suppliers
16. Consumer's right to cancel advance reservation, booking or order
17. Consumer's right to choose or examine goods
18. Consumer's right to safe, good and quality goods
19. Consumer's right to be heard and obtain redress

PART IV- CONTRACTUAL PROTECTION, UNFAIR CONTRACT TERMS AND RELIEF AGAINST UNFAIR CONTRACTS

20. When consumer contract is unfair
21. When exercise or non-exercise of power is unfair
22. Relief against unfair consumer contracts

PART V- PROTECTION OF CONSUMER RIGHTS AND CONSUMER'S VOICE

23. Realisation of consumer rights
24. Enforcement of rights by consumer
25. Initiating complaint to commission
26. Accredited Consumer group may initiate action
27. Redress by Court.
28. Civil society support for Consumer's rights

Sources - Zimbabwe Government Printers (2014): Consumer Protection Bill

Consumerism and Consumer Rights Awareness founded by the United Nations in 1985

i. Right to Basic Needs: The right to basic goods and services that are considered as necessities of life, such as adequate food, clothing, shelter, health care, education and sanitation.

ii. Right to Safety: The right to be protected against the marketing of goods and services, and production processes that are hazardous to health and life.

iii. Right to Information: The right to be given adequate information needed to make informed choices. It also includes the right to be protected against dishonest or misleading advertising or labeling.

iv. Right to Choice: The right to choose products and services that are of satisfactory quality and competitively priced. This right entails the prevention of consumers from exposure to unfair and exploitative business practices, such as monopolies, artificial scarcity, profiteering etc.

v. Right to Representation: This refers to the consumers' right to be heard. The right to express consumer interests in the making and execution of government policy.

vi. Right to Redress: The right to be compensated for misrepresentation, shoddy goods or unsatisfactory services.

vii. Right to Consumer Education: The right to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to be an informed consumer.

viii. Right to Healthy Environment: The right to live and work in an environment which is neither threatening nor dangerous and which permits a life of dignity and wellbeing.

Source – Bello et al., (2016): Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumer Rights Awareness: A Research Agenda

c) Socio-environmental awareness dimensions

The study referred to authorities that have captured various social, environmental dimensions and items that relate to the socio-environmental awareness. The socio-environmental dimensions and items have been summarized by the works of Moisescu (2016) in the article the ‘Development and validation of a measurement scale for customers’ perception of corporate social responsibility’. The variables used to measure the socio-environmental awareness in this study are a summary of the following dimensions;

Measuring perceived CSR on socio-environment awareness

Measuring perceived CSR - Mohr and Webb (2005)

Dimension	Item (“I believe that companies should ...”)
Environment	Make every effort to reduce the pollution from their factories
	Use recycled materials in manufacturing new products
	Have factory programs to conserve water and energy

Measuring perceived CSR - Becker-Olsen, Taylor, Hill and Yalcinkaya (2011)

Dimension	Item
Citizenship	Is a brand that cares
	Is a good corporate citizen
	Has a strong value system
	Acts for the good of the community

Measuring perceived CSIR – Wagner, Bicen and Hall (2008)

Dimension	Items (“In my opinion, retail companies act socially irresponsible when ...”)
Natural environment	Selling products whose production harms the natural environment
	Producing extensive amounts of waste
	Contributing substantially to environmental pollution
Societal rules	^Cheating on taxes
	Paying bribes
	Ignoring the law
	Breaking the law

Measuring perceived CSR – Singh and Bosque (2008)

Dimension	Item (“The company ...”)
Ethical	Is concerned to fulfil its obligations vis-a-vis its shareholders & partners
	Is concerned to respect the human rights when carrying out its activities
	Always respects the norms defined in the law when carrying out its activities
	Ethical principles have priority over economic performance
Social	Is concerned about protecting natural environment
	Directs part of its budget to donations and social works
	Supports the development of the society financing social & cultural activities
	Is concerned to improve general well-being of the society

Measuring perceived CSR – Turker (2009)

Dimension	Item (“Our company...”)
Society	Participates in activities which aim to protect the quality of the environment
	Makes investment to create a better life for future generations
	Implements programs to minimize its negative impact on the environment
	Targets sustainable growth which considers future generations
	Supports NGOs working in problematic areas
	Contributes to campaigns & projects that promote society’s well-being
	Encourages its employees to participate in voluntarily activities
Consumers	Emphasizes the importance of its social responsibilities to the society
	Respects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements

Government	Provides full and accurate information about products to customers Considers customer satisfaction as highly important Always pays its taxes on a regular and continuing basis Complies with legal regulations completely and promptly
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Measuring perceived ethicality – Brunk (2010)

Domain	Sub-domain
Environment	Pollution; Corporate travel policies; Sustainable farming; Animal protection; Recycling; Pro-active search for alternatives
Overseas community	Exploitation of labor; Exploitation of natural resources; Violation of human rights; Human trafficking; Supporting political regimes; Illegal trade
Local economy and community	Location of head-office; Location of place of production; Community support; Involvement with dubious organization; Charities, foundations; Importing
Business community	Fair trade and sourcing; Pushing competitors out of business; Mergers and acquisitions; Intellectual rights; Accounting/reporting practices; Corruption

Measuring perceived CSR – Mandhachitara and Poolthong (2011)

Dimension	Item
Community support	Donate to charities; Help the disadvantaged Offer disaster relief; Supports anti-drug Figureht Provide education scholarship
Environment support	Support forest preservation Support environment preservation Support water resource preservation

Measuring perceived CSR – Pérez and Bosque (2013)

Dimension	Item (“I believe that this company ...”)
Society	Helps solve social problems Uses part of its budget for donations and social projects Contributes money to cultural and social events (e.g. music, sports) Plays a role in the society beyond the generation of economic benefits Is concerned with improving the general well-being of society Is concerned with respecting and protecting the natural environment

Measuring perceived CSR – Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, Murphy and Gruber (2014)

Dimension	Item
Community	Contribute to the economic development of the region Preserve jobs in the region Create jobs for people in the region Source products and raw materials locally Respect regional values, customs, and culture
Environment	Communicate openly and honestly with the local community Reduce energy consumption Reduce emissions like CO2 Prevent waste Recycle Dispose of waste correctly Invest in research and development regarding environmental protection
Societal	Corporate environmental protection standards are higher than legal Employ people with disabilities Employ long-term unemployed Make donations to social facilities Support employees who are involved in social projects during working hours Invest in the education of young people Contribute to solving societal problems

Source - Moisescu (2016): Development and validation of a measurement scale for customers’ perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibility

d) Consumer generosity culture dimensions

Deep seated cultural values in a society seem to underpin measures of weighing corporate behaviours such as CSR. Kanji and Agrawal (2016) acknowledges the growth of CSR from

Mahatma Gandhi in the early 20th century that occurred due to donations in cash or kind, community investments in trusts, essential services such as schools, libraries and hospitals. The development of CSR stemming from such issues reveal the general society’s belief that corporates in a society should be in a position to give and share resources. Mahatma Gandhi stirred both the spirit of giving, sharing and helping. His idea was taken as the Indian Ethical model of CSR. Dimensions of a generosity culture were taken from the following;

Measuring perceived CSR on consumer generosity culture

Measuring perceived CSR - Maignan (2001)

Dimension	Item (“I believe that businesses must ...”)
Philanthropic	Help solve social problems Participate in the management of public affairs Allocate some of their resources to philanthropic activities Play a role in our society that goes beyond the mere generation of profits

Measuring perceived CSR – Salmones, et al (2005)

Dimension	Item (“I believe my operating company ...”)
Philanthropic	Is concerned to respect and protect natural environment Actively sponsors or finances social events (sport, music...) Directs part of its budget to donations and social works Is concerned to improve general well-being of society

Measuring perceived CSR - Mohr and Webb (2005)

Dimension	Item (“I believe that companies should ...”)
Philanthropic	Regularly make donations to charity Have programs to recognize employees for their volunteer work Donate some of their products to people in need

Source - Moisescu (2016): Development and validation of a measurement scale for customers’ perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibility

Customer CSR Awareness

To what extent do you agree that StanBed Tours should be engaged in the following (Customer CSR Awareness);
Beneficial marketing to company, customer and society
Voluntary donations for charitable cause
Positively contributes to educational needs of the local community of Tours
To what extent do you agree that the CSR activities of StanBed Tours has an effect on your loyalty? (Customer attitude towards StanBed Tours)
StanBed Tours ensures a good working condition for its employees
I am satisfied purchasing a trip from StanBed Tours knowing company makes effort in CSR
I support StanBed Tours because I believe part of their profits goes in to charitable causes
StanBed Tours actively participates and supports CSR activities.

I choose to purchase vacation trips from StanBed Tours because of its active engagement in CSR practices

I support StanBed Tours because part of profits goes into environmental sustainable initiatives

Source - Bediako (2017): The Impact Of Corporate Social Responsibility on Customer Loyalty. A Case Study of StanBed Tours ky

Factor analysis of consumer perceptions of CSR

Factor 2: Philosophy responsibility F2

A company should voluntarily participate in charitable projects for the disadvantaged

A company should actively sponsor social events (cultures, arts, sports...)

A company should direct parts of its revenues to donate to charities

A company should be concerned with the enhancement of a society's quality of life

Source - Palihawadana, Oghazi and Liu (2016): Effects of ethical ideologies and perceptions of CSR on consumer behaviour.

Appendix 3 – Sources of Consumer awareness of CSR dimensions

CSR measurement items

Constructs	Measurement items	Authors	
Philanthropic responsibility	1. This firm supports culture and art activities of local community.	Carroll & Shabana (2010)	
	2. Managers and employees participate in charitable activities of their local communities.		
	3. This firm supports private and public educational institutions.		
	4. This firm assists to enhance quality of life in the local community.		
Ethical responsibility	1. This firm operates in a manner consistent with expectations of societal and ethical norms.		
	2. This firm recognizes and respects new ethical/moral norms		
	3. This firm prevents unethical behaviors in order to achieve organizational goals.		
	4. This firm make efforts to be good citizenship.		
Legal responsibility	1. This firm operates business in a manner consistent with expectations of government and law		
	2. This firm obeys various federal, state, and local regulations.		
	3. This firm fulfills its legal obligation.		
	4. This firm meets minimal legal requirements related to goods and service		
Economic responsibility	1. This firm focuses on maximizing earnings.		
	2. This firm is committed to profitability.		
	3. This firm has a strong competitive position		
	4. This firm seeks a profitable business.		
Environmental contribution	1. This firm practices recycling pollutants and wastes.	Sandhu & Kapoor (2010)	
	2. This firm invests in energy conservation		
	3. This firm manufactures eco-friendly products		
	EC4. This firm sets out effluent treatment plant.		
Consumer protection	1. This firm makes efforts to improve product quality.		
	2. This firm settles customers' complaints quickly.		
	3. This firm practices product improvement by customers' requirement.		
	4. This firm makes efforts to improve customer service.		
Corporate image	1. This firm has an overall clean reputation.		Ishaq(2012), Yeo et al., (2011)
	2. This firm is open to consumers.		
	3. This firm has good transparency.		
Customer satisfaction	1. The policy of CSR of this firm meets my expectation.	Kaur and Soch (2012)	
	2. Overall, I am satisfied with CSR activities of this firm		
	3. Overall, I am satisfied with product and service of this firm.		
Customer loyalty	1. I would like to positively speak to surrounding people about this firm.	Ishaq(2012)	
	2. I would like to patronize this firm		
	3. I would like to recommend this firm to colleagues who seek my advice.		

Source: Chung et al., (2015): The Effects of CSR on Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty in China: The Moderating Role of Corporate Image

CSR constructs

Construct	Item
Perceived CSR	I feel that Social responsibility record of Company X is good Company X is a socially responsible company
Trust of CSR	I think Company X took a lot of efforts to be socially responsible I think Company X's socially responsible actions are sincerely aimed at contributing to the society
Awareness of CSR religiosity	I care about environmental protection in my day to day activities I pay attention to some social issues involving multinational companies' donation I feel sorrow and dissatisfaction when I do something against my faith I have a feeling of being afraid of Allah I have a feeling of being punished by Allah when I do something wrong

	I feel pleasure by seeing others follow Islamic teachings
Purchase Intention	I am willing to pay a little more for Company X's product If I am planning to buy a house hold product e.g. refrigerator, I will choose Company X's product

Source: Butt (2016): Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumer Buying Behavior in Emerging Market: A Mixed Method Study

CSR reliability and validity analysis

Table II. Reliability and validity analysis of the questionnaire (n=753)

Research dimensions	Measurement variables
Economic CSR	I think that 7-Eleven can stimulate economic activities in Taiwan I think that 7-Eleven provides advantages for consumers I think that 7-Eleven has a higher operational efficiency I think that 7-Eleven provides great value products I think that 7-Eleven offers reasonably priced products I think that 7-Eleven can stimulate the local markets
Legal CSR	I think that 7-Eleven abides by legal regulations I think that 7-Eleven abides by all transaction laws and regulations I think that 7-Eleven meets all required regulations I think that 7-Eleven meets all its legal obligations I think that the products and services provided by 7-Eleven comply with the regulations of our country
Ethical CSR	I think that 7-Eleven meets the expectations of society I think that 7-Eleven respects the moral standards of our society I think that 7-Eleven will handle defective products to the satisfaction of consumers I think that 7-Eleven is trustworthy and reliable I think that 7-Eleven abides by its commercial ethical standards
Philanthropic CSR	I think that 7-Eleven meets the expectations of society in the field of philanthropic activities I think that 7-Eleven organizes or sponsors philanthropic activities I think that the 7-Eleven staff participates in philanthropic activities on a voluntary basis I think that 7-Eleven participates in public welfare activities
Brand trust	I think that 7-Eleven deserves to be trusted I have trust in the 7-Eleven service and product quality I think that 7-Eleven gives first priority to consumer benefits I think that 7-Eleven has a high brand reputation I think that the 7-Eleven brand deserves to be trusted
Brand satisfaction	I think that the 7-Eleven sales process is highly efficient I think that the 7-Eleven service personnel has a very positive attitude I think that 7-Eleven products and services are reliable I think that the services and products provided by 7-Eleven meet consumer demands I think that the services and products provided by 7-Eleven are highly satisfying to consumers
Brand attachment	I strongly identify with 7-Eleven I think that 7-Eleven can provide me with a greater level of satisfaction than other convenience stores I think that 7-Eleven products can be used safely and without risk I think that the shopping experience at 7-Eleven is an important part of my daily life

Source: Wu and Lin (2014): The Correlation of CSR and Consumer Behavior - A Study of Convenience Store

Appendix 4 – Sources of Consequences of consumer awareness of CSR

CSR reliability and validity analysis

Research dimensions	Measurement variables
Current purchasing behaviour	<ul style="list-style-type: none">I purchase different types of products at 7-Eleven on a regular basisI use different services provided by 7-ElevenI'm highly familiar with the 7-Eleven product categories and itemsI purchase products and services at 7-Eleven on a daily basisI purchase products and services at 7-Eleven more often than other peopleI think that 7-Eleven promotional activities stimulate my purchasing desireI think that shopping at 7-Eleven makes up a large part of my daily shopping activitiesI think that 7-Eleven's own brands are superior to other brands
Future purchase intention	<ul style="list-style-type: none">I intend to continue to purchase 7-Eleven products and servicesI would gladly repurchase 7-Eleven products or servicesI prefer 7-Eleven products and services to those of other convenience storesI am willing to participate in 7-Eleven promotional activitiesI'm willing to accept the recommendations of 7-Eleven service personnel about different products or servicesI would recommend my friends or relatives to purchase 7-Eleven products or servicesI would tell other consumers about the advantages of buying 7-Eleven products and services

Wu and Lin (2014): The Correlation of CSR and Consumer Behavior - A Study of Convenience Store

Support and evaluation for CSR in each country

(Strongly Disagree, Somewhat Disagree, Neutral, Somewhat Agree, Strongly Agree)

1. I would pay more to buy products from a socially responsible company:
2. I consider the ethical reputation of fashion businesses when I shop:
3. I avoid buying products from fashion companies that have engaged in immoral actions:
4. I would pay more to buy products from fashion companies that show care for the well-being of our society:
5. If the price and quality of two products are the same, I would buy from a fashion firm that has a socially responsible reputation:

I believe fashion business must:

(Strongly Disagree, Somewhat Disagree, Neutral, Somewhat Agree, Strongly Agree)

6. Maximize profits:
7. Control their production costs strictly:
8. Plan for their long term success:
9. Always improve economic performance:
10. Ensure that their employees act within the standards defined by the law:
11. Refrain from putting aside their contractual obligations:
12. Refrain from bending the law even this helps improve performance:
13. Always submit to the principles defined by the regulatory system:
14. Permit ethical concerns to negatively affect economic performance:
15. Ensure that the respect of ethical principles has priority over economic performance:
16. Be committed to well-defined ethical principles:
17. Avoid compromising ethical standards in order to achieve corporate goals:
18. Help solve social problems:
19. Participate in the management of public affairs:
20. Allocate some of their resource to philanthropic activities:
21. Play a role in our society that goes beyond the mere generation of profits:

Bystrom and Malstad (2013): Consumers' Perception of CSR within the Fashion Industry

Consumer attitude and buying intention

Measures used: Effect of corporate social responsibility motives on purchase intention model

There are six constructs in a conceptual model; altruistic motive, self-interest motive, attitude toward the firm, product quality, attitude toward the products, and buying intention. The definitions and items of these scales were derived from existing scales (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Ellen et al., 2006; Groza et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2009; Lii & Lee, 2012) and insights from the focus group interview. The definitions of the scales and their items are shown as follows:

Altruistic motive

Altruistic motive is defined as the extent that the CSR activities are perceived as unselfish concern for or unselfish devotion to the welfare of others. It is measured using by a five-item, 7-point Likert scale. The scale consists of the following items:

- _ Company XXX really wants to help improve society with its CSR programs.
- _ The motive of Company XXX in helping society with its CSR programs is very pure.
- _ Company XXX does not expect anything in return for its CSR programs.
- _ Company XXX does not have any hidden agenda for its CSR programs.
- _ Being a socially-responsible company is really Company XXX's mission.

Self-interest motive

Self-interest motive is defined as the extent that the CSR activities are perceived as concern for the company's own interest or advantage. It is measured by a four-item, 7-point Likert scale. The scale consists of the following items:

- _ The objective of Company XXX in helping society with its CSR programs is to benefit itself only.
- _ Company XXX launches its CSR programs only to increase its sales and profit.
- _ The motive of Company XXX in helping society with its CSR programs is very questionable.
- _ Being a socially-responsible company is never part of Company XXX's company mission.

Attitude toward the firm

The attitude toward the firm is defined as the overall evaluation of the firm in a favorable or unfavorable way. It is measured by a three-item, 7-point Likert scale. The scale consists of the following items:

- _ My overall attitude toward Company XXX is very positive.
- _ My overall feeling toward Company XXX is very favorable.
- _ Overall, I like Company XXX very much.

Perceived quality

Perceived quality is defined as the overall superiority of the company's products. It is measured by a three-item, 7-point Likert scale. The scale consists of the following items:

- _ Company XXX's products are very well produced/made.
- _ Company XXX's products always deliver the benefits as claimed or promised.
- _ Company XXX's products meet the highest standards.

Attitude toward the brand

Attitude toward the brand is defined as the overall evaluation of the company's brand in a favorable or unfavorable way. It is measured by a three-item, 7-point Likert scale. The scale consists of the following items:

- _ My overall attitude toward Company XXX products is very positive.
- _ My overall feeling toward Company XXX's products is very favorable.
- _ Overall, I like Company XXX's products very much.

Intention to buy the brand

Intention to buy the brand is defined as the propensity or determination to buy the products of the company. It is measured by a three-item, 7-point Likert scale. The scale consists of the following items:

- _ If I need some products and the products are available from XXX, I will definitely buy them from Company XXX.
- _ If I need some products and the products are available from XXX, it is very likely that I will buy them from Company XXX.
- _ I will definitely continue to buy Company XXX's products.

Source: Wongpitch et al., (2016): Effect of corporate social responsibility motives on purchase intention model: An extension

Consumer attitude and purchase behavior

Constructs and measures. Impact of congruence between CSR activity and company's core business

Factor	Items
<i>Attitude toward the company</i> (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005)	ATT1. Very negative/Very positive ATT2. Very unfavorable/Very favorable ATT3. Very bad/Very good ATT4. I do not like/I like
<i>Recommendation</i> (Bougie et al., 2003)	REC1. I would say positive things about the product REC2. I would recommend the product to someone who seeks my advice REC3. I would encourage friends and relatives to buy from this product
<i>Purchase intention</i> (Zhang & Richard, 1999)	PI1. It is highly unlikely that I would buy products from this company/likely PI2. It is improbable that I would buy products from this company/very probable PI3. I'm sure I will not buy products from this company/I'm sure I will buy
<i>Attitude toward the CSR campaign</i> (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005)	ATC1. Very negative/Very positive ATC2. Very unfavorable/Very favorable ATC3. Very bad/Very good ATC4. I do not like/I like
<i>CSR associations</i> (Dean, 1999, 2002)	CSR1. The company performs positive activities for the society CSR2. I think the company does something for the society CSR3. The company cares about the welfare of their customers CSR4. The company is socially responsible
<i>Perceived Motivation</i> (Becker-Olsen, et al., 2006)	MOT1. Self Interest/Community Interest MOT2. Firm focused/Customer focused MOT3. Profit motivated/Socially motivated
<i>Civic behavior</i> (Weber et al., 2004)	CIV1. I am concerned about local community issues CIV2. I should volunteer my time to support my community CIV3. I want to work toward equal opportunity for all CIV4. People should find time to contribute to their communities CIV5. I want to support those less fortunate CIV6. Involvement in programs to improve my community is important
<i>Skepticism</i> (Skarmas & Leonidou, 2013)	SKEP1. The company tries to improve the welfare of society SKEP2. Company follows high environmental standards SKEP3. The company operates in a socially responsible manner SKEP4. I have no doubt about the end of the CSR campaign SKEP5. The CSR campaign carried out by company is credible

SKEP6. I believe in the commitment to the environment of company

Source: Garcia-Jimenez et al., (2017): The impact of congruence between the CSR activity and the company's core business on consumer response to CSR

CSR parameters, consumer behavior and brand attitude

Items of the scales in Study 2: Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility perception on consumer satisfaction with the brand

CSR associations - csr

- csr1 Tries to manage economic resources well
- csr2 Tries to improve the working conditions of collaborators
- csr3 Tries to contribute to the improvement of the communities in which it works
- csr4 Tries to make contributions to social causes
- csr5 Tries to promote the environment sustainability
- csr6 Tries to have behave in an ethically responsible manner

Customer satisfactions - sat

- sat1 The brand meets my expectations
- sat2 The brand has the expected quality
- sat3 I am satisfied to buy this brand
- sat4 I have done the right thing by buying this brand

Brand attitude – att

- att1 I think it is a brand that offers products with good performance
- att2 It is a brand I can rely on
- att3 I find it is a brand that offers a good value for money
- att4 I think it is a brand with a good image
- att5 I think it is a suitable brand for sportswear

Source: Rivera et al., (2016): Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility perception on consumer satisfaction with the brand

CSR, consumer attitude, consumer awareness of CSR and ethical consumerism

Theme	Explanation	Questions
CSR	Since there are multiple definitions of CSR, we have chosen to only focus on two components. We used Grankvist's definition of social responsibility and Carroll's definition of ethical responsibility.	When asking about CSR, the term "social and ethical issues" is used instead of Corporate Social Responsibility. This is to make it easier for the respondents to understand.
General Questions	These questions were asked to get general information about the respondents.	- State gender - State age - State occupation
Lou & Bhattacharya (2006)	These questions were asked in order to identify if there is a connection between the respondents' view on Cubus in general and their view on CSR.	- What is your general opinion about Cubus? - What is your opinion on a clothing brand that takes ethical/social responsibility?

Consumer Attitude to Ethical Buying	These questions were asked to get an understanding for the consumers' awareness of Cubus' CSR work getting to know the customers' opinions, how likely they are to be affected by the CSR work and how likely they are to re-evaluate their opinions. The reason for asking these questions was so we are able to categorize the consumers according to the different groups from the model.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What do you think about clothing brands that present things they do to take ethical/social responsibility? - Are you aware of Cubus' work with social/ethical questions? - How likely is it that a company that show their work with ethical/social question will affect you? - How likely is it for you to re-evaluate your attitude towards Cubus knowing that they work with ethical/social question?
The Tricomponent Attitude Model	These questions were asked to understand the respondents' attitude towards companies that work with CSR. By asking the respondents if it is important/not important and good/bad that companies work with CSR, we get an understanding of their attitudes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What is your opinion on a clothing brand that takes ethical/social responsibility? - Do you think it is important for a clothing company to take ethical/social responsibility?
Consumer Attitude to Ethical Buying and the Tricomponent Attitude Model	This question was asked to find out what attributes are important when the customers shop at Cubus and to find out how the customers rate the CSR attribute in relation to other attributes. This helps us categorize the respondents into the consumer categories as well as finding out their attitude towards CSR.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What is important for you when you choose to shop at Cubus? Rank the most important factor 1, the next 2 and so on. Give the least important factor 5. Use every number only once.

Axelsson and Jahan (2015): Consumer attitude towards Corporate Social responsibility within the fast fashion industry

Appendix 5 – Ethics certificate

Graduate School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janadel and Alexandra Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000, Fax: +27 11 652 0299
E-mail: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.unisa.ac.za/sbl

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (GSBL CRERC)

30 November 2018

Ref #: 2018_SBL_DBL_018_FA
Name of applicant: Mr M
Chufama
Student #: 79209475

Dear Mr Chufama

Decision: Ethics Approval

Student: Mr M Chufama, mchufama@gmail.com, +263772120582

Supervisor: Prof F du Toit, dutoitf@unisa.ac.za, 011 652 0326

Project Title: Antecedents and consequences of corporate social responsibility awareness. Empirical evidence from consumers in the mobile telecommunications sector in Harare, Zimbabwe.

Qualification: Doctorate in Business Leadership (DBL)

Expiry Date: October 2022

Thank you for applying for research ethics clearance, SBL Research Ethics Review Committee reviewed your application in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

Outcome of the SBL Research Committee:

Approval is granted for the duration of the Project

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee on the 22/11/2018.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

Appendix 6 – Supervisor’s confirmation letter

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP (SBL)



Prof Francois du Toit
Strategy, Marketing and Governance
School of Business Leadership
Unisa
25 May 2018

HR, Learning and Development
Econet Wireless Zimbabwe, Headquarters
No. 2 Old Mutare Road, Msasa
Harare, Zimbabwe

To whom it may concern,

CONFIRMATION OF SUPERVISION OF RESEACH - DOCTOR OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP

This writ serves as confirmation that the study titled *“Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility awareness. Empirical evidence from Mobile Telecommunication Firms in Harare and Bulawayo, Zimbabwe”* by Mr M. Chufama towards a Doctorate in Business Leadership from Unisa is done under my supervision. Dr Charles Makanyeza from the Department of International Marketing at Chinhoyi University of Technology is the co-supervisor.

The supervision of the study controls the research for scientific robustness, contribution to the knowledge and understanding of the topic, and, conformation to ethical research practises. Supervision entails scrutiny of the research planning – literature study and methodology -, and, the analysis of data and resultant conclusion drawn. Ethical research practise is a legal imperative in South Africa and is enforced by certification of a study by the institution’s Research Ethics Review Committee. Written permission from the entity from which data is collected, as well as informed consent from respondents, are prerequisites for ethical clearance. Supervisors are required to sign off on the submission towards the ethical clearance certificate.

Your participation in the research is highly valued and you are assured of the highest possible ethical research practises. It includes robustness, anonymity/confidentiality (as applicable) of respondents and entities, and data protection.

Should you require any additional information please feel free to contact me at dutoitf@unisa.ac.za.

Regards

Prof F du Toit



Open Rubric



'creating a level playing field'

TEMPLATE GRANTING OF INSTITUTIONAL PERMISSION FOR RESEARCH

Dear Maxwell Chufama

I, Dr Gift Kallisto Machengete, the Director General of POTRAZ this Authority grant you permission to collect data at this site for your research project titled **“Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness. Empirical Evidence from the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe”**.

I grant this permission as the authorized person to do so in this company and am aware of the following,

1. The study is conducted as a UNISA researcher and remains the property of UNISA
2. You can use the name of the company in your research project

3. All data and information collected will be solely in the possession of the researcher
4. We will require feedback of the research.
5. The research may be published in the public domain under the supervision of the supervisor.

I wish you the best and success in this research

Signed : 

Name: Dr GIFT KALLISTO MACHENGETE

Organizational Title: DIRECTOR GENERAL

Contact details: the.regulator@potraz.gov.zw

Appendix 8 – Information sheet and Consent form

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title of research project: Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe

Dear Participant

My name is *Maxwell Chufama* and I am a doctorate student at *UNISA School of Business Leadership*. This research is of great importance to the community by determining sustainable economic, socio-environmental issues that need to be looked at by firms through corporate social responsibility initiatives. The study has been approved by the SBL Research Ethics Committee with Ethics certificate number 2018_SBL_DBL_018_FA and you can contact Mrs. Nthabiseng Motloi (0116520372; motlonc@unisa.ac.za), the research manager should you have any concerns on the process and conduction of this research. A copy of the ethics certificate can be made available if required.

If you have any further concerns regarding the study, you can contact my supervisors, *Prof. Francois du Toit*, +27 11 652 0326, dutoiff@unisa.ac.za and *Dr. Charles Makanyeza*, +263 772 945 941, cmakanyeza@yahoo.co.uk.

I have also been granted permission by Dr. Gift Kallisto Machengete, the Director General of Postal and Telecommunications Regulatory Authority of Zimbabwe to conduct this study.

At this point in time I wish to emphasize that your participation is voluntary and inform you of the following so that you can decide to participate or not.

WHAT IS THE AIM/ PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

The research study aims at understanding the antecedents and consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility awareness from the consumers' perspective that is in other words, capturing the voice of the consumers on what Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is.

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

You have been selected to participate due to the fact that you are a consumer or potential consumer of mobile telecommunications sector products.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY / WHAT DOES THE RESEARCH INVOLVE?

You are required to read the participation information sheet and sign the participant consent sheet; then answer the questions on the attached questionnaire document by ticking or filling empty spaces provided and this may take 15 – 20 minutes of your time.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY?

You can withdraw from participating at any time and there is no penalty or loss of benefit for non-participation. Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to read, keep and be asked to sign a written consent form.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

Your participation will provide critical information for further development of the body of knowledge regarding consumer behaviour and Corporate Social Responsibility, then development of effective Corporate Social Responsibility policies and practices.

WHAT IS THE ANTICIPATED INCONVENIENCE OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

The study will inconvenience you only in as far as taking your time in filling in the questionnaire is involved.

WILL WHAT I SAY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

The participants' information is guaranteed to be kept private and confidential.

HOW WILL INFORMATION BE STORED AND ULTIMATELY DESTROYED?

Hard copies of answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard and electronic information will be stored on a password protected personal computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval, if applicable. Electronic data will be deleted and paper based records will be destroyed after five years.

WILL I RECEIVE, PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There is no payment or reward offered, financial or otherwise for your participation.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS?

If you would like to be informed of the research findings, please indicate so in the permission letter.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

PARTICIPANT CONSENT SHEET

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has informed me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable). I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings.

< in the case of the interviews I understand that the interview will be recorded as part of the research process.

Full Name of Participant: _____

Email of Participant if feedback of the study is required: _____

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Full Name of Researcher: Maxwell Chufama

Appendix 9 – Fieldworker confidentiality and agreement form

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP (SBL)



Confidentiality Agreement: Fieldworker

This is to certify that I,, a fieldworker of the research project ***Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe***, agree to the responsibilities of the administration and collection of completed questionnaires from participants and additional tasks the researcher may require in my capacity as fieldworker.

I acknowledge that the research project is conducted by ***Maxwell Chufama of the Department of Graduate Business School, School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa***.

I understand that any information (written, verbal or any other form) obtained during the performance of my duties must remain confidential and in line with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

This includes all information about participants, their employees/their employers/their organisation, as well as any other information.

I understand that any unauthorised release or carelessness in the handling of this confidential information is considered a breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality.

I further understand that any breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality could be grounds for immediate dismissal and/or possible liability in any legal action arising from such breach.

Full Name of Fieldworker: _____

Signature of Fieldworker: _____ Date: _____

Full Name of Primary Researcher: Maxwell Chufama

Signature of Primary Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 10 – Editor confidentiality and agreement form

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP (SBL)



Confidentiality Agreement Template: Editor

This is to certify that I, _____, the editor of the research project *Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe* agree to the responsibilities of the editing of the thesis report (and additional tasks the researcher(s) may require in my capacity as an editor).

I acknowledge that the research project is/are conducted by **Maxwell Chufama** of the Graduate School of Business Leadership (SBL), University of South Africa.

I understand that any information (written, verbal or any other form) obtained during the performance of my duties must remain confidential and in line with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

This includes all information about participants, their employees/their employers/their organisation, as well as any other information.

I understand that any unauthorised release or carelessness in the handling of this confidential information is considered a breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality.

I further understand that any breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality could be grounds for immediate dismissal and/or possible liability in any legal action arising from such breach.

Full Name of Editor: _____

Signature of Editor: _____ Date: _____

Address of Editor: _____

Editor Company: _____

Any Job/reference number _____

Full Name of Primary Researcher: _____

Signature of Primary Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 11 – Statistician confidentiality and agreement form

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP (SBL)



Confidentiality Agreement Template: Statistician

This is to certify that I, _____, the statistician of the research project *Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe*, agree to the responsibilities of the statistical analysis of the data obtained from participants (and additional tasks the researcher(s) may require in my capacity as statistician).

I acknowledge that the research project is/are conducted by **Maxwell Chufama** of the Graduate School of Business Leadership (SBL), University of South Africa.

I understand that any information (written, verbal or any other form) obtained during the performance of my duties must remain confidential and in line with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

This includes all information about participants, their employees/their employers/their organisation, as well as any other information.

I understand that any unauthorised release or carelessness in the handling of this confidential information is considered a breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality.

I further understand that any breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality could be grounds for immediate dismissal and/or possible liability in any legal action arising from such breach.

Full Name of Statistician: _____

Signature of Statistician: _____ Date: _____

Address of statistician _____

Statistical Company: _____

Any Job/reference number _____

Full Name of Primary Researcher: _____

Signature of Primary Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 12 – Research instrument

Questionnaire

Section A: Socio-demographic profile of respondent

(tick (✓) where applicable, fill in empty spaces where applicable)			✓
SD1	Gender	Male	1
		Female	2
SD2	Age	18 - 24 years	1
		25 – 54 years	2
		55 – 65 years	3
SD3	Level of education	Primary education	1
		Secondary education	2
		Higher & tertiary education	3
SD4	Occupation	Student	1
		Company employee	2
		Self employed	3
		Unemployed	4
		Retired	5
		Other, specify	
SD5	Monthly gross income	Less than US\$500	1
		US\$500 – US\$999	2
		US\$1000 – US\$1499	3
		US\$1500 – US\$1999	4
		US\$2000 – US\$2499	5
		US\$2500 – US\$2999	6
		Above US\$3000	7
		Not applicable	8
SD6	Name of city/ place of permanent residence	Harare	1
		Other, specify	
SD7	Residential area	High density	1
		Medium density	2
		Low density	3
SD8	Religion	Christianity	1
		Islam	2
		Hindu	3
		Local tradition	4
		Other, specify	
SD9	Mobile telecommunications service provider	Econet	1
		NetOne	2
		Telecel	3
		More than one sim card/ service provider	4

Section B: Antecedents of consumer awareness of CSR

(tick (✓) where applicable)

Component	Code	Measurement items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Ethical consumerism	In my buying decision making process;						
	ETC1	I seek for the integrity of a mobile telecommunications firm					
	ETC2	I look for a mobile telecommunications firm that tells the truth and is transparent					
	ETC3	I seek for a mobile telecommunications firm that honour its promises					
	ETC4	I seek for moral sourcing and manufacturing of a mobile telecommunications firm					
	ETC5	I seek for ethical marketing and distribution of a mobile telecommunications firm					
Consumer rights awareness	I am aware of the fact that;						
	CRA1	I have a right to choice					
	CRA2	I have a right to disclosure, that is access to transparent, up-to-date information					
	CRA3	I have a right to access high quality service					
	CRA4	I have a right to accurate bills					
	CRA5	I have a right to privacy					
	CRA6	I have a right to protection against market abuse					
	CRA7	I have a right to responsive regulatory authority					
	CRA8	I have a right to education and awareness as a consumer					
	CRA9	I have a right to safety					
	CRA10	I have a right to be heard					
	CRA11	I have a right to complain and redress					
Socio-environmental awareness	I am aware of the fact that;						
	SEA1	The mobile telecommunications firm I use make efforts to protect the environment					
	SEA2	The mobile telecommunications firm I use make efforts to protect the society					
	SEA3	The mobile telecommunications firm I use sell products that are not harmful					
	SEA4	The mobile telecommunications firm I use does not produce extensive amounts of waste and dispose to open space					
	SEA5	The mobile telecommunications firm I use follow and respect the social environment and environmental laws					
Consumer generosity culture	I have the liberty to give my hand to the community in the form of;						
	CGC1	Sharing resources at my disposal with individuals in society like friends or relatives					
	CGC2	Giving cash or kind to those that are in need or disadvantaged in the society					
	CGC3	Information, guidance, counselling or education on imminent issues to the society					
	CGC4	Support the elderly, children and disadvantaged in any way necessary					
	CGC5	Voluntary work to help those that need general or my area of speciality labour					
	CGC6	Celebrating and helping to develop or grow other people's ideas or programs					

Section C: Consumer awareness of CSR

(tick (✓) where applicable)

Constructs	Code	Measurement items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Ethical	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	ETH1	Treats customer respectfully					
	ETH2	Conducts business practices professionally					
	ETH3	Apologizes in the event of any inconvenience to customers					
	ETH4	Expediently addresses or responds to products or service faults or challenges					
	ETH5	Does not share my personal information with other customers or any third party					
Philanthropic	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	PHI1	Participates in charitable and giving activities to the society					
	PHI2	Supports education and educational institutions					
	PHI3	Supports societal causes, programs and the disadvantaged					
	PHI4	Have programs to award and recognise employees for work performed					
	PHI5	Builds or supports building of infrastructure or facilities for use by the community					
Legal	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	LEG1	Operates consistently to the general local community laws and regulations					
	LEG2	Operates consistently to the national regulations on mobile telecommunications					
	LEG3	Obeys other international standards and regulations for mobile telecommunications					
	LEG4	Meets minimal legal requirements related to goods and service provision					
	LEG5	Observes creditable human resources practices and guidelines					
	LEG6	Respects consumer protection procedures and acts					
Economic	I am aware that my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	ECO1	Plan for long term success					
	ECO2	Has a very strong competitive position					
	ECO3	Seeks profitable business avenues					
	ECO4	Has promotional programs aimed at increasing revenues					
	ECO5	Is committed to increase company growth and assets					
	ECO6	Issues lucrative dividends to shareholders					

Section D: Consequences of consumer awareness of CSR

(tick (✓) where applicable or fill in empty spaces where applicable)

Constructs	Code	Measurement Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Corporate image	My mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	COI1	Has managed to create a good impression					
	COI2	Has managed to create a good image					
	COI3	Has managed to create a positive reputation					
	COI4	Is widely acknowledged as a trustworthy organization					
	COI5	Is highly regarded or respected by society					
Consumer attitude	About my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	COA1	I view it as a good company					
	COA2	I perceive it as an excellent company					
	COA3	I see it as an appealing company					
	COA4	I prefer it more against other companies					
	COA5	I see it as giving value to the society and environment					
	COA6	I think that its products and services are superior					
	COA7	I get more satisfied with it					
	COA8	I am willing to identify with it					
Purchase intention	About my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	PUI1	I am willing to buy its goods and services					
	PUI2	I am willing to try new and different goods and services					
	PUI3	I will continue to purchase its goods and services					
	PUI4	I will buy goods and services even if they have a premium price					
	PUI5	I intend to buy its goods and services					
Actual purchase behaviour	About my mobile telecommunications service provider;						
	APB1	I always buy its products and services					
	APB2	I always buy new and different products					
	APB3	I use its different goods and services					
	APB4	I buy its goods and services more often than other people					
	APB5	Buying its goods and services make up a large part of my monthly expenses					
What factors can influence your awareness of mobile telecommunications firms' Corporate Social Responsibility? Explain how each of the factors influence your awareness.							
To what extent are you aware of CSR by mobile telecommunications firms? Explain your answer.							

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 13 – Editor’s certificate

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EDITOR’S DECLARATION

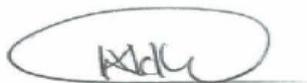
I Dr Ketiwe Ndhlovu confirm that I edited Maxwell Chufama (79209475)
PhD thesis entitled:

Antecedents and Consequences of Corporate Social Responsibility Awareness: Consumers in the Mobile Telecommunications Sector in Harare, Zimbabwe

During the editing process, the following changes were recommended:

1. Structural – some sentences and paragraphs were moved around to promote coherence;
2. Grammatical – some sentences were rephrased to promote clarity;
3. Spelling and tenses – a few spelling mistakes were noted and corrected and the same applies to tenses;
4. Repetition – throughout the dissertation there were many instances of repetition, these were highlighted so that the candidate could attend to them.

It is up to the candidate to accept and effect these changes as s/he remains the author of this document.



10 July 2020

.....
Editor’s Signature

.....
Date