# Employee Perceptions of Social and Environmental Corporate Responsibility: The Relationship with Intention to Stay and Organisational Commitment

Bianca Agresti Pitt

0704764X

Supervisor: Ian Siemers

A research project submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for a Master of Arts degree, by coursework and research report, for Industrial Psychology in the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

# **Declaration**

I, Bianca Agresti Pitt, declare that this is my own unaided work except where due recognition was provided. The research report and any section therein were not submitted to this or any other University previously.

\_\_\_\_

Bianca Agresti Pitt

15 February 2012

# Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor, Ian Siemers, for all his patience, support, assistance and guidance throughout the research process. I would also like to thank Mike Greyling for all his assistance with my statistics. Thanks to my classmates for always being supportive and helpful. Lastly, I would like to thank my parents, sister, boyfriend and close friends for all their patience and encouragement throughout the year.

### **Abstract**

The current study aimed to examine whether or not employee perceptions of their organisations corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices impacted upon organisational commitment and intention to stay. Moreover, this research aimed to determine whether or not an individual's perception of their organisations CSR practices was impacted upon by their preference for CSR. As an initial step, it was essential to determine whether or not individuals had a preference for certain CSR practices. The current study defined CSR in terms of three distinct constructs: environmental CSR, external social CSR and internal social CSR. Environmental CSR encompassed any action undertaken in order to promote environmental sustainability while external social CSR dealt with initiatives aimed at assisting individuals and communities in need. Lastly, internal social CSR was operationalised as the degree to which organisations address social asymmetries with regards to gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. An exploratory factor analysis demonstrated that employee perceptions of CSR do not occur in terms of the three distinct constructs described above. Rather, employee perceptions occur in terms of actions which impact employees within the workplace, labelled internal CSR, and those that are focused outside the organisation, termed external CSR. Employee perceptions of internal CSR are thus concerned with the degree to which organisations adequately address social asymmetries based on gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. Conversely, perceptions of external CSR are concerned with the adequacy of organisational initiatives aimed at environmental sustainability and assisting individuals and communities in need. The results derived from the multiple regression suggests that both internal and external CSR predict organisational commitment ( $t_1 = 4.92$ , p < .0001;  $t_1 = 2.64$ , p = 0.0095 respectively) and intention to stay  $(t_1 = 0.13, p = 0.0032; t_1 = 0.15, p < .0001$  respectively). In terms of the strength of the predictions, internal CSR is a moderate predictor while external CSR is a weak predictor of both organisational commitment and intention to stay. With regards to employee preference for CSR practices; results derived from analytic hierarchy process and ward's minimum variance clustering method demonstrate that the sample, composed of 119 participants, could be split into two clusters. Both clusters demonstrated that external social CSR was the most preferred CSR practice. Results from t-tests demonstrated that employee preference did not impact upon employee perceptions of external CSR ( $t_{117} = 0.10$ ; p = 0.92) and internal CSR  $(t_{117} = 0.25; p = 0.80).$ 

# **Table of Contents**

Chapter One: Rational	1
Chapter Two: Literature Review	4
2.1) Corporate Social Responsibility	4
2.1.1) CSR defined	4
2.1.2) Theoretical Background to CSR	7
2.1.3) Employee Perceptions of CSR	8
2.2) External Social CSR	11
2.3) Internal Social CSR	14
2.3.1) Gender in the Workplace	16
2.3.2) Race in the Workplace	18
2.3.3) Sexual Orientation in the Workplace	21
2.3.4) Disability in the Workplace	22
2.3.5) A Brief Overview of Internal Social CSR	25
2.4) Environmental CSR	25
2.5) Organisational Commitment	29
2.6) Intention to Stay	33
2.7) Employee Preference: The Potential Impact upon Employee Percepti	ons
of CSR	35
2.8) An Overview of the Theoretical Framework: Employee	
Perceptions, Preference and the Relationship with Organisational	
Commitment and Intention to Stay	38
2.8) Conclusion	39
2.9) Research Questions	39

Chapter Three: Methodology	40
3.1) Research Design	40
3.2) Sample	40
3.3) Procedure	43
3.4) Instrumentation	44
3.4.1) Demographics	44
3.4.2) Employee Perceptions of External Social CSR	44
3.4.3) Employee Perceptions of Internal Social CSR	45
3.4.4) Employee Perceptions of Environmental CSR	47
3.4.5) Employee Preference	47
3.4.6) Organisational Commitment	49
3.4.7) Intention to Stay	50
3.4.8) The Pilot Study	51
3.5) Analysis	52
3.5.1) Simple Statistics	52
3.5.2) Confirmatory Factor Analysis	52
3.5.3) Multiple Regression	53
3.5.4) Correlation	56
3.5.6) Analytic Hierarchy Process	56
3.5.7) Ward's Minimum Variance Clustering Method	57
3.5.8) Two-independent Sample t-test	58
3.6) Ethical Consideration	59
Chapter Four: Results	60

6.1) Simple Statistics	61
6.2) Distribution Analysis: Normality	62
6.3) Research Question One	64
6.3.1) Multiple Regression	64
6.3.1.1) Perceptions of CSR and Organisational Commitment	65
6.3.1.2) Perceptions of CSR and Intention to Stay	67
6.3.2) Correlation	69
6.3.3) Exploratory Factor Analysis	71
6.3.3.1) Perceptions of CSR and Organisational Commitment	71
6.3.3.2) Perceptions of CSR and Intention to Stay	72
6.3.4) Multiple Regression for External and Internal CSR on	
Organisational Commitment	74
6.3.5) Multiple Regression for External and Internal CSR on	
Intention to Stay	75
6.4) Research Question Two	77
6.4.1) Analytic Hierarchy Process	77
6.4.2) Cluster Analysis	78
6.4.2.1) Clustering History and Cubic Clustering Criterion	78
6.5) Research Question Three	82
Chapter Five: Discussion	85
5.1) Research Question One	
C(1) 1000mon Question one	85
5.2) Research Question Two	<ul><li>85</li><li>90</li></ul>

Chapter Six: Limitations	98
Chapter Seven: Recommendations	101
7.1) Implications for Practice	101
7.2) Implications for Theory	102
7.3) Future Research	103
Chapter Eight: Conclusion	105
References	106
Appendix A	119
1) Request for Access to an Organisation	119
2) Participant Information Sheet	121
Appendix B	123
1) Section A: Demographics	123
2) Section B: Perceptions of CSR Practices	124
3) Section C: Employee Preference for CSR Practices	127
4) Section D: Intention to Stay	131
5) Section E: Organisational Commitment	132
Appendix C	134
1) Employee Perceptions of External Social CSR	134
2) Employee Perceptions of Internal Social CSR	135
2.1) Perceptions of Gender Equality	135
2.2) Perceptions of Racial Redress	136
2.3) Perceptions of Equality in terms of Sexual Orientation	137
2.4) Perceptions of Equality with regards to disability	138
3) Employee Perceptions of Environmental CSR	139
4) Intention to Stav	140

Appendix D	142
Appendix E	146
1) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee	
Perceptions of CSR and Organisational Commitment	146
1.1) Outliers	146
1.2) Normality, Homogeneity of Variances and Linearity	147
2) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining	
Employee Perceptions of CSR and Intention to Stay	149
2.1) Outliers	149
2.2) Normality, Homogeneity of Variances and Linearity	151
Appendix F	152
1) The First Exploratory Factor Analysis for Employee Perceptions of CSR	152
2) The Second Exploratory Factor Analysis for Employee Perceptions of CSR	153
Appendix G	155
1) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee	
Perceptions of Internal and External CSR and Organisational Commitment	155
1.1) Outliers	155
1.2) Normality, Linearity and Homogeneity of Variances	155
2) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee	
Perceptions of Internal and External CSR and Organisational Commitment	156
2.1) Outliers	156
2.2) Normality, Linearity and Homogeneity of Variances	157
Appendix H	159
1) AHP Priority Vectors	159
Appendix I	164
1) Distribution Analysis for Perceptions of External and Internal CSR	164
Appendix J	166

1) Section 1: Employee perceptions of CSR practices and organisational	
commitment	166
2) Section 2: Employee perceptions of CSR practices and intention to stay	166
3) Section 3: Internal and External CSR on Organisational Commitment	167
4) Section 4: Internal and External CSR on Intention to Stay	167

# **List of Tables and Figures**

# **Tables**

Table 1: Mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for age and tenure	41
Table 2: Description of the sample	42
Table 3: Factor pattern for the external social CSR subscale	45
Table 4: Factor pattern for gender, race, sexual orientation and disability	46
Table 5: Factor pattern for perceptions of environmental CSR	47
Table 6: The dichotomous comparisons for the preference scale	48
Table 7: The factor pattern for the intention to stay questionnaire	50
Table 8: Internal consistency reliability for all the scales utilised in the study	51
Table 9: Statistical abbreviations	60
Table 10: Descriptive statistics for all the variables in the study	61
Table 11: The distribution of data	63
Table 12: The significance of the model for organisational commitment	66
Table 13: The results for each independent variable on organisational commitment	66
Table 14: The significance of the model for intention to stay	68
Table 15: The results for each independent variable and intention to stay	68
Table 16: Correlation matrix for employee perceptions of CSR practices, organisational	
commitment and intention to stay	69

Table 17: Rotated factor pattern for the independent variables	72
Table 18: Rotated factor pattern for the independent variables	73
Table 19: Statistical abbreviations for the new independent variables	74
Table 20: The significance of the model for organisational commitment	74
Table 21: The significance of internal and external CSR on organisational commitment	75
Table 22: The significance of the model for intention to stay	76
Table 23: The significance of internal and external CSR on intention to stay	76
Table 24: Clustering history	79
Table 25: Levene's test for homogeneity of variance	83
Table 26: Results derived from the t-tests	84
Table 27: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of external social CSR	134
Table 28: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of gender equality	136
Table 29: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of racial redress	137
Table 30: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of equality in terms of sexual orientation	138
Table 31: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of equality in terms of disability	139
Table 32: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of environmental CSR	140
Table 33: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for intention to stay	141

Table 34: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of CSR	152
Table 35: The eigenvalues and cumulative proportion for employee perceptions	
of external social CSR	153
Table 36: The Priority Vector for Each Participant	159
Table 37: Distribution Analysis for Internal and External CSR	164
Table 38: Collinearity Diagnostics for the Six Independent Variables and	
Organisational Commitment	166
Table 39: Collinearity Diagnostics for the Six Independent Variables and	
Intention to Stay	167
Table 40: Collinearity Diagnostics for Internal CSR, External CSR and	
Organisational Commitment	167
Table 41: Collinearity Diagnostics for Internal CSR, External CSR and	
Intention to Stay	168
Figures	
Figure 1: Individual level of Aguilera et al.'s (2007) model of CSR	10
Figure 2: A 2008 census pyramid adapted from Ramashamole (2010)	17
Figure 3: The distribution of race in top management between April 2010 - March 2011	20
Figure 4: A depiction of hypothesis one	37
Figure 5: A depiction of hypothesis three	38
Figure 6: The CCC graph utilised to determine the number of clusters	80
Figure 7: The dendogram derived from the cluster analysis	81
Figure 8: A graphical representation of CSR preference for clusters 2 and 7	2 . 92

Figure 9: The scree plot for employee perceptions of external social CSR	135
Figure 10: The scree plot for employee perceptions of gender equality	136
Figure 11: The scree plot for employee perceptions of racial redress	137
Figure 12: The scree plot for employee perceptions of equality in terms of sexual	
orientation	138
Figure 13: The scree plot for employee perceptions of equality in terms of disability	139
Figure 14: The scree plot for employee perceptions of environmental CSR	140
Figure 15: the scree plot for intention to stay	141
Figure 16: A histogram for perceptions of external social CSR	142
Figure 17: A histogram for perceptions of environmental CSR	142
Figure 18: A histogram for perceptions of gender equality	143
Figure 19: A histogram for perceptions of racial redress	143
Figure 20: A histogram for perceptions for equality in terms of sexual orientation	144
Figure 21: A histogram for perceptions of equality in terms of disability	144
Figure 22: A histogram for organisational commitment	145
Figure 23: A histogram for intention to stay	145
Figure 24: Cook's D for organisational commitment	146
Figure 25: Cook's D once the outliers were removed	147
Figure 26: A histogram to examine the normality of residuals for organisational	
commitment	148
Figure 27: Studentised residual for organisational commitment	148
Figure 28: Cook's D for intention to sat	149
Figure 29: Cook's D for intention to stay once four outliers were removed	150

Figure 30: Cook's D for intention to stay once five outliers were removed	150
Figure 31: A histogram to examine the normality of residuals for intention to stay	151
Figure 32: Studentised residuals for intention to stay	151
Figure 33: Scree plot for employee perceptions of CSR	153
Figure 34: Scree plot for employee perceptions of CSR	154
Figure 35: Cook's D for internal CSR, external CSR and organisational commitment	155
Figure 36: The histogram for the residuals of organisational commitment	156
Figure 37: The studentised residuals for organisational commitment	156
Figure 38: D for internal CSR, external CSR and intention to stay	157
Figure 39: The histogram for the residuals of intention to stay	157
Figure 40: The studentised residuals for intention to stay	158
Figure 41: The histogram for external CSR	165
Figure 42: The histogram for internal CSR	165

## **Chapter One: Rationale**

The current study aims to examine the relationship between employee perceptions of the degree to which their organisation meets their corporate social responsibility (CSR) obligations, commitment and intention to stay. Moreover, this research aims to determine whether or not an individual's perception of their organisations CSR practices is impacted upon by their preference for CSR. As an initial step, it is essential to determine whether or not individuals have a preference for certain CSR practices. The current study examines CSR practices in terms of three categories: social CSR within the organisation, social CSR outside the company and environmental CSR.

Social CSR within the organisation is operationalised as the responsibility of the organisation to ensure fair and equal treatment of all employees regardless of gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. Alternatively, the current study defines external social CSR as practices employed by the company which are aimed at helping communities and individuals in need outside the organisation (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams & Ganapathi, 2007). Lastly, environmental CSR is defined as any means through which organisations are able to alleviate some of the negative environmental outcomes ensuing from business functioning (Orlitzky, Siegal &Waldman, 2011). For the purpose of this study environmental CSR was not categorised as internal or external to the organisation – rather, it was examined holistically since, unlike social CSR, the concept of environmental CSR may not neatly be categorised into two distinct aspects. Specifically, much of the environmental CSR initiatives occur simultaneously within and outside the organisation.

Organisations constantly need to be aware that their long term survival, in part, depends on whether or not they are able to confront social and environmental issues through socially responsible behaviour (Collier & Esteban, 2007). This is true since society at large, as well as stakeholders within the company, recognise the importance of CSR and the potential role of organisations in alleviating social and environmental problems (Collier & Esteban, 2007). CSR is thus important from a humanitarian perspective in that organisations' socially responsible actions may have positive effects for society and the environment. CSR may be beneficial for society since the fundamental aim of such initiatives is to 'do good' and create positive social change such ensuring fair treatment within the company, decreasing the negative impact on the environment and assisting individuals and communities in need (Aguilera et al., 2007). Despite the beneficial social and environmental outcomes of CSR,

organisations may be motivated to engage in CSR practices due to the competitive advantage it may afford them – if organisations conduct a cost benefit analysis they will determine what resources they can dedicate towards CSR, and whether this will benefit the organisation in return (Orlitzky et al., 2011). The importance of CSR as a variable to study is therefore demonstrated through the wide spectrum of positive outcomes for society, the environment as well as the financial performance and the economic status of the organisation.

Much of the research on CSR focuses on the organisation rather than on the employee – it is therefore important to examine CSR in terms of employee perceptions so that the void in the existing research may be confronted (Orlitzky, Siegal & Waldman, 2011). This study hypothesises that employee perceptions of organisational CSR practices, rather than the practices themselves, will predict employee attitudes – specifically, intention to stay and organisational commitment. The importance of employee perceptions with regards to CSR is demonstrated by Aguilera, Rupp, Williams and Ganapathi (2007) – the study conducted suggests that the perceived fairness of an organisation's CSR policies impacts upon employee well-being as well as vital employee outcomes including commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In terms of internal social CSR practices, it seems plausible to assume that employees will be directly affected by organisational policies aimed at addressing asymmetries based on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. The policies which organisations implement with regards to these asymmetries, for the purposes of this study, are aimed at preventing discrimination or redressing past injustices. Employees are likely to be affected by such policies since they dictate behaviour and practices which occur daily in the workplace. Due to the potential impact internal social CSR has on employees, it seems plausible to assume that attitudes toward the organisation, negative or positive, will follow depending on whether the employee feels the practices are adequately addressed. In line with this reasoning, Collier & Esteban (2007) suggest that employee perceptions of CSR depend, in part, on whether or not the outcomes of socially responsible actions are ethical and achieve positive social outcomes (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Following this reasoning, it seems reasonable to suggest that employee satisfaction with CSR policies will result if the organisation's internal social CSR policies are perceived as ethical and if such policies lead to desirable outcomes.

It is suggested that internal and external social CSR as well as environmental CSR policies will impact upon employee outcomes due to the role of the employee as a stakeholder within

their organisation. Delmas and Toffel (2004) suggest that pressures from stakeholders will impact upon an organisations practices and policies. Senge, Kruschwitz, Laur and Schley (2010) suggest that young employees would prefer to work for organisations which have environmental policies in place. Thus, if employees prefer working in environmentally conscious organisations as Senge et al. (2010) suggest, it seems reasonable to assume that many organisations will attempt to bring in some environmental CSR practices which will, in turn, impact upon positive employee behaviours. Based on this logic, it seems plausible to believe that the same may be true for internal and external social CSR. Thus, since many researchers consider employees to be stakeholders within organisations, it seems sensible to assume that organisational response to issues raised by workers would directly impact upon employee attitudes and behaviours within the workplace.

The aforementioned argument provides a rationale for the importance of studying employee perceptions of internal social CSR, external social CSR and environmental CSR and their potential impact upon intention to stay and organisational commitment. However, a further aim in the current study is to determine whether or not employee preference for certain CSR practices impacts upon employee perceptions of their organisations CSR initiatives. Specifically, it is suggested that preference for certain CSR practices may impact upon employee perceptions in one of two ways. Firstly, individuals with a strong preference for a particular CSR practice may have rigorous standards upon which organisational CSR initiatives are examined. Here, the employee will have specific ideas about what CSR practices are adequate and those which are not. Conversely, individuals with a strong preference for particular CSR practices may feel that any action undertaken by the organisation to address the social problem is adequate since any initiative is more beneficial than inaction. While there is no specific theory within the field which provides evidence to support this hypothesis, aspects of person-environment congruence and stakeholder theory will be utilised to support the claims, as will be outlined in the literature review.

It is important to note that this study will not actively examine the CSR policies and practices put into place by the organisation. Rather, the focus is on the perceptions employees hold about their organisations CSR initiatives. Employee preference will further be examined in order to determine whether or not it impacts upon perceptions of CSR. Lastly, the current study will determine whether or not employee perceptions of CSR predict organisational commitment and intention to stay.

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

The success of an organisation no longer hinges solely upon economic performance but, rather, it is more holistic as evidenced in triple bottom line thinking (Aguilera et al., 2007). Here, organisational success is attributed to profitability as well as environmental sustainability and social performance (Hart & Milstein, 2003 as cited in Aguilera et al., 2007). Organisations thus need to be cognisant of the social and environmental consequences of all business ventures since the future of their company, in part, relies on whether or not they are able to achieve this (Collier & Esteban, 2007). The acknowledgment of the triplebottom line approach has led to an increased focus on corporate social responsibility in terms of helping communities in need and efforts to decrease environmental damage caused by business operations (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Similarly, organisations cannot escape legislation which attempts to prevent discrimination in the workplace. Social asymmetries within the organisation based on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability are thus factors that need to be dealt with in all companies through CSR initiatives. The following section of the literature review will outline previous theory and research on corporate social responsibility. Preceding this discussion, CSR will be defined in terms of how it is operationalised in the current study: internal social CSR, external social CSR and environmental CSR. A review of the literature pertaining to commitment and intention to stay will follow this discussion.

### 2.1) Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

**2.1.1) CSR Defined.** The 2008 Oxford Handbook of Corporate Social Responsibility defines CSR as "community involvement, philanthropic donations, good corporate governance, implementation of 'green' policies, and a wide variety of other organisational actions" (as cited in Orlitzky et al., 2011, p9). The implementation of such CSR initiatives are often aimed at meeting the needs of all organisational stakeholders (Moir, 2001) which extends "beyond the traditional duty to shareholders, to other societal groups such as customers, employees, suppliers and neighbouring communities" (Jones, 1980, p59 as cited in Carroll, 1999 p284). The notion of stakeholders as a central tenant in CSR is reiterated by Gray, Owen and Adams (1996) who suggest that CSR involves ethical organisational practices where corporations bear the responsibility of their impact on all organisational stakeholders – this, in turn, determines societies desire to legitimate business practices (as cited in Collier & Esteban, 2007). The manner in which the needs of organisational

stakeholders may be met within the CSR framework are numerous and include: treating employees fairly, carrying out business operations with integrity, respecting the human rights of all individuals, "sustain[ing] the environment for future generations" as well as demonstrating concern for neighbouring communities (Business Impact, 2000 as cited in Moir, 2001, p.8). Through an examination of the aforementioned definitions of CSR it is evident that the social responsibility of business is multifaceted in nature and thus difficult to succinctly quantify (Orlitzky et al., 2011). Orlitzky et al. (2011) argue that in order for a common understanding of CSR to develop among theorists, there needs to be an initial agreement as to the subdivisions of the construct (Orlitzky et al., 2011).

Dahlsrud (2006) conducted an analysis which examined the various definitions and constructs of CSR. Through an examination of the available literature between 1980 and 2003, 37 definitions of CSR emerged, where each definition was classified into five categories (Dahlsrud, 2006). The categories, as highlighted by Dahlsrud (2006), include: environmental, social, economic, stakeholder and a voluntariness dimension. While each definition is important, Dahlsrud (2006) suggests that as opposed to clearly defining the social responsibility of organisations the literature focuses on CSR as a phenomenon. It is therefore inferred that the confusion surrounding CSR does not result from the various definitions thereof, but rather from the minimal understanding afforded by such definitions in terms of what the actual social responsibility of business is (Dahlsrud, 2006). The confusion surrounding CSR may be amplified due to the various contexts within which it is implemented. Specifically, Van Marrewijk (2003) suggests that the social responsibility of business will vary from company to company and will vary in different contexts. The challenge facing businesses is to identify what socially responsible action is necessary in their context and how such CSR initiatives may be developed into business strategies (Dahlsrud, 2006). This is a continuous process since the context in which business functions is constantly changing (Kakabadse, Rozuel & lee-Davies, 2005). The dynamic nature of the environment means that CSR initiatives need to be adaptive and changing to meet the particular challenges faced by society (Kakabadse et al., 2005). Organisations thus need to be aware of the dynamic nature of the environment and the manner in which they can make their organisations more sustainable and socially responsible (Orlitzky et al., 2011).

CSR thus has a multitude of definitions, as highlighted above. Due to the vast nature of such definitions, the current study took what was perceived to be the three salient aspects of CSR

and utilised them in the resultant definition thereof. Specifically, a recurring theme within the CSR literature, as demonstrated above, appears to be an organisation's social responsibility towards the environment, neighbouring communities and employees. Based on this, the current study operationalises CSR as a construct made up of three distinct dimensions: internal social CSR, external social CSR and environmental CSR. The social aspect of CSR can be demonstrated by an organisation internally as well as externally – this is true since socially concerned organisations are aware of issues which warrant attention both within and outside the organisation (Aguilera et al., 2007). Despite any apparent similarity, the current study defines internal and external social CSR as two independent constructs: internal social CSR is operationalised as the degree to which organisations promote equality in the workplace as well as address and redress social asymmetries in terms of race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. Specifically, internal social CSR focuses on ethical policies and practices within the workplace – here, the sole purpose is on the well-being and interest of the stakeholders in an organisation, particularly the employees (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008).

External social CSR, on the other hand, within the current study is defined as any action undertaken by organisations to help communities and individuals in need. According to Aguilera, Rupp, Williams and Ganapathi (2007) organisations need to guarantee that the wealth generated by companies is used to help the less fortunate in society. External social CSR thus involves any activities which lead to positive outcomes for individuals, communities and society at large (Dawkins & Nghunjiri, 2008; Haugh & Talwar, 2010). Unlike the clear distinction between social CSR as internal or external to the organisation, environmental CSR is a holistic term which cannot neatly be separated into aspects which occur within an organisation, and those which occur externally. Subsequently, this study operationalises environmental CSR as any action taken by organisations to decrease damage inflicted on the environment – this may include practices and policies which encourage ecofriendly behaviour such as decreasing energy use, recycling waste products, using recycled material, decreasing pollution as well as educating employees, consumers and alternative stakeholders on environmental issues (Dangelico & Pujari, 2010; Nga & Soo, 2010).

The current study thus operationalises CSR as three distinct constructs which include environmental CSR, external social CSR and internal social CSR. Now that these variables have been briefly defined, a theoretical background to the construct of CSR will be provided.

Here, the predominant focus will be on why organisations implement CSR through an examination of theory.

2.1.2) Theoretical Background to CSR. There are a multitude of theories related to CSR – Garriga and Mele (2004) divided the various theories and approaches into four groups in order to examine why organisations engage in CSR. The first group consists of instrumental theories where the focus of CSR is economic (Garriga & Mele, 2004). It is believed that the sole social responsibility of business is that of wealth creation, with a particular focus on all organisational stakeholders (Nga & Soo, 2010). From this perspective, any social activity initiated by an organisation is considered an investment whereby CSR activities lead to an enhanced reputation which, in turn, increases the company's competitive advantage and employee retention (Smith & Higgins, 2000 as cited in Garriga & Mele, 2004; Moir, 2001).

An alternative group of theories which explains why companies should engage in CSR is the political group (Garriga & Mele, 2004). Here, it is suggested that business is responsible for CSR initiatives due to their power (Garriga & Mele, 2004). A theory which falls within the political group, corporate constitutionalism, suggests that there is a relationship between the organisation, the state and society (Bottomley, 2007). Organisations thus need to use their power for socially responsible action – if not, other companies will step in, particularly during times when social responsibility is deemed important (Davis, 1960 as cited in Garriga & Mele, 2004). Here, the reputation of the organisation may be at stake if other organisations are seen as more socially responsible. Conversely, the integrative approach consists of a group of theories which focus on the integration of business and society (Garriga & Mele, 2004). It is suggested that business is reliant on society for survival and growth – society interacts with business by placing certain social demands which need to be fulfilled in order for companies to gain acceptance and status (Garriga & Mele, 2004). Organisations thus need to be cognisant of social demands and incorporate them within business functioning (Garriga & Mele, 2004). Here, the notion of a social contract emerges whereby organisations are expected to behave in a manner which meets social demands (Moir, 2001).

Lastly, the ethical group consists of theories which "focus on the moral requirements that cement the relationship between business and society" (Garriga & Mele, 2004, p60) and the ethical obligation of business to engage in CSR (Moir, 2001). Ethical theories of CSR focus on the human rights of individuals and sustainable development where the impetus is on

promoting environmental and social sustainability (Garriga & Mele, 2004). A theory within the ethical group, the common good approach to CSR, suggests that business should contribute to society since both are interlinked (Fernando, 2010). Specifically "business should be neither harmful to nor a parasite on society but purely a positive contributor to the wellbeing of society" (Garriga & Mele, 2004, p62). The ethical group of CSR therefore focuses on the good which business has to do for society since it is part of society. Business thus has an ethical imperative to utilise its resources and power as a means of improving social problems (Moir, 2001). Within organisations there is usually an integration of the four groups discussed and thus multiple reasons for companies to engage in CSR (Garriga & Mele, 2004). The aforementioned groups examine the reasons why organisations engage in CSR however it is equally important to examine the outcomes thereof. The following section of the literature review will demonstrate that the outcomes of CSR are contingent upon the perceptions thereof.

The perceptions of CSR held by stakeholders within the company may arguably be the most pertinent since stakeholders will ultimately be affected by an organisation's CSR practices (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008). The Stakeholder Theory is utilised as a means through which organisations may identify the groups to whom they are responsible (Moir, 2001). Stakeholders are traditionally classified into two groups: primary and secondary stakeholders where the former is significant in the current study. Primary stakeholders include "shareholders and investors, employees, customers and suppliers, together with... the governments and communities that provide infrastructures and markets, whose laws and regulations must be obeyed, and to whom taxes and obligations may be due" (Clarkson, 1995, p.106 as cited in Moir, 2001, p.8). The central question which arises from Stakeholder Theory is which stakeholders businesses are ultimately responsible for and how CSR may be utilised to meet those responsibilities (Moir, 2001). In the current study, employees are the primary stakeholders of interest within the organisation. Thus, the perceptions employees have with regards to the adequacy of CSR policies are central to the workplace outcomes of CSR, such as employee retention and organisational commitment. The importance of employee perceptions of CSR and the resultant outcomes thereof will be examined in the following section of the literature review.

**2.1.3) Employee Perceptions of CSR.** Employee perceptions of CSR are a central component within the current research. This is true since it is suggested that it is the

perceptions of an organisations CSR practices, rather than the actual practices themselves, which will impact upon employee outcomes. It is thus essential to theoretically demonstrate the importance of employee perceptions in shaping outcomes, particularly in relation to CSR. These factors will be explored through a lens with a predominant focus on justice perceptions of CSR. While justice is not a tenant in the current study, theory related to justice perceptions of CSR will be utilised to demonstrate that perceptions in general are more salient than actual practices. This will be achieved through an examination of a CSR model created by Aguilera, Rupp, Williams and Ganapathi (2007) as well as through an examination of valence.

A CSR model developed by Aguilera et al. (2007) specifies the means through which organisational actors promote or discourage CSR within organisations and how the subsequent use of CSR may lead to wider social change. The framework examines the impact of CSR at multiple levels including: individual, organisational, national and transnational levels as well as how CSR within organisations may lead to wider societal change (Aguilera et al., 2007). While all aspects of the model are important, only the level related to the employee will be discussed since the focus of the current study is on employee perceptions of CSR and how this impacts upon employee outcomes. The model by Aguilera et al (2007) suggests that an employee's view of their organisation's CSR practices is contingent upon their general perceptions of justice - based on justice literature the model suggests that instrumental, relational and morality-based motives are responsible for employees encouraging or discouraging their organisation to adopt socially responsible policies and practices. The perceptions held by employees, with regards to organisational CSR, shape employee attitudes and behaviours toward their organisation (Aguilera et al., 2007). The perceived fairness of the organisation impacts upon employee well-being as well as vital employee outcomes including employee commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Aguilera et al., 2007) with commitment being the outcome variable of interest in this study.

Aguilera et al.'s (2007) model further suggests that an organisation's social actions provide employees' with information about the organisation, and thus assist in evaluating organisational fairness and justice (Aguilera et al., 2007). This model thus states that "an organisation's CSR efforts define its level of social justice... where CSR is a heuristic for fairness" (Aguilera et al., 2007, p840). Following the justice literature Aguilera et al.'s (2007) model suggests that each employee evaluates three aspects of their organisation's CSR

policies and practices – procedural CSR, distributive CSR and interactional CSR (Aguilera et al., 2007). Procedural CSR refers to whether or not employees' perceive that their organisation's actions are entrenched with social concern whereas distributive CSR refers to the perceived outcomes of such actions (Aguilera et al., 2007). Lastly, interactional CSR refers to whether or not employees and individuals are perceived to be treated fairly while social actions are being carried out (Aguilera et al., 2007). Thus, as depicted by figure 1 below, depending on the manner in which employees perceive the organisations CSR policies employees respond through either positive or negative organisational behaviour (Aguilera et al., 2007). The foundation of the above model of CSR is organisational justice where motives are responsible for employees to encourage or discourage CSR and justice perceptions impact vital organisational outcomes. While the general theme of justice is not measured in the current, it has implicit value for understanding employee perceptions and how such perceptions impact on outcomes such as organisational commitment and intention to stay as

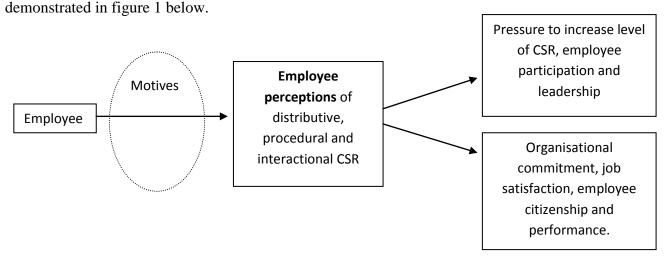


Figure 1. The individual level of Aguilera et al.'s (2007) model of CSR.

The importance of perceptions of CSR is further demonstrated by Turban (2000) who reveals that the perceptions job applicants hold about an organisation's CSR practices impact upon their desire to work for the company (as cited in Aguilera et al., 2007). It may therefore be inferred that perceptions of actions, rather than the actions themselves, may lead to a change in attitudes and behaviour. While the work of Turban (2000 as cited in Aguilera et al., 2007) occurred in relation to job applicants, the same logic may be extended to employees. It may thus be argued that the perceptions employees have with regards to the degree to which organisations adequately address social and environmental CSR will impact upon employee attitudes.

Further evidence to demonstrate the importance of perceptions is evidenced in Vroom's work. Vroom's Expectancy Theory is often utilised as a means of examining motivation where expectancy, valence and instrumentality are key factors which impact upon an individual's motivation (Erez & Isen, 2002). While this model in terms of motivation is irrelevant in the current study, the notion of valence may be a means of explaining why the perception of certain practices is important in impacting upon outcomes. Vroom (1964) describes valence as "all possible affective orientations toward outcomes... it is interpreted as the importance, attractiveness, desirability or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes" (as cited in Eerde & Thierry, 1996, p.576). The degree to which the outcome is perceived in a positive or negative light is an essential component of valence (Erez & Isen, 2002). It may thus be argued that if employees perceive the outcomes of CSR as desirable and attractive, positive behaviour may follow.

An examination of the aforementioned models and literature reveals the importance of employee perceptions of CSR as opposed to the actual CSR practices themselves. Thus, the current study aims to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of the degree to which their organisations meet their corporate social responsibility obligations, commitment and intention to stay. It is hypothesised that this relationship well be moderated by whether or not employees feel that each dimension of CSR is important. The following section of the literature review will further define and explore the relevant literature pertaining to the three facets of CSR under examination in the current study – external social CSR, environmental CSR and internal social CSR.

### 2.2) External Social CSR

External social CSR occurs when organisations provide welfare to society and engage in charitable activities where such initiatives are often considered to be the duty and responsibility of business (Van Marrewijk, 2003). Carroll (1986) suggests that an aspect of businesses social responsibility is discretionary where there are no formal regulations mandating business to participate in philanthropic activities. Organisation thus engage in CSR since society expects business to do so (Carroll, 1986), as described in the integrative approach discussed previously. Such discretionary activities include a wide variety of actions ranging from philanthropic contributions to training unemployed individuals in the community (Carroll, 1986). Within the current study, external social CSR is defined as the

degree to which organisations assist individuals and communities in need. The issues and concerns surrounding business and the degree of interest organisations take in social issues are constantly changing (Carroll, 1986). With regards to such discretionary behaviours, the contribution of business may range on a continuum from no response (i.e.: doing nothing) to a proactive response (i.e.: doing a lot) – this range of responses may be due to the changing context and interest of business (Carroll, 1986).

According to Hiss (2009), the government, organisations, trade unions and various other society groups determine which social issues are seen as relevant and legitimate (Hiss, 2009). Ethics as well as the cultures within society are equally important in influencing social outcomes (Hiss, 2009). Therefore, perceptions of social issues; and thus the focus of external social CSR; will vary across countries (Maignan & Ferrell, 2003 as cited in Hiss, 2009). The State, in particular, may influence CSR practices through regulating certain actions – in this case, CSR is considered implicit since organisations have a legal obligation to fulfil their social duties as outlined by legislation (Hiss, 2009). Conversely, explicit CSR refers to when organisations perform social duties over and above those that are legislated by the government (Hiss, 2009).

As previously suggested, the context of business will impact the focus of CSR (Maignan & Ferrell, 2003 as cited in Hiss, 2009; Van Marrewijk, 2003). South Africa is a country with various social issues which many businesses attempt to address (Fig. 2005). Fig (2005) suggests that HIV/AIDS is an important social issue which is insufficiently dealt with by business. The magnitude of the epidemic is evidenced in results from Statistics South Africa which stated that, in 2010, an estimated 5.24 million people in South Africa were infected with HIV (Statistics South Africa, 2010). A survey conducted in 2002 by the South African Business Coalition on HIV/AIDS found that 60% of companies did not have a strategy to manage the pandemic in the workplace, despite the fact that the loss of skilled workers, illness and absenteeism will cause a significant loss in profit (Fig, 2005). Business, however, has begun to provide anti-retroviral drugs and counselling to HIV-infected employees and has begun to realise the importance of assisting individuals with HIV/AIDS outside the organisation (Fig. 2005). Specifically, an aspect of external social CSR which many companies implement is providing assistance to the partners and dependants of employees with HIV/AIDS as well as helping individuals and communities affected by the disease (Fig. 2005). Poverty is another social issue which is particularly important in South Africa since "between 45% and 55% of the population lives in poverty" (Everatt, 2004, p30 as cited in Fig, 2005). A national survey conducted by Everatt in 2004 revealed that the majority of respondents believed that businesses should pay more tax in order to help poor individuals and communities (as cited in Fig, 2005). Poverty and HIV/AIDS are thus social issues which are particularly relevant in South Africa and are issues which organisations could address through external social CSR initiatives.

The importance of business in assisting with social issues in society is great in South Africa – "In the post-apartheid decade business has responded in different ways to perceived state failure or incapacity to address major social issues adequately" (Fig, 2005 p608). An example of an external social CSR initiative undertaken by South African organisations is Business Against Crime where resources are provided to inadequately trained and underpaid police officers (Fig, 2005). Business Against Crime is an example of organisations combining resources in order to solve socially relevant problems facing South Africa. The importance of such ventures is demonstrated in the results of a study conducted in Australia which suggests that external social CSR initiatives facilitate trust and legitimacy between the company, employees, customers and the community (CCPA, 2000 as cited in Moir, 2001).

Despite the positive impacts of external social CSR on stakeholders and society at large, many philanthropic organisational aspects have become more focused on creating a positive organisational image rather than helping communities in need (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Particularly, Collier and Esteban (2007) suggest that many organisations achieve external social CSR through sponsoring sports and other forms of activities that provide organisational advertising and enhance the company's reputation rather than benefiting communities and underprivileged individuals (Collier & Esteban, 2007).

Organisational responses to societal issues are seen as a relevant variable in the study since research suggests that an organisations social awareness impacts upon the company's stakeholders (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008). Since employees are considered stakeholders within an organisation, it seems plausible to expect that employee perceptions of external social CSR practices will impact upon employee attitudes toward the organisation (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008; Savage et al., 1991).

### 2.3) Internal Social CSR

Internal social CSR has been described as the ethical aspect of CSR since it focuses on what organisations should do through ensuring that social justice and equality are upheld within the company (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008; Nga & Soo, 2010). This requires organisations to demonstrate socially responsible action through hiring, promoting and retaining a diverse workforce in terms of race, gender, sexual orientation and disability (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008) where all individuals are represented in all levels and categories within the workplace (Thomas & Jain, 2004). Thus, internal social CSR within the organisation, for the purpose of this study, is defined as the degree to which social asymmetries based upon race, gender, sexual orientation and disability are perceived to be addressed. A broad range of internal social factors are assessed since it is believed that certain individuals may place particular issues ahead of others. Thus, in order to gain a holistic understanding of the impact of the perceptions of internal social CSR practices on employee outcomes, all of the above social asymmetries will be examined in an organisational setting. The following section of the literature review will outline internal social CSR in general as well as describe factors pertaining to gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. In order to foreground this discussion, a brief introduction with regards to South African labour legislation is necessary.

The discrimination which occurred during apartheid South Africa was directed at the majority of the population where 76.6% of 46 million people are Africans, 8.3% Coloured and 2.4% are Indian and Asian while 11.3% are white (Bureau of Market Research, 2002 as cited in Thomas & Jain, 2004). Thus, while the transformation of South Africa has been successful, the remnants of apartheid remain whereby "the majority of the economically active population are inadequately trained and economically disempowered" (Thomas & Jain, 2004, p.38). The multitude of labour legislation implemented upon the onset of democracy in 1994 has been utilised as a means of eradicating and redressing previous discrimination as well as to "enable previously disadvantaged South Africans full access to all aspects of the economy, including company ownership, share capital and top management positions" (Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008, p.528). The transformation of South African organisations was motivated by the need to create a culture based on equality in terms of resources, skills and opportunities (Shelby, 2005 as cited in Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008). A means through which this was facilitated was by the introduction of legislation such as the Constitution of South Africa of 1996, the Employment Equity Act of 1998 and the Labour Relations Act of 1995 (Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008). Such employment legislation requires organisations to redress historical discrimination through a redistribution of jobs and income where there is equity across all groups in all occupations and all organisational levels (Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008).

The Employment Equity Act of 1998 distinguishes between previously disadvantaged individuals and white males where Africans, Indians, Coloureds, White females and individuals with disabilities are categorised as previously disadvantaged (Thomas & Jain, 2004; Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008). This act, therefore attempts to create equality in the workplace by eradicating discrimination based on race, gender and disabilities (Thomas & Jain, 2004). A further development in South African legislation was the introduction of the Skills Development Act of 1998 and the Skills Development Levies Act of 1999, both of which are central to redressing past discrimination since the focus is on recruiting, training and developing minority groups in South Africa – such legislation moves beyond the eradication of discrimination into actively giving previously disadvantaged individuals multiple opportunities (Booysen, 2007 as cited in Ramashamole, 2010; Wöcke & Sutherland, 2008).

While the definition of previously disadvantaged groups in The Employment Equity Act excludes gay, lesbian and bisexual individuals, The Labour Relations Act of 1995 acknowledges their rights and states that discrimination based on sexual orientation in the workplace is unlawful (Cock, 2003). Through such legislation, internal social CSR may be described as implicit since organisations have a legal obligation to fulfil their social duties as outlined by the law (Hiss, 2009). Due to the fact that equality practices within the workplace are legislated, it seems reasonable to assume that most organisations should have policies and practices in place specific to social asymmetries such as race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. In terms of internal social CSR, the current study perceives the organisation as responsible for ensuring the fair and equal treatment of all employees. It seems plausible to assume that due to the widespread nature of the aforementioned policies, employees may hold particular perceptions about whether or not such practices are adequately addressed by their organisation which may have certain impacts on employee behaviour.

The fact that such issues are legislated, however, does not mean organisations implementing such policies are engaging in CSR – rather, the ethical nature in which business acts when implementing policies is where the aspect of CSR is introduced (Carroll, 1999 as cited in Kakabadse et al., 2005). It may thus be inferred that following legislation with regards to race, gender, sexual orientation and disability is insufficient – the organisations need to be

ethically driven to ensure equality within all spheres of the workplace. Specifically, organisations need to ensure a diverse workforce as well as protect the views, beliefs and values of all members in the organisation (Lansing & Cruser, 2009).

The following section of the literature review will outline research on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability in organisations. These factors are examined in terms of the actions taken by organisations to ensure equality in the workplace through the implementation of internal social CSR initiatives. While the implementation of such policies is not the focus of the current study, it is suggested that the degree to which employees perceive that their organisations address asymmetries based on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability will impact upon employee attitudes toward the organisation.

**2.3.1) Gender in the workplace.** The focus in many organisations today is on creating a work environment in which males and females are able to work efficiently despite differences or similarities between them (Kaul, 2009). Kaul (2009) suggests that creating a work environment which is conducive for effective and efficient work for both males and females is essential in retaining a diverse workforce. In order to promote an inclusive work environment, organisational policies, practices and culture need to shift so as that discriminatory stereotypes and behaviours are eradicated (Kaul, 2009).

Despite legislation aimed at securing gender equity in the workplace, many female employees continue to face barriers towards career success (Bily & Manochehri, 1995; Blau & Kahn, 2007). The reason provided for such behaviour is that of social conditioning – specific socialization factors may contribute to men finding it difficult to acknowledge women as equal in the business world, which has traditionally and historically been a predominantly male domain (Bily & Manochehri, 1995). An aspect of inequality, the gender pay gap, refers to the discrepancy in wages between males and females for equivalent work (Blau & Kahn, 2007). The pay difference between genders has however decreased over the years, particularly in terms of age and education level (Blau & Kahn, 2007). Specifically, women with a lower education level have decreased the pay gap with equally educated males while women with higher education levels have diminished the pay gap with their male counterparts (Blau & Kahn, 2007). However, despite the decrease in the gender pay gap, wage differentiation still exists between males and females (Blau & Kahn, 2007).

In 2008, the annual Census of the Women's Business Association of South Africa demonstrated the dire level of women in high level positions, despite their majority status in

the country (Ramashamole, 2010). Women constitute 51% of the adult population in South Africa yet the working population is merely composed of 42.4% women (Ramashamole, 2010). Figure 2 below, adapted from Ramashamole (2010), demonstrates the status of women within the workplace.

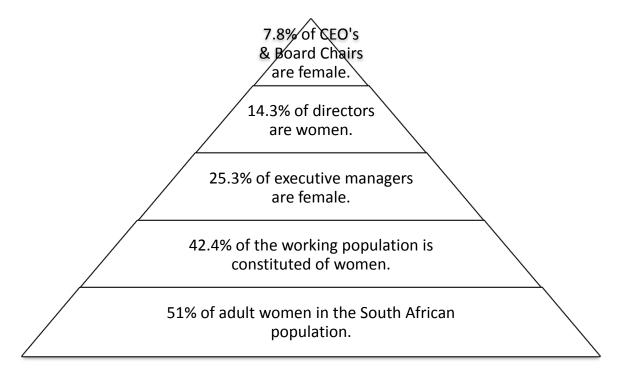


Figure 2. A 2008 Census pyramid adapted from Ramashamole (2010).

As demonstrated in the figure above, women make up the minority of the working population despite the fact that they are the majority of the adult population in South Africa. Moreover, the representation of women in high organisational ranks is low - while legislation has attempted to promote previously disadvantaged groups, such as women, "South Africa still does not have enough women in top management who reflect the population in the country" (Ramashamole, 2010, p.6). It may be argued that such factors may be due to the glass ceiling effect which perpetuates the plight of many females aiming to advance in the workplace. The glass ceiling may be real or perceived and refers to invisible factors which prevent women from advancing up the organisational hierarchy (Bily & Manochehri, 1995). Women who are faced with certain barriers may feel that their hard work reaps no rewards and consequently may decrease their productivity level or decide to leave the organisation – both of which may negatively impact the company (Ragins, Townsend & Mattis 1998). In terms of the current study, intention to stay with the organisation is a variable of interest. If perceptions of the glass ceiling result in the desire to leave the organisation it seems plausible to suggest that the

reverse will be true – specifically, gender equality in the workplace, implemented through internal social CSR policies, will promote intention to stay.

Ragins, Townsend and Mattis (1998) identified three key features that may help shatter the glass ceiling. Firstly, it is essential to understand the barriers that women face in organisations that do not allow them to maximise their potential (Ragins et al., 1998). Thereafter, it is useful to examine the strategies used by females who were able to overcome such difficulties (Ragins et al., 1998). Lastly, management and top leaders need to be aware of how aspects of the organisational climate may pose difficulties in advancement for women in the workplace (Ragins et al., 1998).

As a means of increasing the number and status of women within the workplace, employment equity initiatives have been implemented, however such practices often have many negative consequences (Ramashamole, 2010). Perhaps most troublesome is the perception that affirmative action policies are aimed primarily at racial asymmetries with the consequence of negating the importance of gender imbalances within the workplace (Booysen, 1999 as cited in Ramashamole, 2010). In terms of internal social CSR practices, the current study suggests that it is the social responsibility of organisations to ensure that such discrimination ceases to exist. The aforementioned factors that may inhibit women in the workplace are not under direct examination in this study. Rather, the focus is on whether or not employees perceive such issues are dealt with efficiently and effectively by the organisation and how such perceptions shape their intention to stay and organisational commitment.

2.3.2) Race in the Workplace. The aim of internal social CSR is that of promoting equality and treating employees ethically. A means through which this is achieved in South African organisations, with regards to race, is by redressing past discrimination. This is necessary since the hierarchical nature of the economic and social status in South Africa remains largely on the lines established during Apartheid (Hoffman, 2008). In an attempt to create racial equality, legislation was put into place in the democratic South Africa in order to redress the remnants of the past (Hoffman, 2008). An example of such legislation is the Black Economic Empowerment Act of 2003 (BEE) which is a policy which aims to alter the economic climate in South Africa so that the diversity of the country is more accurately reflected (Kemp, 2007). The initial focus of BEE was to increase the number of shares previously disadvantaged South African's held in organisations (Ponte, Roberts & van Sittert,

2007). This, however, grew to include an all round integration of previously disadvantaged population groups (Kemp, 2007).

Ponte et al. (2007) demonstrate the importance of BEE in the workplace, as well as its role in reversing the effects of previous discrimination in other domains in South Africa.

Implementing BEE in South Africa entails redressing apartheid's legacy in the education system and addressing the extreme, racially-based inequality and high levels of poverty which, in turn, depends on economic opportunities deriving from employment and wages (Ponte et al., 2007, p.945).

Redressing past discrimination in terms of employment opportunities has, however, been limited where the creation of employment lags behind the growing labour force (Ponte et al., 2007). The outcome of this is heightened levels of unemployment, often for unskilled and semi-skilled previously disadvantaged South Africans (Ponte et al., 2007). This is demonstrated by Makgetla (2007) who states that Africans have the lowest income in South Africa. In 2004, 40% of Africans earned less than R1000 compared to 20% of Coloureds and Asians and 5% of whites (Makgetla, 2007). With regards unskilled and semi-skilled workers a wage discrepancy exists in terms of race whereas in the managerial and highly-skilled work in the public sector, the gap between African and white employees has decreased (Altman, 2006 as cited in Ponte et al., 2007). Results from the Commission of Employment Equity from April 2010 to March 2011 demonstrate the composition of top management by race, as demonstrated in figure 3 below.

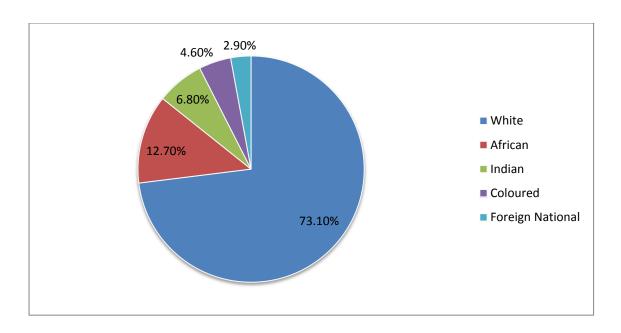


Figure 3. The distribution of race in top management between April 2010 and March 2011.

As depicted above, whites still make up the vast majority of top management (73.1%) despite their minority status in South Africa (11<sup>th</sup> CEE Annual Report, 2010-2011). Africans represent 12.70% of top managers, followed by 6.80% of Indians and 4.60% Coloureds (11<sup>th</sup> CEE Annual Report, 2010-2011). It may be argued that the aforementioned figures demonstrate that top management in South Africa still occurs largely on racial lines which favour the previously advantaged, despite their minority status in the country. The outcomes of BEE thus vary and consequently BEE is often perceived as an inadequate means of attaining the goals of redress. This is demonstrated by Booysen (2007) who suggests that despite the vast nature of legislation, racial redress continues to be "slow and uneven" (p.47).

The former President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, publicly stated that BEE was merely a guise which helped well connected black South African's but neglected the vast majority of blacks who continue to live in poverty (Mbeki, 1998 as cited in Ponte et al., 2007). BEE, was therefore not achieving what it aimed to do which consequently led to the introduction of Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act in 2004 (BBBEE) (Ponte et al., 2007). One of the central aspects of BBBEE is that it has a system in place in which organisations are examined according to the degree to which they promote "ownership, management control, employment equity, skills development and socio-economic development" (Department of Trade and Industry, 2007 as cited in Hoffman, 2008, p94). Specifically, BBBEE and BEE policies may be achieved through various ways, including hiring and promoting previously

disadvantaged population groups, providing training and encouraging equity ownership of business (Kemp, 2007; Fig, 2005).

BEE it is widely perceived to be an essential component in redressing the past discrimination in South Africa (Ponte et al., 2007). Thus, while the necessity of such policies may not be disputed, the implementation thereof is strewn with challenges (Ramashamole, 2010). Amongst such challenges are token appointments in a desire to meet equity quotas, greater scrutiny of affirmative action employees as well as the difficulty in integrating such candidates with the pre-existing organisational culture (Thomas, 2002 as cited in Ramashamole, 2010). Confounding such challenges is the lack of commitment displayed by management and certain employees toward organisational transformation (Thomas, 2002 as cited in Ramashamole, 2010). The current study suggests that through internal social CSR, organisations should address such challenges as well as protect the beliefs, values and ideals of individuals from all racial groups. Thus, it is hypothesised that the degree to which employees perceive their organisation adequately addresses racial equality will be related to their intention to stay and their organisational commitment.

**2.3.3) Sexual orientation in the workplace.** South's Africa's constitution was one of the first in the world to ban discrimination based on sexual orientation (Cock, 2003). Specifically, the Bill of Rights states that "the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender... [and] sexual orientation..." (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). In terms of the workplace, The Labour Relations Act of 1995 specifies that it is unlawful to fire based on sexual orientation, not to hire due to being gay, lesbian or bisexual and to exclude a life partner in benefits such as life insurance and medical aid (Cock, 2003). The Act further specifies that abuse, harassment and discrimination due to sexual orientation are prohibited (Cock, 2003). Lastly, it is considered illegal to not allow gay, lesbian or bisexual employees to leave work when their partner is ill or has passed away (Cock, 2003). It may be argued that equality is established in that the same rights and workplace privileges afforded to heterosexuals are provided to homosexual and bisexual employees. Despite this equalising aim of legislation, homophobia still permeates South African organisations (Cock, 2003). This study suggests that in terms of internal social CSR practices, organisations need to ensure that the aforementioned means of eradicating discrimination based on sexual orientation are met through all relevant avenues such as policies, practices and daily organisational functioning.

Many organisations have recognised the importance of attracting and retaining homosexual and bisexual employees and thus attempt to create a work environment which is open and accepting of all individuals (King, Stewart & Barr, 2008). Despite this attempt to decrease discrimination, many gay, lesbian and bisexual employees are harassed (King et al., 2008). A study conducted in the United States of America demonstrated that 41% of homosexual employees believed that "they had been harassed, pressured to quit, or denied a promotion based on their sexual orientation" (Edwards & Hempel, 2003 as cited in King et al., 2008, p41). A further study conducted by Brooks and Edwards (2009) demonstrated that homosexual and bisexual employees have a desire to be included as equal members in organisations and do not want to be "treated differently from other employees" (p139). Moreover, the fear of losing their job and discrimination due to their sexual orientation was a primary concern (Brooks & Edwards, 2009). During interviews with homosexual and bisexual employees, a recurring theme was the need to feel safe in the work environment and the ability to be open and honest about one's sexual orientation (Brooks & Edwards, 2009).

The desire to 'come out' and be open about ones sexual orientation is a decision that needs to be made in every social encounter, including at the workplace (Hill, 2009). Decisions with regard to this are governed both by the perceived safety of the work environment and by the personal characteristics of the individual (Hill, 2009). Thus, a homosexual employee with low levels of internalised homophobia who works in an organisation with anti-discrimination policies is more likely to come out (Rostosky & Riggle, 2002 as cited in Hill, 2009). Coming out is central to psychological well-being (Rostosky & Riggle, 2002 as cited in Hill, 2009) as well as an increase in job satisfaction, productivity and loyalty to the company (Hill, 2009). Conversely, work environments with unfavourable attitudes to homosexuality may result in detached employees (Hill, 2009). In terms of the current study, it is suggested that it is the social responsibility of organisations to ensure gay, lesbian and bisexual employees are treated equally as well as feel safe in the work environment. It is suggested that of employees who perceive that their company adequately deals with asymmetries based on sexual orientation, organisational commitment and intention to stay will result.

**2.3.4) Disability in the workplace.** Disability, while a fairly difficult construct to define, may be considered in terms of a lack of ability – the degree of severity may be contingent on level of education, the work environment and the home life of an individual (Kruse & Hale, 2003). Disability may be viewed from diverse perspectives where the medical, economic and social views will briefly be discussed in this section of the literature

review. Traditionally, disability has been conceptualised in medical terms as a means of describing and labelling a mental or physical irregularity (Hahn, 1985 as cited in Kruse & Hale, 2003). In line with this definition, assisting disabled individuals involves correcting the irregularity, or aiding the individual to adapt to their environment (Kruse & Hale, 2003). According to this definition, the situational aspects that may help or hinder disabled individuals are not considered; rather the sole focus is on the medical diagnosis and the individual (Kruse & Hale, 2003). Disability however may alternatively be understood in terms of an economic aspect where the difficulty in attaining and managing work is of central concern (Kruse & Hale, 2003). This perspective acknowledges that the degree of disability is contingent upon the environmental opportunities provided to the individual (Kruse & Hale, 2003). It is problematic, however, in that it focuses solely on the difficulty within the employment arena and neglects any difficulties individuals might face in other spheres of life (Kruse & Hale, 2003). The focus on the workplace highlights the importance of a work environment which is conducive to all individuals regardless of their disability.

The limitations of the aforementioned definitions of disability led to its classification as a social construct (Kruse & Hale, 2003). Here, disability is seen as a combination of individual factors and environmental situations where both need to be examined in conjunction for a holistic understanding of the disability to emerge (Kruse & Hale, 2003, Watermeyer, Swartz, Lorenzo, Scheider & Priestley, 2006). The consequence of viewing disability in these terms is that disability related outcomes may actively be solved (Kruse & Hale, 2003). Most importantly, this definition implies that the environment may create a situation whereby impairments do not negatively impact the individual, and as such are irrelevant (Kruse & Hale, 2003). This technically implies that the disability does not exist, since there is no negative impact on an individual's functioning (Kruse & Hale, 2003). A disability is thus only said to exist if an impairment creates great difficulty for the individual and limits vital activities (Kruse & Hale, 2003). Central within this understanding of disability is the dynamic nature of the environment (Watermeyer et al., 2006). Consequently, an individual's disability is no longer viewed as a stable disposition but rather it changes depending on the environment where functioning may either be hampered or facilitated (Watermeyer et al., 2006). Watermeyer et al. (2006) outline environments which are facilitative and disabling to individuals with disabilities:

Firstly they [an environment] can facilitate a person's functioning, such as through the use of a walking stick, ramps, positive attitudes/inclusive

policies and availability of services. Secondly, environmental factors such as lack of services and assistive technology, inaccessible buildings, negative attitudes and discriminatory policies that exclude and isolate people with impairments can create disabling barriers (p.9).

It may be argued that this points to the social responsibility of organisations to create a work environment which is conducive for individuals with disabilities in terms of facilities, attitudes and equality practices. The current study suggests that this may be achieved through the implementation of internal social CSR practices.

As outlined above, the physical aspect of an environment may be useful in assisting disabled individuals. This, however, does not negate the attitudinal barriers that many disabled employees face in the workplace (Randolph, 2005). Braddock and Bachelder (1994) conducted a study which examined the barriers which disabled employees face in the workplace (as cited in Randolph, 2005). The study revealed that the attitudinal barriers faced by disabled individuals include "discrimination, stereotypes and myths, low performance expectations by supervisors and discriminatory discharge" (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994 as cited in Randolph, 2005, p.371). The study further identified particular environmental aspects in the workplace which might not allow disabled individuals to work to their full potential (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994 as cited in Randolph, 2005). The study revealed that "work modifications, inaccessible assistive technology, inadequate education and vocational rehabilitation" as well as inadequate opportunities for career advancement all act as barriers to success in organisations (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994 as cited in Randolph, 2005, p371). Lastly, the study outlined strategies which may be used as a means to combat the aforementioned difficulties faced by disabled employees. Possible strategies include training all employees on the problems faced by disabled workers as well as an increased focus on hiring and retaining disabled employees (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994 as cited in Randolph, 2005). It may be argued that this is particularly important in South Africa due to the poor standing of disabled individuals in the workplace.

Within South Africa, disabled individuals are amongst the poorest (Watermeyer et al., 2006). This is demonstrated through an examination of the Commission of Employment Equity Report, from 1 April 2010 to 31 March 2011, which reveals that disabled employees were prominent within the semi-skilled, unskilled and temporary work positions (11<sup>th</sup> CEE Annual Report, 2010-2011). Moreover, the representation of disabled individuals in organisations is

extremely low, and has not increased dramatically over the years. In 2006, 0.7% of the workforce across all occupations was disabled; in 2008 this figure remained the same while in 2010 the figure raised slightly to 0.8% (11<sup>th</sup> CEE Annual Report, 2010-2011). Furthermore, disabled employees constitute merely 1.4% (610 individuals) of top management positions and 1.2% (1202 individuals) of senior managers (11<sup>th</sup> CEE Annual Report, 2010-2011). It may be argued that such figures demonstrate the overwhelming minority of disabled employees in the workforce, particularly in skilled positions as well as top and senior management. The current study thus suggests that it is the social responsibility of organisations to ensure that disabled employees are hired, retained and treated fairly within the workplace. It is suggested that if employees perceive this to be achieved then organisational commitment and intention to stay will result.

**2.3.5)** A Brief Overview of Internal Social CSR. As the previous sections of the literature review demonstrated, organisations need to be dedicated to ensuring equal and fair treatment of all individuals and in so doing act in a manner which addresses asymmetries based on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. The current study suggests that employee perceptions of the degree to which social asymmetries are adequately dealt with will be related to organisational commitment and intention to stay. Due to the diverse nature of the asymmetries under investigation in the current study, gender, race sexual orientation and disability will be examined independently.

The following section of the literature review will outline environmental CSR and the importance of its implementation. Thereafter, literature pertaining to organisational commitment and intention to stay will be outlined.

# 2.4) Environmental CSR

Environmental CSR attempts to protect and decrease the damage inflicted onto the environment through environmental sustainability, which is defined as "the impact of business on the quality and quantity of natural resources, the environment, global warming, ecological concerns, waste management, reductions in energy and resource use, alternative energy production, and improved pollution and emissions management" (Townsend, 2008 as cited in Haugh & Talwar, 2010, p385). The Business Council for Sustainable Development states that it is the responsibility of organisations to have environmental strategies, policies and practices as well as environmentally friendly products/services. Companies are required to promote energy conservation, decrease waste products generated, recycle material, re-use

material and decrease pollution. Lastly, organisations need to educate employees, customers and the general public on environmental issues and viable solutions (as cited in Shrivastava, 1995). An examination of the aforementioned factors encompassing the responsibility of the organisation in terms of environmental CSR demonstrate that a company's practices may occur at all levels of the organisation, in the daily functioning of the company as well as externally through educating the population on sustainability (Shrivastava, 1995). Thus, such aspects of environmental sustainability are difficult to separate and study independently, as is done with external and internal social CSR, since many of the actions taken by organisations in terms of environmental CSR are linked.

Environmental CSR achieves its desired aims through implementing strategies and policies which promote environmental sustainability. A common thread in the multitude of definitions on environmental sustainability encompasses principles of the World Commission on Environment and Development. Here, the central claim underpinning environmental sustainability is to ensure that actions do not endanger the future (as cited in Haugh & Talwar, 2010). The magnitude of responsibility placed on the organisation to resolve environmental issues varies. Delmas and Toffel (2004) suggest that stakeholders play an important role in determining an organisations environmental focus. It is further suggested that if organisations address environmental issues adequately, stakeholders - including employees - respond positively (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997 as cited in Haugh & Talwar, 2010). One of the positive effects demonstrated in research is an increase in employee retention (Aguilera et al., 2007) which is examined as intention to stay in the current study. The importance of employees in establishing an organisation with sustainable policies is further demonstrated in the influences which encourage corporations to embrace environmental sustainability (Haugh & Talwar, 2010). Specifically, internal pressures, such as employees, suppliers and customers, often demand that greater attention be paid to issues of sustainability (Haugh & Talwar, 2010).

Internal pressure from employees, suppliers and customers as well as external pressure such as legislation may be responsible for the implementation of stricter environmental policies in South Africa since 1994 (Fig, 2005; Haugh & Talwar, 2010). South Africa's environmental governance is not as well developed as in other spheres since the regulation of environmental policies is fragmented across many departments both within and across provinces (Fig, 2005). This fragmentation makes it difficult to ensure environmental policies are adequately regulated (Fig, 2005). Despite the difficulty in ensuring regulation of environmental policies,

societal norms and expectations provide additional pressure on organisations encouraging them to become more sustainable and responsible (Haugh & Talwar, 2010). The desire to enhance company reputation may be a further means which encourages business to adopt environmental policies (Fig, 2005). This was demonstrated in a survey conducted by PricewaterhouseCoopers in 2002 which demonstrated that 90% of businesses which implemented environmental CSR initiatives did so for an enhanced reputation (as cited in Kakabadse et al., 2005).

Despite the increasing number of organisations engaging in environmental CSR, companies still play a dominant role in both enhancing and worsening the natural environment (Melville, 2010). A possible role of the organisation in attempting to minimize the damage done to the environment is environmental management strategies (Melville, 2010). Specifically, Multinational Corporations (MNC's) have the power and the resources to help promote environmental sustainability on a large scale (Haugh & Talwar, 2010). In many organisations, particularly large corporations, the employees may be unaware of the environmental policies and practices of the organisation beyond their individual work tasks (Haugh & Talwar, 2010). However, research into the sustainable practices of MNC's by Haugh & Talwar (2010) demonstrates the need for every employee to be aware of sustainable issues in general, as well as those within the organisation – sustainability issues should not only be discussed amongst top managers and leaders, but should infiltrate through to the entire organisation (Haugh & Talwar, 2010). Whilst the current study may not focus specifically on MNC's, an aspect of interest is whether or not employees perceive that their organisation adequately deals with issues of environmental sustainability. It seems plausible to assume that if employees are made aware of such issues, as Haugh and Tawler (2010) suggest that employee perceptions of organisational sustainability will accurately reflect such policies.

Research by Haugh and Talwar, (2010) further established that raising awareness of sustainability needs to be collaborative across all levels and departments within an organisation. Furthermore, allowing employees to gain practical experience in sustainability practices will provide a multitude of positive outcomes – it will encourage employees to become committed to issues of sustainability as well as increase knowledge on the topic (Haugh & Talwar, 2010). Encouraging employees to become involved in sustainability initiatives is an example of the interrelatedness of all aspects of environmental CSR –

sustainable factors in the workplace may spread to actions external to the organisation. Though the aforementioned factors were specifically articulated in terms of MNC's, it seems plausible to assume that most of the issues are, in part, relevant to all organisations.

A further means through which organisations may implement environmentally conscious practices is through creating environmentally friendly products and adapting current products to increase their sustainability (Dangelico & Pujari, 2010). Lipton Tea, for example stated that they source all their tea from estates that are certified as environmentally sustainable while Ford has developed new car seats which are soy-based (Dangelico & Pujari, 2010). According to Ottman, Stafford and Hartman (2006, as cited in Dangelico & Pujari, 2010), no product is totally environmentally sustainable since they all have at least some impact on the environment. Green products, however, attempt to decrease the use of toxins, energy as well as pollution and waste in their production (Ottman, Stafford & Hartman, 2006 as cited in Dangelico & Pujari, 2010). During the production of green products the three main issues which need to be focused on are the materials used, energy consumed and pollution (Dangelico & Pujari, 2010). These need to be considered at every stage of the products lifecycle - from conception up to and including the disposal of the product (Dangelico & Pujari, 2010). Organisations possess control over certain aspects of the lifecycle, however the use of the product and often the disposal of the product are out of the organisations control. Moreover, as mentioned above, employees may not be aware of the means through which the production processes decrease the damage done to the environment. Thus, a means through which to examine external environmental CSR is through the production of green products and services.

The importance of environmental CSR is demonstrated in *The Necessary Revolution* which states that younger employees would prefer to work for organisations which demonstrate a larger understanding of the environment and organisational surroundings (Senge et al., 2010). Survey evidence from "the leading online jobs site with a presence in twenty-three countries", Monster Worldwide, is provided to support the aforementioned claim (Senge et al., 2010, p 111). Findings in the survey indicate that 80% of surveyed employees would prefer to work for an organisation with positive environmental policies while 92% would prefer to be employed by green organisations (Senge et al., 2010). Senge and his co-authors (2010), however, fail to outline or mention which of the twenty-three countries, where Monster Worldwide is available, took place in the survey. The reader is thus unaware if such results reflect employees in first world countries, developing countries or both. Despite the

lack of information provided, the evidence demonstrates that employee retention is, in part, contingent on an organisations environmental CSR practices.

The benefits of environmental CSR policies are evident with regards to employees, specifically those who have a desire to feel good about where they work (Lyon & Maxwell, 2008). A means of employee retention is the implementation of environmental policies and practices which are aligned with the values of the employees (Lyon & Maxwell, 2008). The importance of aligning CSR initiatives with what employees believe to be important in order to achieve positive outcomes provides evidence to support the notion that preference for certain CSR policies is linked to the perceptions of organisational practices, which in turn leads to favourable outcomes such as commitment and intention to stay.

Environmental CSR, external social CSR and internal social CSR are thus all important organisational practices which provide a multitude of benefits, for all stakeholders including employees.

Proponents of CSR claim that it is in the enlightened self-interest of business to undertake various forms of CSR. The forms of business benefit that might accrue would include enhanced reputation and greater employee loyalty and retention (Moir, 2001, p3).

Based on this suggestion by Moir (2001) the current study aims to examine whether or not employee perceptions of CSR predict intention to stay and organisational commitment. The following section of the literature review will outline commitment and intention to stay as important employee attitudes.

# 2.5) Organisational Commitment

Commitment has generally been understood as an attitude or as a behaviour (Mowday Steers & Porter, 1979). The behavioural aspect views commitment as "a force tying the individual to the firm" (Scholl, 1981, p590) and may be described as a result of the attitude (Mowday et al., 1979). Attitudinal commitment occurs when the employee feels a sense of identification with the organisation and its goals and attempts to act in ways which allow the employee to remain with the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979; Scholl 1981). Following from this, it seems plausible to believe that if the employee perceives a particular CSR programme as one of the goals of an organisation, and the employee identifies with the goal, the individual would experience a sense of commitment toward the organisation. If this is true, the current

study suggests that perhaps not all CSR programmes are equally important to employees – commitment may only increase if the particular CSR programme implemented is viewed as important and the employee identifies with it.

The three forms of organisational commitment conceptualised by Allen and Meyer (1990) include affective, normative and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment is determined by the level of attachment one holds towards the organisation and stems from the congruence between the values of the organisation and those of the individual (Collier & Esteban, 2007). This, again, points to the importance of congruence in terms of values – if certain socially responsible initiatives are important values to the individual and the organisation fulfils such values through CSR, affective commitment should follow.

Affectively committed employees therefore remain with their organisation because they want to whereas employees with normative commitment stay with an organisation because they feel they have to (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment, therefore occurs when an employee feels obliged to remain loyal to the company – this form of commitment is based on the socialization processes of the organisation as well as the need for the benefits provided (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Lastly, continuance commitment occurs when employees remain with the organisation due to the potential negative consequences that would result from leaving the organisation (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Employees with continuance commitment thus feel that they need to remain with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees may feel varying levels normative, affective and continuance commitment where it is suggested that an individual's true commitment to the organisation "reflects each of these separable psychological states" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p4). The antecedents of each aspect of commitment are different, thus reflecting the differences between the constructs (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Based on the aforementioned definition it appears that the concepts of commitment and intention to stay with the organisation overlap - employees, who are committed to the organisation, want to remain with the company for varying reasons. Specifically, Allen and Meyer (1990) describe the positive outcomes of commitment, specifically its relationship with turnover where high levels of commitment have been linked to low levels of turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The definition of commitment utilised in this study is that put forward by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). In this definition, commitment is defined as possessing three components namely: recognition and trust in organisational goals, eagerness to work hard for the

organisation and an aspiration for remaining with the company (Mowday et al., 1979). The desire of the employee to remain with the company demonstrates the overlap between the constructs of intention to stay and organisational commitment. Moreover, this definition of commitment seems similar to affective commitment, as described by Allen and Meyer (1990). The definition of commitment provided by Mowday et al. (1979), however, moves beyond being a passive ideal and into a more active involvement with all aspects of the organisation which is relatively stable over time (Mowday et al., 1979). Commitment not only refers to the specific job an individual possesses, but rather refers to the feelings associated with the organisation as a whole (Mowday et al., 1979). Feelings and attitudes which relate to perceptions of the organisation rather than the specific job held are echoed by internal social CSR, external social CSR and environmental CSR – here, employee perceptions about socially responsible practices reflect an attitude toward the organisation as a whole rather than toward a specific job. Thus, it seems plausible to assume that perceptions about organisational CSR practices, will impact upon whether or not the employee is committed to the goals of the organisation and willingness to remain with the company.

A study conducted by Peterson (2004) examined the relationship between CSR, organisational commitment and the role of how important the individual believed CSR to be as a moderating variable. The study describes CSR as corporate citizenship since it was the scale used to measure employee perceptions of CSR. Peterson (2004) suggests that social identity theory is a possible reason as to why CSR would impact upon organisational commitment. Specifically, it is stated that employees will attain a positive identity if they work for an organisation which possess valuable characteristics, such as social initiatives (Peterson, 2004). If an organisation has a negative reputation with regards to CSR, the individuals' self-concept may be affected, thus resulting in a decrease in commitment toward the organisation (Peterson, 2004). Social Identity Theory further suggests that attitudes are influenced by factors which are important to the individual – thus, the impact of CSR on organisational commitment would be contingent upon how important social responsibility is to the individual (Peterson, 2004). The results from the study demonstrated this affect – there is a relationship between CSR and organisational commitment and this relationship was stronger for employees who felt it was important for businesses to be socially responsible (Peterson, 2004). The current study's operationalisation of CSR and individual importance is different to Peterson's (2004) study. Despite this, the aforementioned study demonstrates the relationship between organisational commitment and perceptions of CSR.

Similarly, a study conducted by Brammer, Millinton and Rayton (2007) displayed the relationship between CSR and commitment. The study examined three forms of CSR and the impact on affective commitment: external CSR, procedural justice and training (Brammer et al., 2007). External CSR in Brammer et al.'s study was defined as philanthropic work with the community, sustaining the environment as well as the company's ethical responsibility toward consumers and alternative external stakeholders (Carroll 1979 as cited in Brammer et al., 2007). Procedural justice was defined as a CSR initiative which focuses on the degree to which decision making processes within the organisation are fair, including the equal treatment of employees regardless of race and gender (Brammer et al., 2007). The researchers hypothesised that the link between their definition of procedural justice and CSR is the idea that being treated fairly is beneficial for employees and thus gives them a reason to reciprocate through positive attitudes and behaviours (Brammer et al., 2007). Brammer et al. (2007) defined training as an aspect of CSR which may have benefits in terms of affective commitment. Training was defined as a socially responsible activity since it enhances an individual's skills and abilities (Brammer et al., 2007). Results from the study demonstrated each aspect of CSR examined by Brammer et al. (2007) and commitment are positively related.

The definition of CSR in Brammer et al.'s (2007) study is similar, in few respects, to the definition of CSR in the current study. Specifically, external CSR is similar to external social CSR in the current study in that they both focus on philanthropy. Procedural justice is similar to internal social CSR in the current research in that both focus on equal treatment, though the definition provided by Brammer et al. (2007) is slightly narrower and fails to include sexual orientation and disability. Thus, based on such similarities, Brammer et al.'s study provides evidence to suggest as external social CSR and internal social CSR are associated with commitment. A further study conducted by Ali, Rehman, Ali, Yousaf & Zia (2010) demonstrated that employee perceptions of CSR were related to organisational commitment. It was suggested that the reason that CSR increases organisational commitment is due to the fact that socially responsible initiatives may impact the welfare of the employees themselves (Ali et al., 2010). This reasoning provides evidence to suggest that perceptions of internal social CSR may specifically be related to organisational commitment since it affects the lives of the employees at work.

The theory underlying the definition of commitment used in the current study suggests that "committed employees are less likely to leave their jobs" (Mowday et al., 1979, p237).

Similarly Scholl (1981) suggest that a decrease in turnover is an outcome of commitment. In order to determine the relationship between turnover and organisational commitment Mowday et al. (1979) examined five studies which occurred across industries. Results demonstrated a consistent inverse relationship between commitment and turnover, though it was acknowledged that multiple factors may be responsible for an employee leaving an organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). This may provide evidence to suggest that organisational commitment may be related to intention to remain with a company. The current study examines both as employee attitudes which may be affected by employee perception of CSR policies and the importance of each policy. The following section of the literature review will outline theory and research on intention to stay.

#### 2.6) Intention to Stay

Research and theory on intention is stay is sparse. Rather, much of the literature around remaining with the company is focused on turnover and turnover intentions. Due to the scarcity of literature on intention to stay, research on turnover is utilised to supplement the following discussion. Intention to stay refers to the desire to remain with the current job (Larrabee, Wu, Persily, Simoni, Johnston, Marcischak, Mott & Gladden, 2010). Employee's intention to stay with an organisation is a vital and important organisational variable since low levels of intention to stay have been related to turnover (Coomber & Barriball as cited in Larrabee et al., 2010). Turnover forces organisation to use resources such as time and money in recruiting, selecting and training new employees or training those already within the organisation to fill the void (Singh & Loncar, 2010). Turnover may further disrupt the daily functioning of an organisation or department and might place additional pressure on employees who are expected to carry the workload of the employee who left the organisation (Singh & Loncar, 2010). Turnover is thus an undesirable organisational outcome which emphasises the importance of decreasing voluntary turnover as well as increasing an employee's desire to remain with the company (Stewart, Volpone, Avery & McKay, 2011).

Moir (2001) suggests that CSR is beneficial in terms of increasing employee loyalty and intention to stay. It is thus vital that organisations demonstrate that they are serious about behaving in a socially responsible manner – this may be done by demonstrating that their actions mirror organisational principles and policies as well as that the social and ethical outcomes of CSR are desirable (Collier & Esteban, 2007). If the aforementioned factors are achieved by the organisation, stakeholders are more likely to believe that the organisation is

truly dedicated toward issues of CSR and thus affecting employee attitudes toward the company, such as intention to stay (Collier & Esteban, 2007).

A study conducted by Martin Jr. (1979) examined certain demographic, environmental, structural and mediating variables and how each of them impacted on employees' intention to stay with and organisation. The structural variables which were significant in impacting upon employee intention to stay included: the degree to which an employee is promoted and advances in an organisation as well as the degree to which organisational decisions and outcomes are deemed fair and equitable (Martin Jr, 1979). These factors are similar to internal social CSR where the focus is on maintaining equality and fairness in the workplace. It thus seems reasonable to assume, based on results from Martin Jr. (1979) that perceptions of internal social CSR will impact upon intention to stay. The results from the study conducted by Martin Jr. (1979) coincide with the CSR model developed by Aguilera, Rupp, Williams and Ganapathi (2007) as described earlier. The focus on the model is on the perceptions of justice in terms of CSR - the model, as well as the aforementioned study suggests that perceptions of justice are key determining factors in positive organisational outcomes. While justice perceptions are not under investigation in the current study, both the CSR model and results from Martin Jr. suggest that perceptions of CSR are related to employee outcomes.

As previously stated, Senge et al. (2010) suggest that intention to remain with an organisation is partly contingent upon whether or not the organisation has environmentally conscious policies. It therefore seems plausible to suggest that the perceived adequacy of an organisation's environmental CSR policies will impact upon intention to stay. With regards to external social CSR, it is suggested that organisational response to societal issues impacts upon the company's stakeholders, including employees (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008). It thus seems plausible to expect that employee perceptions of external social CSR practices will impact upon employee attitudes toward the organisation, including intention to stay (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008; Savage et al., 1991).

Research suggests that the perceptions employees' have with regards to the diversity climate in the workplace has a "significant impact on their job attitudes and behaviours", particularly intention to stay (Stewart, Volpone, Avery & McKay, 2011, p581). Diversity climate is defined as the degree to which employees are treated fairly and the integration of underrepresented employees (McKay, Avery & Morris, 2008 as cited in Stewart et al., 2011).

The definition of diversity climate is similar to the definition of internal social CSR in the current study – both focuses on the fair and equal treatment of previously disadvantaged individuals in organisations. Since diversity climate has a strong negative relationship with turnover, it may be expected that the same will be true for internal social CSR (McKay et al., 2008 as cited in Stewart et al., 2011). Specifically, it may be true that internal social CSR has a negative relationship with turnover, and thus a positive relationship with intention to remain with the company. Therefore, as employee perceptions about the diversity climate of the organisation increase, the desire to remain with the organisation increases (Stewart et al., 2011).

A study conducted by Knox and Maklan (2006) aimed at examining the validity of the outcomes believed to result from CSR. This was achieved by interviewing individuals from five large organisations with well established CSR practices. One of the outcomes examined was the impact of CSR on employees – specifically whether or not CSR decreases employee turnover and increases the number of talented potential employees attracted to the organisation (Knox & Maklan, 2006). It was suggested that CSR programmes begin through an understanding of the company's values and vision (Knox & Maklan, 2006). Thereafter, CSR programmes alter employee behaviour, including an increase in employee retention and intention to stay (Knox & Maklan, 2006). Knox and Maklan (2006) do not describe how the introduction of CSR potentially changes employee behaviour however the current study suggests that such a change in employee attitudes would be contingent upon whether or not the employee believes the CSR venture is important. The following section of the literature review will discuss this in further detail.

### 2.7) Employee Preference: The Potential Impact upon Employee Perceptions of CSR.

The current study suggests that an individual's perception of the adequacy of their organisations CSR practices will be contingent upon their preference for CSR. Specifically, it is hypothesised that this relationship may take on one of two forms. Firstly, individuals with a strong preference for a particular CSR practice may have stringent standards upon which organisational CSR practices may be examined. In this case, the individual will have specific ideas about what CSR practices are adequate and those which are not. Alternatively, individuals with a strong preference for certain CSR practice may feel that any action undertaken by the organisation to address the social problem is adequate since action is better than inaction. Regardless of the type of relationship between preference and employee

perceptions of CSR, it is hypothesised that the relationship will be present. There is no specific theory within the field which provides evidence to support this hypothesis. Rather, ideas and concepts from person environment congruence literature and stakeholder theory will be utilised to provide evidence to support this hypothesis. It is important to note that the theories will not be used in their entirety, rather concepts derived from such theories will be utilised.

Stakeholders are defined as individuals who are able to influence the organisation (Savage, Nix, Whitehead & Blair, 1991). Many organisations are actively involved in attempting to address issues raised by stakeholders in order to avoid negative consequences which might result from inaction (Savage et al., 1991). As discussed in the previous section of the literature review, organisational stakeholders are vast and may be categorised as primary or secondary where the former is often of greater significance to the organisation – employees, amongst others, are considered primary organisational stakeholders (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008; Orlitzky et al., 2011; Savage et al., 1991). It thus seems reasonable to assume that organisational response to issues raised by workers would directly impact upon employee attitudes and behaviours within the workplace. Thus, if employees have a preference for certain CSR practices and such practices are deemed to be adequately fulfilled, positive organisational outcomes will follow. This notion is fundamental in the current study since it demonstrates the significance of organisational policies which are important to employees, and how this may impact on employee behaviours. The basic notion taken from stakeholder theory to support this hypothesis is that social issues raised by employees may be dealt with by the organisation - such social issues raised by employees should constitute their preference. The manner in which organisations deal with this will, thereafter, be perceived by employees as either satisfactory or inadequate.

Employee attitudes and behaviours may further be affected by the match between the individual and the organisation (Munchinsky & Monahan, 1987). A central concept within the person-environment fit literature is the idea that employees wish to find an organisation which has similar values to their own (Cable & Edwards, 2004). There are various forms of congruence that may be experienced between an employee and an organisation. Supplementary fit occurs when an employee and the organisation have similar values and characteristics (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Munchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Thus, if the organisation and the employee value internal social CSR, external social CSR and environmental CSR supplementary fit is experienced. It is suggested that if individuals

experience supplementary congruence with their organisation, there will be an increase in job satisfaction and intention to stay (Munchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The claims taken from this theory to substantiate the current hypothesis regard the relationship between what is deemed important to the individual and whether the organisation fulfils it. For example, if environmental CSR is an important value to an individual (i.e. a preference) and the organisation places the same importance on environmental CSR, it is likely that the company will adequately address environmental problems. In other words, if a certain CSR practice is truly important to the company it is likely that the company will have several adequate measures in place to implement the CSR practice. This adequate implementation will thereafter be deemed sufficient by employees who place the same CSR practice as a preference. Thus, the congruence in terms of the values behind CSR practices between employees and organisations should result in positive employee perceptions. Thus, following the logic from person-environment congruence, there needs to be a match between what values the individual deems important and the degree to which it is the organisation addresses such issues in order for the perception employees have to be positive. This supplementary congruence will thereafter result in positive organisational behaviours. It is important to note that as an initial step in examining this hypothesis, it is essential to ascertain whether or not there was a preference for certain CSR practices within the current study.

# 2.8) An Overview of the Theoretical Framework: Employee Perceptions, Preference and the Relationship with Organisational Commitment and Intention to Stay

The central claim in the current study states that employee preference for particular CSR practices will impact upon their perceptions of whether or not their organisation adequately fulfils their socially responsible initiatives. In turn, employee perceptions will predict organisational commitment and intention to stay with the company. As outlined above the preference employees have for particular CSR practices may be a function of person-environment congruence. Specifically if supplementary fit occurs where the employee believes the CSR practices which they deem vital are considered important by the organisation, positive outcomes will accrue (Munchinsky & Monahan, 1987). This supplementary fit may thus lead employees to have favourable perceptions about their organisation's CSR practices. This may be true since the employee will believe that the organisation is acting in a just and fair manner in terms of the social initiatives which are deemed important. As outlined above, Aguilera et al. (2007) suggest that such notions of justice in terms of CSR lead to favourable outcomes such as increased retention and

organisational commitment. Thus employee perceptions of CSR are shaped by their general justice perceptions of whether the CSR practice which is preferred (preference) is deemed to be adequately dealt with.

The current study thus aims to test the validity of the following three hypotheses: Firstly, it is hypothesised, as depicted in figure 4 below, that employee perceptions of the adequacy of organisational CSR practices will impact upon intention to stay and organisational commitment. The second hypothesis suggests that individuals in organisations will have a preference for particular CSR practices. The final hypothesis, as depicted in figure 5 below, suggests that an individual's perception of the adequacy of the organisations CSR practices is a function of preference.

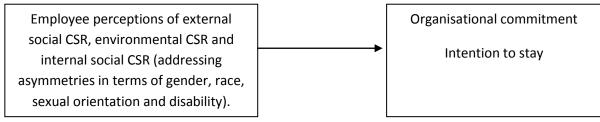


Figure 4. A depiction of hypothesis one.

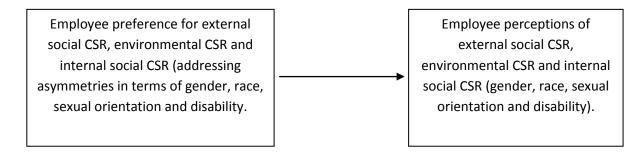


Figure 5. A depiction of hypothesis three.

#### 2.9) Conclusion

The theory and research examined in the literature review above provided evidence to support the hypotheses and aims of the current study. The manner in which CSR is defined in the current study is in line with the literature pertaining to the subject. Employee perceptions of CSR are a central component in the current study where an examination of valence and Aguilera et al.'s (2007) model of CSR provided evidence to support this view. The literature review outlined various theory and research which links CSR with commitment and intention

to stay, all of which supported the hypotheses in the current study. Lastly, literature pertaining to person-environment congruence and stakeholder theory were utilised to provide evidence to support the hypothesis which suggests that preference for certain CSR practices impacts upon employee perceptions of organisational CSR practices. The following section of the literature review will outline the research questions derived from the literature review.

# 2.10) Research Questions

Based on the literature described above, this research aims at examining three main research questions, with several sub-questions. The main research questions in the current study are:

- 1. Do employee perceptions of their organisations CSR practices predict their organisational commitment and intention to stay?
- 2. Do individuals have a preference for certain CSR practices?
- 3. Is individual preference for CSR related to the perceived adequacy of organisational CSR practices?

#### The sub-research questions are:

- 1. Does the perceived adequacy of an organisation's internal social CSR practices (examined in terms of racial redress and equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability) predict intention to stay and organisational commitment?
- 2. Does the perceived adequacy of an organisation's external social CSR practices predict intention to stay and organisational commitment?
- 3. Does the perceived adequacy of an organisation's environmental CSR practices predict intention to stay and organisational commitment?

# **Chapter Three: Methodology**

This section of the research will outline the methodology utilised throughout the study. The discussion will thus focus on the research design, sample, procedure and the instruments utilised in the study. Thereafter, the ethical considerations pertaining to the research will be discussed followed by a detailed description of the statistical analyses utilised to describe the sample and instruments as well as the analyses used to answer the research questions.

#### 3.1) Research Design

This study is a non-experimental cross-sectional research design as there is no control group (and therefore no random assignment) and the independent variables in the study; perceptions of organisational CSR practices; cannot be manipulated (Montello & Sutton, 2006). The research design affects the research questions asked and the nature of the relationships examined in the research (Montello & Sutton, 2006). Thus, due to the non-experimental nature of the study, this research aims to examine the relationship between the proposed variables — cause and effect cannot be determined unless all the criteria for a true-experimental research design are met, including random assignment into control and experimental group as well as manipulation of the independent variable (Whitely Jnr., 2002).

#### **3.2) Sample**

A combination of simple non-probability convenience sampling and snowball sampling were utilised in order to attain participants in the current study (n = 119). Non-probability sampling contrasts to probability sampling – the latter suggests that each person in the population has an equal chance of being selected for the research (Whitely Jnr., 2002). Conversely, with non-probability sampling the likelihood of an individual being chosen to participate in the research is unknown (Whitely Jnr., 2002). Initially, several organisations were approached and access into three companies was attained, all of which were financial institutions – combined, these organisations yielded 103 responses, of which 83 questionnaires were satisfactorily completed. Questionnaires were deemed satisfactorily completed if the majority of items in each scale were completed and if participants worked in an organisation in Johannesburg.

In order to further supplement the sample, snowball sampling was initiated whereby emails were sent out and a link to the online questionnaire was posted on social networking websites

(LinkedIn and Facebook). Snowball sampling occurs when participants are asked to nominate individuals that will participate in the study (Whitely Jnr., 2002). These nominees then put forward alternative individuals thus mimicking the effect of a snowball (Whitely Jnr., 2002). This was achieved in the current study where individuals who were emailed were asked to forward the link to alternative people who worked for an organisation in Johannesburg. In order to ensure the sample attained through this avenue was consistent with the necessary parameters (i.e.: working in an organisation in Johannesburg) a question was included in the questionnaire to ensure such individuals were attained. This means of sampling yielded 127 responses of which 59 questionnaires were satisfactorily completed. Of the 142 usable questionnaires, 23 were not included in the final sample since the importance scale was answered incorrectly, thus revealing a sample of 119. Table 1 below describes the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for the age and tenure of the sample.

Table 1

Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum and Maximum Values for Age and Tenure

Variable	Mean	Standard	Minimum	Maximum
		Deviation		
Age	38.40	12.08	19	69
Tenure	7.08	7.66	0.1	39

As tabulated above, the mean age of the sample is 38.40 with a standard deviation of 12.08 where the minimum age is 19 and the maximum age is 69. Snowball sampling yielded individuals from multiple organisations – thus the tenure described in the table above reflects the duration of employment within the respective organisations. The mean tenure is 7.08 years with a standard deviation of 7.66 where the minimum tenure in the sample is one month while the maximum is 39 years. The sample is further described in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Description of the Sample

Descriptor	n	Percent
Gender		
Male	43	36.13
Female	76	63.87
Race		
Black	9	7.56
White	95	79.83
Indian	10	8.40
Coloured	3	2.52
Chinese	1	0.84
Not Specified	1	0.84
Work Arrangement		
Full Time	112	94.11
Part Time	7	5.88
Level of Education		
Matric	20	16.80
Undergraduate	21	17.65
Diploma	27	22.69
Postgraduate	50	42.02
Not Specified	1	0.84

As tabulated above, the sample is largely female (63.87%) and white (79.83%). The sample consisted of 9 black (7.56%), 10 Indian (8.40%), 3 coloured (2.52%) and 1 Chinese (0.84%) participants while 1 participants did not specify his/her race. Of the 119 participants in the sample, 112 (94.11%) worked full-time while 7 (5.88%) worked part-time. A significant portion of the sample indicated they possess a postgraduate degree (42.02%), followed by 27 participants with a diploma (22.69%) and 21 individuals with an undergraduate degree (17.65%) - 20 participants only have a Matric (16.80%) while 1 individual did not specify his/her level of education.

#### 3.3) Procedure

Multiple organisations were approached through email and telephonically in order to gain access for the study – the aims and purpose of the research were explained. Once permission was granted through a signed letter, the three organisations which permitted access were individually provided with information which pertained to anonymity and confidentiality. It was clearly stipulated that the organisations themselves would remain anonymous and would not be named in the research. Moreover, these organisations were informed that feedback will be provided upon completion of the research – such feedback will be at a group level and in the form of a summary. Once the relevant information was made clear, organisations were provided with an option of participating in the study electronically through an online survey, or with a hardcopy of the questionnaires. Each of the three organisations stated a preference for the questionnaire to be administered electronically, and a link to Survey Monkey was therefore provided to the human resource department within each organisation. The human resource department was selected as opposed to managers and supervisors since this may have ensured that employees did not feel pressurised by superiors to partake in the research

The electronic version of the questionnaire contained a participant information sheet as a front page (see Appendix A), which outlined issues of anonymity, confidentiality and voluntary participation. It was clearly stipulated that IP addresses would be deleted once the data was attained, thus ensuring that employees could not be matched to their questionnaires. Two weeks after the link had been sent to employees, the HR department for each organisation sent a reminder to employees to complete the questionnaire. After one month of data collection it was evident that this avenue of attaining a sample was insufficient and a larger sample was needed.

In order to gain a larger sample, emails were sent and the link to the questionnaire was posted on the social networking sites, LinkedIn and Facebook. Through emails and the use of such websites, a short message was posted with the link in order to stipulate the voluntary nature of the research and that it could only be completed by individuals working in an organisation in Johannesburg. The link was the same used initially with the three organisations and thus participants were informed of the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses through the same participant information sheet for the original sample. While the link and the questionnaire were identical for those in the three organisations and those attained through snowball sampling, a single question was added for the latter participants in order to ensure

the criteria for inclusion in the study was met. After the participant information sheet, in the initial question, participants were asked whether or not they worked in an organisation in Johannesburg – this question needed to be answered in order to move on and complete the remaining questionnaire. All participants who did not work for an organisation in Johannesburg were excluded from the sample.

#### 3.4) Instrumentation

The questionnaire (see Appendix B), excluding the demographics section, consisted of 73 items and took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. All self developed scales were piloted, where the results thereof will be discussed at the end of this section.

**3.4.1) Demographics.** This section of the questionnaire attained information which would be useful in describing the sample and thus included questions relating to the participant's age, race, gender, tenure, work arrangement (full-time or part-time) and level of education. With regards to race, it was clearly stipulated that the information was required for statistical purposes and was not intended to offend participants. In order to ensure anonymity, no identifying information, such as name or id number was asked for.

**3.4.2)** Employee perceptions of external social CSR. This 9 item scale was self-developed so that external social CSR could be examined as defined in the current study. This scale thus examines the perceptions employees possess with regards to whether or not their organisation's external social CSR policies are adequate. The scale is answered on a five point likert type scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with a neutral option where items 4 and 9 are reversed scored. As suggested by Van Marrewijk (2003), the social responsibility of business will vary according to the context. Businesses thus need to identify what socially responsible action is necessary in their context and how such CSR initiatives may be developed into business strategies (Dahlsrud, 2006). Due to the context specific nature of external social CSR, the questionnaire has an item which related specifically to the South African context. The questionnaire was piloted to ensure face validity and to determine whether or not the items were clear and unambiguous. The results of the pilot study will be discussed in the following section of this chapter.

In order to further ensure the scale possessed sound psychometric properties, the internal consistency reliability and validity were calculated. With regards to internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha was extremely high ( $\alpha = 0.91$ ) suggesting the items within this

subscale measure the same construct. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted on this scale in order to ascertain whether or not the scale was valid. An examination of the eigenvalues, cumulative proportion and the scree plot in appendix C suggests that the scale only has one factor. The factor pattern demonstrates that each of the items load positively and highly on a single factor, as demonstrated in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Factor Pattern for the External Social CSR Subscale

Item	Factor Pattern
External 1	0.83
External 2	0.81
External 3	0.69
External 4	0.89
External 5	0.85
External 6	0.37
External 7	0.70
External 8	0.88
External 9	0.82

As tabulated above, one of the items in the scale has a significantly lower factor loading that the other items – this item, External 6, is the only item which relates specifically to the South African context, thus potentially explaining its lower factor loading in comparison to other items. This item, however, was included in the study due to its theoretical relevance and since a factor loading of 0.37 still suggests the item is a good one (Brown, 2006).

**3.4.3**) Employee perceptions of internal social CSR. This was examined through the use of four self developed scales, each with 5 items. The four scales examine perceptions of CSR practices aimed toward gender equality, racial redress and equality in terms of sexual orientation and disability respectively. An item from each of the four scales is reversed. Thus for perceptions of gender equality item 5 was reverse scored, for perceptions of racial redress item 5 was reverse scored, for perceptions of equality with regards to sexual orientation item 5 was reverse scored and for perceptions of equality in terms of disability item 4 was reverse scored. All four scales are answered on a five point likert-type scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with a neutral option. The four scales were piloted in order to

ensure face validity as well as to determine whether or not items and instructions were clear and unambiguous. Moreover, the internal consistency reliability was calculated for each scale where Cronbach's alpha was above the suggested 0.70 level for all the scales - gender  $\alpha$  = 0.86; race  $\alpha$  = 0.87; sexual orientation  $\alpha$  = 0.77 and disability  $\alpha$  = 0.78. Moreover, in order to examine the validity of the scales four exploratory factor analyses were conducted as demonstrated in Table 4 below.

Table 4

Factor Pattern for Gender, Race, Sexual Orientation and Disability

Subscale	<b>Factor Loading</b>
Gender 1	0.85
Gender 2	0.70
Gender 3	0.77
Gender 4	0.82
Gender 5	0.82
Race 1	0.71
Race 2	0.85
Race 3	0.74
Race 4	0.91
Race 5	0.85
Sexual Orientation 1	0.77
Sexual Orientation 2	0.74
Sexual Orientation 3	0.81
Sexual Orientation 4	0.63
Sexual Orientation 5	0.66
Disability 1	0.59
Disability 2	0.80
Disability 3	0.86
Disability 4	0.84
Disability 5	0.56

The results derived from the first factor analysis for perceptions of gender equality, demonstrates that all the items load highly and positively on one factor. Similarly, the results attained from the second, third and fourth factor analyses for perceptions of racial redress,

equality in terms of sexual orientation and equal treatment regardless of disability demonstrates that all the items load highly and positively on one factor. The eigenvalues, cumulative proportion and scree plot for each of the four confirmatory factor analyses which support the one factor solution are available in appendix C. Thus, the Employee Perceptions of Internal Social CSR scale is both valid and reliable.

**3.4.4)** Employee perceptions of environmental CSR is a self developed 9 item scale which measures employees' perceptions of their organisations environmental CSR practices. The questionnaire is answered on a five point likert type scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree with a neutral option; where items 5 and 9 are reverse scored. As with the previous self developed scales, this too was piloted in order to ensure face validity and the clarity of items and instructions. To further ensure validity, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. An examination of the eigenvalues, cumulative proportion and the scree plot, available in appendix C, suggest a one factor solution. The results depicted in Table 5 below demonstrate that all the items load highly and positively on one factor.

Table 5
Factor Pattern for Perceptions of Environmental CSR

Items	Factor Pattern
Environmental 1	0.86
Environmental 2	0.79
Environmental 3	0.45
Environmental 4	0.86
Environmental 5	0.88
Environmental 6	0.87
Environmental 7	0.80
Environmental 8	0.73
Environmental 9	0.85

Internal consistency reliability was further calculated for this scale where  $\alpha = 0.92$ . The high value for Cronbach's alpha suggests that the items in the subscale measure the same construct. The Perceptions of Environmental CSR scale is thus both valid and reliable.

**3.4.5) Employee preference.** The Preference for CSR Scale has 15 items which aim at examining a rank order for preference in terms of internal social CSR (examined as

equality in terms of gender, race, sexual orientation and disability), external social CSR and environmental CSR. In order to ensure that respondents did not mark all the CSR practices as equally important, the questionnaire was developed in order to create a system whereby the outcome revealed a rank order - the CSR practices were ranked from most important to least important for each participant. In order to achieve this, the CSR practices were evaluated through a dichotomous comparison. Specifically, respondents were asked to imagine they had R100 and that they had to split the money, in denominations of R10, between two options. This process was repeated 15 times to ensure all CSR practices were compared to one another - included in these comparisons were the social asymmetries which comprise internal social CSR, which were compared to one another (i.e.: racial redress v gender equality). Each of the 15 items forced employees to split the R100 between the two options depending on the degree of importance each option held to the individual, thus creating the rank order required. It was clearly specified that participants could use any ratio to split the R100 apart from 100:0. The ratios obtained from these comparisons (i.e.: R30 v R70 gives you a ratio of 30:70) were put into a matrix upon which analytic hierarchy process was run in order to attain the required rank order. Table 6 below provides a matrix where the ticks demonstrate the 15 dichotomous comparisons in this scale.

Table 6

The Dichotomous Comparisons for the Preference Scale

	External Social CSR	Environmental CSR	Gender	Race	Sexual Orientation	Disability
External		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Social CSR						
Environmental			✓	✓	✓	✓
CSR						
Gender				✓	✓	✓
Race					<b>√</b>	✓
Sexual						✓
Orientation						
Disability						

The dichotomous comparisons were thus as follows: external social CSR was compared to environmental CSR, racial redress, gender equality, equality in terms of sexual orientation and equality with regards to disability. Similarly environmental CSR was compared to

external social CSR, racial redress and equal treatment in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability. Lastly, gender equality, racial redress and equality in terms of sexual orientation and disability were compared to one another. Since this was a self-developed scale, the questionnaire was piloted, as will be discussed in the following section of this chapter.

The manner in which each of the CSR practices were phrased in the dichotomous comparisons was an important factor in creating the scale. It may be argued that the term CSR is not a laymen concept that is universally and clearly understood. The multiple definitions which arise in the literature demonstrate the lack of a unanimous conceptualisation of the construct (Orlitzky et al., 2011). Thus, in order to ensure an easily understood and unanimous interpretation of the CSR constructs utilised in the study, the items in this questionnaire were worded in terms of specific actions. To illustrate this: the terms recycling, saving electricity and saving scarce resources are examples of phrases used to examine environmental CSR. Helping those in need, charity work and philanthropic behaviour were terms used to describe external social CSR. Internal social CSR was examined in terms of social asymmetries based on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. Thus terms such as redressing past discrimination based on race, gender equality, equal treatment toward homosexuals, heterosexuals and bisexuals as well as availability of facilities for disabled employees are examples of terms used to examine each construct of internal social CSR. As depicted in table 6 above the social asymmetries which comprise internal social CSR - namely racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability - were examined against each other as well as independently against external social CSR and environmental CSR. This was done since some of the social asymmetries may be more pertinent to employees than others.

**3.4.6)** Organisational commitment. The 15 item Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was used in this study. This questionnaire measures three aspects of commitment: a belief and acceptance of organisational goals, a willingness to work hard for the organisation and a desire to remain with the company (Mowday et al., 1979). These three facets of commitment are not examined in three subscales – rather, an overall commitment score is attained through adding and averaging the fifteen items (Mowday et al., 1979). Responses for this questionnaire occur on a 7 point likert type scale: strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, strongly disagree (Mowday et al., 1979). Items 3, 7, 9, 11, 12

and 15 are reverse scored (Mowday et al., 1979). Mowday et al. (1979) conducted a study which attempted to validate the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire in a variety of organisations. Internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire was consistently high in all the organisations tested in the study –  $\alpha$  ranged from 8.2 to 9.3 (Mowday et al., 1979). Similarly, Cronbach's alpha was high for this questionnaire when it was calculated for the current study where  $\alpha = 0.91$ . The validity of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire has been established by Mowday et al. (1979) in a variety of organisational settings and jobs. Moreover, a confirmatory factor analysis conducted in the current study suggested a one factor solution since the eigenvalue for one factor (7.06) far exceeded the rest and accounted for 47.07% of the variance. Since this is a common scale which has been extensively validated, the one solution factor pattern, eigenvalues and scree plot were not provided. Despite this, the current study found the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire to be both valid and reliable.

**3.4.7) Intention to stay.** This 5 item questionnaire was self developed and included items evaluating the degree to which employees would like to stay in their current organisation. Items 1 and 4 are reverse score items. Each of the items was answered on a 5-point likert type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree, with a neutral option. This questionnaire was piloted to ensure that the items were clear and so that face validity could be determined. Moreover, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the Intention to Stay questionnaire in order to determine the validity thereof. The results of the factor analysis suggest that the scale examines a single factor, as demonstrated by the eigenvalues, cumulative proportion and the scree plot in appendix C. Moreover, an examination of the factor pattern in Table 7 below demonstrates that each of the items loads positively and highly upon the single factor.

Table 7

The Factor Pattern for the Intention to Stay Questionnaire

Item	Factor 1	
Stay 1	0.87	
Stay 2	0.91	
Stay 3	0.90	
Stay 4	0.91	
Stay 5	0.93	

Once the validity of the scale was ascertained, internal consistency reliability was calculated, where Cronbach's alpha was high ( $\alpha = 0.93$ ). While short questionnaires usually demonstrate high reliability, Cronbach's alpha suggests that the items within the questionnaire measure the same construct. Table 8 below demonstrates the internal consistency reliability for all the scales and subscales utilised in the current study.

Table 8

Internal Consistency Reliability for all the ScalesUtilised in the Study

Scale	Reliability	
Perceptions of External Social CSR	0.91	
Perceptions of Environmental CSR	0.92	
Perceptions of Internal Social CSR:		
Gender	0.86	
Race	0.87	
Sexual Orientation	0.77	
Disability	0.78	
Organisational Commitment Questionnaire	0.91	
Intention to Stay Questionnaire	0.93	

3.4.8) The Pilot Study. All the self-developed questionnaires; Perceptions of External Social CSR Scale, Perceptions of Internal Social CSR Scale, Perceptions of Environmental CSR Scale; The Importance of CSR Scale and the Intention to Stay Questionnaire; were piloted on a working sample (n=14) attained from Wits Plus. Participants completed the questionnaire and were asked to provide comments with regards to the nature of the instructions and questions asked in terms of clarity, ambiguity and ease of understanding. All the respondents stated that the instructions were clear and easy to follow, as were the questions. This suggests that the self-developed questionnaires possess face validity, which is defined in a non-statistical manner and rather examines whether or not the test appears to measure the desired construct (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Face validity is thus concerned with "whether the measure 'looks valid' to test-takers" (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009, p.57).

#### 3.5) Analysis

**3.5.1) Simple statistics**. As an initial step, descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation and frequency were run in order to describe the age, gender, race and tenure of the sample. Thereafter, normality was determined through an examination of skewness, kurtosis and Kolmogorov-Smirnoff. The results for normality will be discussed in the following chapter of the research. In order to determine the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each of the scales and subscales utilised in the study. Internal consistency reliability refers to the degree to which the different aspects of the instrument measure the same concept (Huck, 2009). Once the reliability of the scales and subscales was established, a confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the validity of the questionnaire, particularly the self-constructed scales.

**3.5.2) Exploratory factor analysis.** Exploratory factor analysis is utilised in order to determine the number of factors present within a given framework. Exploratory factor analysis primarily reduces the data into latent variables (Marsden & Wright, 2010). The current study utilised factor analysis to validate the instrumentation as well as a statistical technique during the analysis of the results.

The process put forth in order to determine the number of factors is based on Kaiser's Criterion and a Scree Test (Brown, 2006). Kaiser's Criterion suggests that the eigenvalues derived from the factor analysis need to be greater than 1.0 where the number of eigenvalues greater than 1.0 indicates the number of latent factors (Brown, 2006). The simplicity of Kaiser's Criterion is beneficial however the downfall of this means of interpretation is its arbitrary nature which often leads to overestimating or underestimating the number of factors (Brown, 2006). The scree test, an alternative means of interpreting a factor analysis, represents the eigenvalues graphically, where the eigenvalues are represented on the vertical axis while the number of factors on the horizontal axis (Brown, 2006). The scree plot is utilised "to determine the last substantial decline in the eigenvalues" (Brown, 2006, p.27). This means of interpretation is, however, criticised for its ambiguity and subjectivity (Brown, 2006). Despite the limitations of Kaiser's Criterion and the Scree Test, these are the agreed upon and most commonly used means of determining the number of latent factors present in a questionnaire (Brown, 2006) and were thus utilised in the current study.

Once the number of factors has been determined, the selected factors are rotated, provided there are two or more factors (Brown, 2006). This process facilitates interpretation whereby

factor loadings above 0.30 and 0.40 within the rotated factor pattern are considered to be saliently related to that factor (Brown, 2006). Orthogonal varimax rotation was utilised in the current study when two or more factors were identified – this form of rotation is easy to interpret and the factor loadings represent correlations between the items and the latent factors (Brown, 2006).

**3.5.3**) **Multiple regression.** Multiple regression was utilised in order to determine whether or not the independent variables predicted the variance in the dependent variables. Multiple regression is used when there is one dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Huck, 2009). Within a multiple regression the main focus is on ascertaining the degree to which each of the independent variables predicts the dependent variable (Huck, 2009). In order to determine this, the standardised regression equation is examined (Huck, 2009).

As with most analyses, hypotheses are examined in a multiple regression where the null hypothesis states no variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables while the alternate hypothesis states the opposite (Huck, 2009). The validity of the null hypothesis is determined through the F-value derived in an ANOVA table where significant results suggest that at least one independent variable predicts the dependent variable (Huck, 2009). The impact of each independent variable may be examined through t-tests, where the beta-weight for each independent variable is tested (Huck, 2009). Thereafter, R-squared ( $R^2$ ) is examined which demonstrates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by all the independent variables (Howell, 2008; Huck, 2009). Adjusted  $R^2$  is often reported in conjunction with  $R^2$  - while the values for each are interpreted, the adjusted  $R^2$  is useful since it decreases the bias associated with  $R^2$  (Huck, 2009). Specifically,  $R^2$  often overestimates the true predictive value of the independent variables since it is based in the data attained from the sample (Huck, 2009). The bias is thus removed in adjusted  $R^2$  since the value for  $R^2$  is decreased (Huck, 2009).

When independent variables are uncorrelated  $R^2$  represents the squared correlation of each predictor where each independent variable adds something unique to the prediction (Howell, 2008). This, however, does not occur when multicollinearity is present. Multicollinearity refers to the case when the independent variables in a study are highly correlated (Howell, 2008), which is often problematic in multiple regression analysis. When multicollinearity is present the independent variables do not predict anything unique where "the total information

of these two predictors is not the sum of the parts – it is something less than the sum of the parts" (Howell, 2008, p.249). The major limitation of multicollinearity is that the regression equation is unstable and may be different with different data (Howell, 2008).

Within any regression certain errors may be present which may impact the results: measurement error, sampling error and uncontrolled variation (Allison, 1999). Measurement error refers to the inaccuracy of measurement instruments – this is particularly problematic in the social sciences since no variable may ever be measured with absolute accuracy (Allison, 1999). Sampling error occurs when the sample attained for the research represents a small portion of the population and is thus not entirely representative (Allison, 1999). Lastly, uncontrolled variation refers to the possible impact of extraneous variables on the regression equation whereby factors other than the independent variables may be responsible for the variation in the dependent variable (Allison, 1999). Thus, one of the assumptions about multiple regressions is that the aforementioned errors occur in a random manner (Allison, 1999). Therefore, the assumptions for multiple regression include the normal and independent distribution of errors, random independent sampling, interval scales of measure for all variables, normality of residuals, equality of variance and linearity. Each of the aforementioned assumptions will be described below.

Within a regression, the errors are assumed to be both independently and identically distributed with a mean of 0 and a common variance (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). The independent assumption suggests that "the subjects are responding independently of one another... if independence is violated only mildly then the probability of Type I error will be several times greater than the level the experimenter thinks he or she is working with" (Stevens, 2002, p.110). The independent and identical distribution of error assumption implies two further assumptions: the normality of residuals and equality of variance (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). Residual plots are a common means of examining the aforementioned assumptions and are essential since they may provide insight into aspects of the analysis which may be overlooked through simply observing summary statistics (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). Particularly, one dimensional graphs such as histograms, serve to examine whether the distribution is symmetrical or skewed (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006; Stevens, 2002). Studentised and standardised residuals may further be examined in order to determine the normality of the error term (Stevens, 2010). The linearity assumption for a simple regression may be determined through an examination of the scatter plot which represents the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). The standardised residual plot is the most common in order to determine linearity where the plot should bear a resemblance to a straight line. The standardised residual plot is therefore useful in examining all of the assumptions. In terms of this plot, if the assumptions are met then the points (the standardised residuals) should be scattered randomly around the horizontal line, where  $r_1 = 0$  (Stevens, 2010). Any clustering of the residuals suggests that certain assumptions have been violated (Stevens, 2010).

Standarised residual plots may further be utilised to determine whether the data has outliers. Outliers refer to points of the plot which have standardised residuals greater than 2 or 3 (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). These are considered outliers since standardised residuals are normally distributed and have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). Outliers are important to detect since they may point to model failures and may impact the results derived from the regression (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). Cook's distance (Cook's D) may be utilised in order to examine any outliers in the data (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). Cook's D measures the distance between regression coefficients attained from the full data and those acquired by deleting the ith observation (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). Thus the influence of the *i*th observation ( $C_i$ ) is under examination (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). The graphical representation of Cook's D examines the values of  $C_i$  - when such values appear similar, no outliers exist and thus no changes need to be made to the data set (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). When certain values are significantly greater than most of the  $C_i$  values, these points need to be noted and examined (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2006). The plot of Cook's D provides a cut off line – the common rule is to multiply the value of the cut-off line by three and any points above that value are considered outliers and need to be examined.

When standardised residuals and Cook's D suggest there are outliers in the sample, such points should be discarded prior to running the statistical analysis (Huck, 2009). Alternatively, the analyses should be run both with the presence of the outliers as well as without the outliers thus determining the impact of such scores on the results (Huck, 2009). In the current study, there were several outliers in each of the regressions run, as demonstrated by Cook's D. Thus, the regressions were run both with and without the outliers in order to determine the impact of such values on the results. It is, however, important to note that outliers may be useful – if they exists for reasons other than misunderstood directions and erratic answering, they may provide useful insights psychological or environmental factors which associated with particularly high and low scores (Huck, 2009).

**3.5.4) Correlation.** Within the current study, a correlation was run primarily to examine multicollinearity between the independent variables in the multiple regressions as well as to determine the relationship between all the independent and dependent variables in the study. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r) derived from the statistical analysis represents the strength and direction of a relationship and ranges from -1 to 1 (Pagano, 2004). It is important to note that Pearson's r examines the linear relationship between variables (Pagano, 2004). A correlation of +1 suggests a perfect positive correlation while a value of -1 suggests a perfect negative correlation (Pagano, 2004). A positive correlation suggests there is a direct relationship between two variables, where the high values of the one variable is associated with high values for the other (Runyon et al., 2000). Conversely, a negative correlation coefficient suggests an inverse relationship between the variables where high values for one variable is associated with low values of the other variable (Runyon et al., 2000). Of equal importance is the magnitude of the correlation coefficient, which are usually classified as small, medium (or moderate) and large (Cohen 1988 as cited in Runyon et al., 2000). Cohen's guidelines indicate that a small correlation coefficient ranges from  $\pm$  0.10 to  $\pm$  0.29, moderate values range from  $\pm$  0.30 to 0.49 while large correlation coefficients range from  $\pm 0.50$  to  $\pm 1.00$  (as cited in Runyon et al., 2000).

A further means of examining the outcomes derived from the correlation is through the coefficient of determination  $(r^2)$  which is the correlation coefficient squared (Runyon et al., 2000). The coefficient of determination provides information about the variance – specifically it reveals what percentage of the variance in one variable is explained by the other variable (Pagano, 2004). It is important to note that a correlation does not imply causality and merely examines whether or not two variables are related (Pagano, 2004). Since Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient is parametric, the parametric assumptions need to be met.

3.5.6) Analytic hierarchy process (AHP). AHP was utilised in order to rank each participant's preference from most important to least important. External social CSR, environmental CSR, racial redress, gender equality, equality with regards to sexual orientation, and equality in terms of disability practices were thus ranked in order of importance for each individual. AHP is a decision making technique utilised in order to create a rank order of desired factors attained from dichotomous comparisons (Saaty, 1990; Saaty & Vargas, 2001). AHP takes the results derived from paired comparisons and develops matrices based on the responses (Saaty & Vargas, 2001). Thereafter, ratio scales are provided

in the form of priority vectors where the dominance of certain factors over alternatives is demonstrated (Saaty & Vargas, 2001). It is therefore essential, upon the completion of the matrices, to calculate a priority vector since it demonstrates the relative weights among the comparisons. Here, the rows in the matrix are summed and then normalised thus creating a priority vector which reveals the ranks stipulated in the dichotomous comparisons (Saaty & Vargas, 2001). Once the weights between comparisons are derived, it is essential to determine whether the participants' responses were consistent. For example, if one is comparing i, j and k and  $\alpha_{ij}$  represents the importance of i over alternative j and  $\alpha_{jk}$  represents the preference of j as opposed to k then, in order for there to be consistency, it is essential that  $\alpha_{ik}$  occurs where i is deemed more important than k (Saaty & Vargas, 2001).

Thus, within the current study, AHP was utilised in order to examine individual preference for external social CSR, environmental CSR, racial redress, gender equality and equality with regards to sexual orientation and disability in terms of a hierarchy. The hierarchy derived was then utilised to determine whether or not there were individuals within the sample with similar preferences. This will be outlined in the discussion related to the cluster analysis below.

3.5.7) Ward's minimum variance clustering method. The current study utilised cluster analysis in order to determine whether or not there were similarities between participants in terms of employee preference for CSR practices. It was hypothesised that preference would impact upon employee perceptions of CSR policies. Observing the preference in terms of clusters as opposed to individual observations occurred because of the natural interrelatedness of the variables – cluster analysis allows for a detailed description of the magnitude of importance for each CSR practice in each cluster thus more robustly describing employee preference. If cluster analysis was not utilised and individual preference was examined against perceptions of CSR in isolation, then the interrelatedness of the constructs could not be examined. For example, observing preference for each individual would entail examining the most important/preferable CSR practice against perceptions of CSR. The interaction between the individual's preference and how this impacts perceptions could not be examined. Cluster analysis thus allows each cluster to be explained in terms of preference for all CSR practices, and how this interrelatedness impacts upon perceptions. The discussion below will briefly outline ward's clustering method.

Cluster analysis is a statistical technique utilised to determine the manner in which responses, cases and variables are grouped together into clusters (Cramer, 2003). A cluster is "a group of items (objects, points) in which each item is 'close' (in some appropriate sense) to a central item of a cluster and that members of different clusters are 'far away' from each other" (Izenman, 2008, p.408). Ward's technique for cluster analysis involves a series of steps which begin with *n* clusters where there is one individual in each cluster (Romesburg, 2004). At each step two clusters are merged based on which merger will create the smallest increase in the sum of squares index or variance, termed Index E (Romesburg, 2004).

By definition, a cluster analysis will continue to cluster observations until only one cluster – the entire sample – remains (Gore Jr., 2000). It is thus essential to determine at which stage of the process to examine results, and the number of clusters to examine (Gore Jr., 2000). Among the multiple external and internal techniques to achieve this, cubic clustering criterion has been favourably reviewed (Gore Jr., 2000) and is thus the means of determining the number of clusters in the current study. Once the number of clusters is determined, the clustering history and the dendogram are observed. The latter refers to a mathematical representation of the clustering procedure where fusions at each stage of the cluster analysis are depicted two-dimensionally (Everitt et al., 2011). With Ward's method, the dendogram is easy to interpret and is plotted according to the value for Index E (Romesburg, 2004).

Once the cluster analysis is conducted, the researcher is able to describe the number of cluster as well as the nature thereof. In the current study, this was an initial step which was followed by an examination of whether preference – examined in clusters – impacted upon employee perceptions of their company's CSR practices.

3.5.8) Two-independent sample t-tests. Within the current study, two t-tests were utilised in order to determine whether or not preference (examined in terms of two clusters) impacted upon employee perceptions of organisational CSR policies. The aim of two sample t-tests is to examine whether or not the means from two samples or groups are significantly different (Urdan, 2005). As with most statistical tests, t-tests begin with examining hypotheses where the null hypothesis states there is no significant difference in means between the two groups and the alternate hypothesis states there is some significant difference (Huck, 2009). As with all parametric statistics, t-tests have several assumptions which need to be met prior to running the analysis. The assumptions for t-tests include a normal distribution, homogeneity of variances, interval or ratio data and random independent

sampling (Hinton, 2004; Jackson, 2009). The homogeneity of variance assumption involves the notion that the two samples come from populations with homogeneous variances (Hinton, 2004). Once the assumptions are met, the analysis may be run and the results may be derived.

#### 3.6) Ethical Consideration

The questionnaire was anonymous which was accomplished by ensuring that no identifying information - such as name, identification number or staff number - was asked for. Moreover, the IP addresses of participants were deleted. This ensured that any information provided by employees would not negatively impact them in any way. Participation in the study was voluntary and participants could withdraw by choosing not to finish the questionnaire - it was clearly stated that completed questionnaires were considered consent. This ensured that any employee who felt uncomfortable answering job related questions was not be obliged to do so. No individual benefited or suffered due to participation or non-participation in the research. Anonymity was further achieved for the three organisations initially used as a sample since they will not be named in the final research. The names of the organisations were only seen by the researcher and the research supervisor, thus ensuring confidentiality.

Confidentiality was further be ensured in this research since the information gathered was only be seen by the researcher and the research supervisor. Analysis of the data occurred at group level thus ensuring that no individual employee was identified. Results will be given to the organisation in the form of a summary once the research is complete. Any organisation that grants access for this study, as well as the employees, will not be named in the study. Once the degree has been completed the raw data will be destroyed. The study will then be available in the University Library.

## **Chapter Four: Results**

This chapter of the research will discuss the results derived from the statistical analysis of the hypotheses in the study. As an initial step, simple statistics will be provided for all the scales and subscales utilised in the study. Thereafter, the normality of the data will be described in terms of skewness, kurtosis, histograms and Kolmogorov-Smirnov. Lastly, the research questions and hypotheses in the study will be examined through the use of multiple statistical

techniques. Prior to the discussion of the results, it is essential to outline the statistical abbreviations utilised in this chapter. Table 9 below states the variables and the statistical abbreviations thereof.

Table 9
Statistical Abbreviations

Variable	Abbreviation
Perceptions of External Social CSR	P_External
Perceptions of Environmental CSR	P_Environ
Perceptions of Gender Equality	P_Gender
Perceptions of Racial Redress	P_Race
Perceptions of Equality in terms of Disability	P_Disability
Perceptions of Equality in terms of to Sexual Orientation	P_SO
Organisational Commitment	Commitment
Intention to Stay	ITS
Preference for External Social CSR	Pref_Ext
Preference for Environmental CSR	Pref_Env
Preference for Gender Equality	Pref_Gend
Preference for Racial Redress	Pref_Race
Preference for Equal Rights for the Disabled	Pref_Disab
Preference for Equal Rights Regardless of Sexual Orientation	Pref_SO

It is important to note that all the results in this chapter examine internal social CSR in terms of its components namely the degree to which organisations address asymmetries based on gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. Thus, internal social CSR as an overarching variable is not discussed rather reference is made to the terms gender equality, racial redress, equality with regards to sexual orientation and equality in terms of disability.

#### **6.1) Simple Statistics**

Table 10 below demonstrates the descriptive statistics for all the variables in the study where the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values are provided as an initial description. Mean scores, as opposed to totals, were used for the variables throughout the analysis due to the increased accuracy thereof – thus, the values tabulated below demonstrate the mean score the sample selected on the likert-type scale for each scale and subscale. The scores for all the scales, except organisational commitment have a possible range of 1 to 5 while organisational commitment has a potential range of 1 to 7. Thus, for example the mean score across the sample for perceptions of external social CSR is 3.71 which suggest that the average score ranged between neutral (3) and agree (4) and was closer to the latter. The mean minimum value for perceptions of external social CSR was 1.55 which suggests that once the minimum values for each participant were summed and then averaged, the mean minimum value was 1.55. The maximum mean value was 5.00. The same logic may be applied when examining all the values for each of the scales.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for all the Variables in the Study

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	N
P_External	3.71	0.77	1.00	5.00	119
P_Environmental	3.43	0.70	1.00	5.00	119
P_Gender	3.89	0.70	1.00	5.00	119
P_Race	3.78	0.79	1.00	5.00	119
P_Disability	3.55	0.72	1.00	5.00	119
P_SO	3.67	0.66	1.00	5.00	119
ITS	3.59	1.02	1.00	5.00	119
Commitment	5.37	1.08	2.00	7.00	119
Pref_Ext	0.22	0.09	0.03	0.52	119

Pref_Env	0.21	0.11	0.03	0.53	119
Pref_Gend	0.15	0.06	0.04	0.40	119
Pref_Race	0.13	0.09	0.01	0.45	119
Pref_SO	0.13	0.07	0.02	0.49	119
Pref_Disab	0.16	0.07	0.01	0.52	119

In terms of the preference variables above, the sample demonstrated the highest ranking for external social CSR (0.22) and environmental CSR (0.21). This was followed by preference for equality in terms of disability (0.16) and gender (0.15) which was mildly preferred to racial redress (0.13) and equality in terms of sexual orientation (0.13).

#### **6.2**) Distribution Analysis: Normality

In order for data to be considered normally distributed, most of the scores will be clustered in the middle of the continuum, with a symmetrical decrease on either side of this cluster (Huck, 2009). The bell-shaped curve of a normal distribution is evident in the histograms for all the variables in the study, available in appendix D. As evidenced in these histograms, the majority of the scores occur in the centre of the continuum, suggesting that the data is normally distributed. Histograms alone are insufficient when determining the normality of data and it is thus necessary to examine alternative measures of distribution analysis such as skewness, kurtosis and Kolmogorov-Smirnov. Skewness is essential to examine since it determines whether the distribution is symmetrical or asymmetrical while kurtosis examines the nature of the distribution (Huck, 2009; Marx, 2004). Examining kurtosis is essential since while there may be a single mode and while the data may appear to lack skewness the data may still lack normality (Huck, 2009). Specifically, kurtosis examines whether or not there is "an unusually large number of scores at the centre of the distribution, thus causing the distribution to be overly peaked" as well as whether the tails of the distribution are thicker than the standard bell curve (Huck, 2009, p.29).

For a perfectly normal distribution, the values for skewness and kurtosis will equal zero where a skewness value below zero indicates negatively skewed data while a score above zero denotes positively skewed data (Huck, 2009; Marx, 2004). Since a perfectly normal

distribution of zero is difficult to achieve, it is generally considered that the guideline for normality is between +1.00 and -1.00 for both skewness and kurtosis (Huck, 2009). It is important to note, however, that such guidelines are not clear-cut when examining normality (Huck, 2009). Table 11 below provides the skewness and kurtosis scores for each variable in the study as well as the value for Kolmogorov-Smirnov. The results for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov are provided in terms of p-values where low p-values suggest the sample is not normally distributed (Ruppert, 2004).

Table 11

The Distribution of the Data

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov- Smirnov
P_External	-0.58	-0.06	<0.01
P_Environmental	-0.78	0.78	<0.01
P_Gender	-0.80	1.34	< 0.01
P_Race	-0.76	1.15	< 0.01
P_SO	-0.35	1.07	< 0.01
P_Disability	-0.25	0.29	0.02
Commitment	-0.70	-0.18	<0.01
ITS	-0.54	-0.30	<0.01

The results tabulated above are inconsistent. An examination of Kolmogorov-Smirnov suggests that none of the scales are normally distributed. However, the values for skewness demonstrate that all the scales and subscales are distributed normally, since all the scores lie between -1 and 1. An examination of the kurtosis scores suggest that the scales examining perceptions of gender equality (1.34), racial redress (1.15) and equality in terms of sexual orientation (1.07) are not normally distributed. Due to the inconsistent results, the histograms are provided in Appendix D. As evidenced by the histograms and the skewness scores, the data appears to be normally distributed. Further evidence to support this may be provided by

central limit theorem, which suggests that as a sample size increases the distribution approaches normality (Walker, 1999). It is suggested that a sample size greater than thirty participants is sufficient for normality to be assumed (Kachigan, 1986 as cited in Walker, 1999).

Upon the conclusion that the data in the current study is normally distributed, it is possible to answer the research questions under examination. Thus, the following section of the literature review will examine the results for the three main research questions under examination in this study.

# 6.3) Research Question One: Is there a relationship between employee perceptions of their organisations CSR practices and their organisational commitment and intention to stay?

In order to examine whether or not perceived adequacy of organisational CSR practices predicts organisational commitment and intention to stay, two multiple regression were initially conducted as will be described below.

**6.3.1) Multiple regression.** Two multiple regressions were conducted in order to predict the impact of employee perceptions of their organisations' CSR practices on organisational commitment and intention to stay. The first regression examined perceptions of external social CSR, environmental CSR, gender equality, racial redress, equal treatment with regards to sexual orientation and disability on organisational commitment. The second regression examined the same independent variables outlined above and their relationship with intention to stay. The following section of this chapter will discuss each regression separately. It is important to note that for each dependent variable, different outliers were present, as will be discussed below. It was necessary to remove the outliers for each dependent variable – from each multiple regression – thus the sample sizes in the two analyses were different. This will, however, be discussed in greater detail below.

# **6.3.1.1)** Employee perceptions of CSR practices and organisational commitment. Prior to a discussion of the results derived from the linear regression examining the relationship between perceptions of external social CSR, environmental CSR, gender equality, racial redress, equal treatment with regards to sexual orientation, equal treatment in terms of disability and organisational commitment the multiple regression assumptions need to be examined. It is essential to examine and understand the assumptions underlying any

analysis, since it facilitates an appreciation of the strengths and limitations of estimates and allows for improvements to be made (Berry, 1993). An examination of Cook's D – available in Appendix E – demonstrated that the data possessed outliers. In order to determine the impact of the outliers on the results, such values were removed. This was achieved through examining the horizontal line in Cook's D (0.04) and multiplying that by 3 thus yielding a threshold of 0.12. All the values for Cook's D that were greater than 0.12 were therefore considered outliers and removed from the data. Four participants possessed scores for Cook's D that exceeded the 0.12 threshold and were removed, thus rendering the sample size to 115. The regression analysis was rerun without the outliers in order to determine their impact. There were minor differences between the results that contained the outliers and those obtained with the removal thereof. However, theoretically, the results obtained without the outliers are more accurate. Thus, the remainder of the discussion pertaining to organisational commitment will be based on the results derived once the outliers were removed.

With regards to the interval scale of measure required for a multiple regression, a likert-type scale is considered interval in the social sciences (Allison, 1999). Employee perceptions of CSR practices and organisational commitment were all measured on a likert scale, thus the interval scale of measure assumption was met. The assumption of normality in terms of the error term is demonstrated in the histogram in appendix E. Appendix E further provides the studentised residual plot which is necessary when examining homogeneity of variances. For variances to be considered equal, the points on the studentised residual should be distributed relatively evenly around the horizontal line (Stevens, 2010). A further assumption, linearity denotes a straight line relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable – this may be demonstrated through Cook's D where the lack of outliers suggests linearity. Both the linearity and homogeneity assumptions were met, as demonstrated in appendix E. Thus, all the assumptions for the multiple regression were met. It is now possible to examine the significance of the regression model as a whole, as demonstrated in table 12 below.

Table 12

The Significance of the Model for Organisational Commitment

Source	DF	F-value	p-value
Model	6	11.59	<.0001*
Error	106		

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

The above table demonstrates that the model is significant ( $F_{6;106} = 11.59$ , p<.0001). These results suggest that at least one independent variable predicts organisational commitment. An examination of the results for each independent variable on commitment is necessary due to the significance of the model. The results thereof are described in Table 13 below.

Table 13

The Results for each Independent Variable on Organisational Commitment

Variable	DF	Parameter	t-value	p-value	Standardised
		Estimate			Estimate
P_External	1	0.24	1.45	0.15	0.17
P_Environmental	1	0.19	1.19	0.24	0.12
P_Gender	1	0.41	1.97	0.05	0.26
P_Race	1	0.14	0/91	0.37	0.09
P_SO	1	0.08	0.47	0.64	0.06
P_Disability	1	0.19	1.09	0.28	0.12

As tabulated above, none of the independent variables significantly predict organisational commitment, however perceptions of gender equality is on the cusp ( $t_1 = 1.97$ , p = 0.05). An examination of R-squared ( $r^2 = 0.3962$ ), however, suggests that 39.62% of the variance in organisational commitment is explained by all the independent variables together. Adjusted R-squared removes the bias associated with R-squared and is often considered more realistic (Huck, 2009). Here, adjusted  $r^2 = 0.3620$  which suggests that 36.20% of the variance in organisational commitment is accounted for by all the independent variables. Due to the insignificant results derived the standardised estimates and parameter estimates were not examined. Upon an examination of the collinearity diagnostics, available in section 1 of appendix J, the highest value for the condition index was 31 which suggests multicollienarity

was present. Following a discussion of the multiple regression which examines intention to stay, a correlation matrix will be discussed with particular reference to multicollienarity.

6.3.1.2) Employee perceptions of CSR practices and intention to stay. As an initial step in examining the impact of perceptions of CSR practices on intention to stay it is essential to determine whether or not there are outliers in the data since they may impact upon the validity of the results. Again, Cook's D was utilised in order to examine the presence of outliers. The horizontal line in Cook's D, available in Appendix E, was multiplied by 3 to yield a threshold of 0.12. Thus, any values for Cook's D above 0.12 were removed from the data set. Five individuals possessed scores for Cook's D which exceeded the 0.12 threshold and were removed, thus rendering the sample size to 114 participants. The multiple regression was rerun in order to ensure no further outliers remained. The horizontal line for this novel Cook's D had a value of 0.035 (Appendix E). When this is multiplied by 3, it yields a threshold value for Cook's D of 0.1125. Again, the data was examined where one individual possessed a score above the desired threshold. This participant was removed thus yielding a sample of 113 participants. Once again, a further multiple regression was run where Cook's D was examined for outliers (available in Appendix E). Here, the horizontal line had a value of 0.035 which, when multiplied by 3, yielded a threshold of 0.105. An examination of the values for Cook's D revealed that no participants had a value which exceeded the threshold, thus ensuring there were no further outliers in the sample.

Cook's D is further utilised to examine the assumption of linearity, where a lack of outliers suggests linearity is present in the sample. The assumption of normality of residuals was met as demonstrated by the histogram in appendix E. In order to determine whether or not homogeneity of variance has been met, the standardised residual plot is examined, where points should be scattered around the horizontal line (Stevens, 2010). As demonstrated in appendix E the points occur relatively close to the horizontal line and do not exceed -2 or 2, suggesting the variances are equal. Lastly, the desired interval scale of measure was met since both the independent and dependent variables in the study were examined on a likert-scale. Thus, all the assumptions for a multiple regression were met. The significance of the model for intention to stay may now be examined. The results thereof are demonstrated in table 14 below which suggest that the model was significant ( $F_{6;106} = 12.06$ , p<.0001).

Table 14

The Significance of the Model for Intention to Stay

Source	DF	F-value	p-value
Model	6	12.06	<.0001*
Error	106		

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

The results tabulated above suggest that at least one of the independent variables predicts intention to stay. In order to examine which of the independent variables do so, an examination of the relationship between each independent variable and intention to stay is necessary. The results are in Table 15 below.

Table 15

The Results for Each Independent Variable on Intention to Stay

Variable	DF	Parameter	t-value	p-value	Standardised
		Estimate			Estimate
P_External	1	0.13	0.84	0.40	0.10
P_Environmental	1	0.21	1.41	0.16	0.15
P_Gender	1	0.61	3.22	0.0017*	0.43
P_Race	1	0.13	0.91	0.37	0.09
P_SO	1	0.11	0.73	0.47	0.09
<b>P_Disability</b>	1	-0.14	-0.83	0.41	-0.09

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

As tabulated above, perceptions of gender equality significantly predicts intention to stay ( $t_1$  = 3.22, p = 0.0017). An examination of the standardised estimate suggests that perceptions of gender equality moderately predict intention to stay (0.43). Moreover, the parameter estimate is positive (0.61) which suggests that high values for perceptions of gender equality are associated with high values for intention to stay. An examination of R-squared reveals that 40.58% of the variance in intention to stay is explained by all the independent variables. Adjusted R-squared is believed to be more realistic since it removes the bias associated with  $R^2$  (Huck, 2009) - here, it is suggested that 37.21% of the variance in intention to stay is explained by all the independent variables. An examination of the condition index, available in section 2 of appendix J, reveals that multicollinearity is present since the highest value for the condition index is 31.71. Multicollinearity suggests the independent variables are highly

correlated and thus do not predict anything unique about the dependent variable (Howell, 2008). In order to examine the multicollinearity that was present for both organisational commitment and intention to stay, a correlation was run between all the variables.

**6.3.2)** Correlation. A correlation was utilised in order to examine the relationship between all of the variables. Table 16 below provides Pearson's correlation coefficient followed by the p-value at 5% level of significance. Due to the space limitations in the correlation matrix below a further shortened version of the variable names was utilised.

Table 16

Correlation Matrix for Employee Perceptions of CSR Practices, Organisational Commitment and Intention to Stay

	P_Ext	P_Env	P_Gen	P_Race	P_SO	<b>P_Dis</b>	Com	ITS
P_Ext	1.00	0.67	0.49	0.55	0.28	0.50	0.49	0.42
		<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	0.0018*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*
P_Env	0.67	1.00	0.37	0.38	0.28	0.34	0.45	0.41
	<.0001*		<.0001*	<.0001*	0.0021*	0.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*
P_Gen	0.49	0.37	1.00	0.75	0.67	0.57	0.49	0.51
	<.0001*	<.0001*		<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*
P_Race	0.55	0.38	0.75	1.00	0.53	0.51	0.43	0.40
	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*		<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*
P_SO	0.28	0.28	0.67	0.53	1.00	0.54	0.40	0.36
	0.0018*	0.0021*	<.0001*	<.0001*		<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*
P_Dis	0.50	0.34	0.57	0.51	0.54	1.00	0.42	0.40
	<.0001*	0.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*		<.0001*	<.0001*
Com	0.49	0.45	0.49	0.43	0.40	0.42	1.00	0.80
	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*		<.0001*
ITS	0.42	0.41	0.51	0.40	0.36	0.40	0.80	1.00
	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	<.0001*	

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

As demonstrated in the correlation matrix above, the relationship between all the variables is significant at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . Moreover, each of the variables has a positive value for the Pearson's correlation coefficient. With regards to the relationship between the independent and

dependent variables in the study results demonstrated significant relationships for all the variables. Perceptions of gender equality had the highest Pearson's correlation coefficient and therefore demonstrated a strong positive correlation with intention to stay (r = 0.51, p<.0001). All the other independent variables had positive moderate relationships with intention to stay: perceptions of external social CSR (r = 0.42, p<.0001), perceptions of environmental CSR (r= 0.41, p<.0001), perceptions of racial redress (r = 0.40, p<.0001), perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation (r = 0.36, p<.0001) and perceptions of equal treatment with regards to disability (r = 0.40, p<.0001). In terms of organisational commitment, perceptions of external social CSR and perceptions of gender equality had the highest Pearson's correlation coefficient (r = 0.49, p<.0001 for both variables). This moderate positive relationship was further demonstrated in perceptions of environmental CSR (r = 0.45, p<.0001), perceptions of racial redress (r = 0.43, p<.0001), perceptions of equal treatment regardless of sexual orientation (r = 0.40, p<.0001) and perceptions of equality in terms of disability (r = 0.42, p<.0001). This demonstrates that all the independent variables are significantly related to commitment and intention to stay. Due to this, and the multicollinearity evident in the multiple regressions above, it is necessary to examine the relationship between all the independent variables.

When examining the relationship between each of the independent variables it is evident that multicollinearity is present, since all of the variables are correlated positively and significantly. Most of the correlations are strong, while two are weak and four are moderate. The weak correlations are evident between perceptions of equality with regards to sexual orientation and perceptions of external social CSR (r = 0.28; p = 0.0018) and environmental CSR (r = 0.28; p = 0.0021). Moderate correlations were evident in terms of perceptions of environmental CSR and perceptions of gender equality (r = 0.37; p < .0001), racial redress (r = 0.38; p < .0001) and perceptions of equality with regards to disability (r = 0.34; p < .0001). Moreover, perceptions of gender equality was moderately correlated to perceptions of external social CSR (r = 0.49; p < .0001). The remaining correlations between the independent variables are all strong and positive as will be outlined below.

Perceptions of gender equality and racial redress have the highest Pearson's correlation coefficient (r = 0.75; p<.0001) which suggests that high values for perceptions of gender equality are associated with high values for perceptions of racial redress. Moreover, perceptions of gender equality has strong correlations with perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation (r = 0.67; p<0.0001) and disability (r = 0.57; p<.0001). Perceptions of

racial redress has a strong correlation with perceptions of external social CSR (r=0.55, p<.0001) and equality in terms of sexual orientation (r = 0.53, p<.0001). A strong Pearson's correlation coefficient is further evident between perceptions of equality in terms of disability and perceptions of external social CSR (r = 0.50, p<.0001). The strong significant correlations between each of the independent variables outlined above suggests that the variables possess a high degree of similarity and indicate the presence of multicollienarity. In order to determine whether the six independent variables are distinct constructs or collapse into fewer succinct categories, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted.

**6.3.3) Exploratory factor analysis.** As described above, the exploratory factor analysis was utilised in order to further examine the nature of the independent variables in the current study. Factor analysis is useful in this case since it determines the degree to which related variables may be grouped and combined and thus treated as a single variable (Cramer, 2003). The significant correlations between each of the independent variables suggest that there is a degree of similarity between them. It is important to note that two exploratory factor analyses were conducted: one for the independent variables and organisational commitment and the second for the independent variables and intention to stay. This was necessary since the multiple regressions for each – described above – revealed that each dependent variable possessed different outliers. Thus, once the outliers for each were removed, the participants in each regression were slightly different. In order to ensure that the outliers did not significantly impact the results derived from the exploratory factor analysis, the data without outliers was utilised. Since the data for each is different, two exploratory factor analyses will be examined. It is important to note that the exploratory factor analysis was not done on the items of the questionnaires but on the mean scores of the respondents to each scale. Thus, any groupings within the factor analysis do not represent similarly worded items and constructs but rather reflect the manner in which the perceptions of employees in the sample are grouped.

6.3.3.1) Employee perceptions of CSR and organisational commitment. The participants in this exploratory factor analysis are those whose scores were not considered outliers in the multiple regression which examined the six independent variables and organisational commitment. An examination of the Eigenvalues, cumulative proportion and Scree plot, available in appendix F, suggest that two factors exist, as opposed to the six originally outlined and utilised above. The rotated factor pattern in table 17 below demonstrates that perceptions of external social CSR and environmental CSR load highly and

positively on factor 2 (0.87 and 0.86 respectively). Alternatively, perceptions of gender equality (0.86), racial redress (0.74), equality in terms of sexual orientation (0.86) and equal treatment regardless of disability (0.61) load highly and positively on factor 1. Disability loads highly – above 0.40 – on both factor 1 and 2, however it loads significantly higher on the first factor (0.61) than on the second (0.48) and was thus included in the former.

Table 17

Rotated Factor Pattern for the Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2
P_External	0.28	0.87
P_Environmental	0.18	0.86
P_Gender	0.86	0.27
P_Race	0.74	0.38
P_SO	0.86	0.08
P_Disability	0.61	0.48

This suggests that the six independent variables may be classified as falling into two categories: CSR within the organisation and CSR outside the organisation. Factor 1 may be said to represent the former, since it constitutes the sub components of internal social CSR outlined in the literature review. Thus, factor 1 constitutes perceptions of CSR which impact upon employees within the workplace. Factor 2 represents all CSR activities which occur outside the organisation and thus encompasses the variables external social CSR and environmental CSR.

6.3.3.2) Employee perceptions of CSR and intention to stay. The data utilised in this exploratory factor analysis excludes the outliers that were observed in the multiple regression which examined the independent variables against intention to stay. This data was different to the one used in the previous exploratory factor analysis, since different participants were outliers for each of the multiple regressions discussed above. The data without the outliers was selected since the presence of outliers may skew results.

An examination of the Eigenvalues, cumulative proportion and the Scree plot, available in appendix F, suggest that there are two factors present. As demonstrated in table 18 below, perceptions of gender equality (0.86), racial redress (0.74), equality in terms of sexual

orientation (0.88) and equality with regards to disability (0.72) load highly and positively on the first factor. Alternatively, perceptions of external social CSR (0.88) and perceptions of environmental CSR (0.89) load highly and positively on the second factor. Perceptions of racial redress loads on both factors 1 (0.74) and 2 (0.40) however, the loading on the first factor is significantly higher than that of the second. Thus, perceptions of racial equality was considered to fall under factor 1.

Table 18

Rotated Factor Pattern for the Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2
P_External	0.27	0.88
P_Environmental	0.17	0.89
P_Gender	0.86	0.27
P_Race	0.74	0.40
P_SO	0.88	0.03
P_Disability	0.72	0.29

As with the previous exploratory factor analysis, the six independent variables appear to be broadly categorised as CSR practices which occur within the organisation – factor 1 – and those that occur outside the organisation, represented by factor 2.

In both cases perceptions of internal social CSR (equality with regards to gender, race, sexual orientation and disability) is categorised as one variable while activities which occur outside the organisation, perceptions of external social CSR and environmental CSR, are categorised as a single variable. Thus, the six independent variables in the study are collapsed into two broad variables: perceptions of internal CSR and perceptions of external CSR. The remaining results for the first research question will examine the two broad variables as opposed to the six original ones.

Now that the six independent variables have been collapsed into two broader variables, it may be suggested that the high degree of multicolliearity, which was present in the original multiple regressions, is eliminated. It is essential to re-run the two multiple regressions with the two novel independent variables in order to determine whether either impact upon organisational commitment and intention to stay. The following results will be more accurate

since the high degree of multicollinearity will be absent, as will the outliers which were removed in the first analyses. Table 19 below demonstrates the statistical shorthand which will be utilised for perceptions of internal and external CSR.

Table 19
Statistical Abbreviations for the New Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Statistical Shorthand
Perceptions of Internal CSR	P_Int_CSR
Perceptions of External CSR	P_Ext_CSR

**6.3.4) Multiple regression: perceptions of internal and external CSR and organisational commitment.** The data utilised does not possess the outliers removed in the first multiple regression for organisational commitment discussed above. In order to ensure that; upon the collapse of the six independent variables into two broader ones; no outliers emerged, Cook's D was again examined. The threshold was determined whereby the horizontal line provided (0.035) was multiplied by 3. As evident in Appendix G the 0.105 threshold was not exceeded, suggesting that there are no outliers in the data. The lack of outliers suggests the linearity assumption was met. The assumption of normality was met, as determined through the histogram in Appendix G. Moreover, Appendix G demonstrates the studentised residuals which suggest that homogeneity of variances was achieved. The appropriate assumptions have therefore been met thus allowing for the examination of the significance of the model. Results in table 20 below demonstrate that the model is significant  $(F_{2;110} = 35.07, p<.0001)$ .

Table 20

The Significance of the Model for Organisational Commitment

Source	DF	F-value	p-value
Model	2	35.07	<.0001*
Error	110		

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

The significance of the above model suggests that at least one independent variable predicts organisational commitment. As depicted in table 21 below both perceptions of external CSR

 $(t_1 = 2.64, p = 0.0095)$  and perceptions of internal CSR  $(t_1 = 4.92, p < .0001)$  significantly predict organisational commitment.

Table 21

The Significance of Internal and External CSR on Organisational Commitment

Variable	DF	Parameter	t-value	P-value	Standardised
		Estimate			Estimate
P_Ext_CSR	1	0.41	2.64	0.0095*	0.24
P_Int_CSR	1	0.85	4.92	<.0001*	0.45

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

An examination of the standardised estimate suggests that perceptions of external CSR (0.24) weakly predicts organisational commitment while perceptions of internal CSR (0.45) moderately predicts organisational commitment. The parameter estimate for both variables is positive, which suggests that high values for perceptions of CSR – particularly perceptions of internal CSR – are associated with high values for organisational commitment. An examination of R-squared suggests that both perceptions of internal and external CSR account for 38.94% of the variance in organisational commitment ( $R^2 = 0.3894$ ). The adjusted R-squared, which is considered more realistic since it removes the bias associated with R-squared (Huck, 2009), suggests that perceptions of internal and external CSR explain 37.83% of the variance in organisational commitment (Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.3783$ ). The collinearity diagnostics, available in section 3 of appendix J, suggest that multicollinearity is not present, as evidenced by the condition index whereby the highest value was 16.93.

**6.3.5)** Multiple regression: perceptions of internal and external CSR and intention to stay. The data utilised for the current multiple regression does not have the outliers removed from the previous multiple regression which examined CSR perceptions and intention to stay. To ensure that no further outliers exist, Cook's D was examined (available in appendix G). The threshold value for Cook's D was 0.1125 where an examination of each individuals Cook's D score revealed that no participant exceeded the threshold. Thus, the data utilised possessed no outliers. Due to the lack of outliers, it may suggest that the data contains linearity. The histogram in appendix G demonstrates that the residuals are normally distributed. Moreover, an examination of the studentised residuals in appendix G suggests that the homogeneity of variance assumption is met. Since all the assumptions for the linear

regression were met, the significance of the model may be examined. As demonstrated in table 22 below, the model is significant ( $F_{2;110} = 32.34$ , p<.0001).

Table 22

The Significance of the Model for the Intention to Stay

Source	DF	F-value	p-value
Model	2	32.34	<.0001*
Error	110		

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

The significance of the model suggests that at least one independent variable predicts intention to stay. As demonstrated in table 23 below both perceptions of internal and external CSR significantly predict intention to stay ( $t_1 = 0.13$ , p = 0.0032;  $t_1 = 0.15$ , p < .0001 respectively). An examination of the sign of the parameter estimate suggests that high levels of perceptions of both internal and external CSR are associated with an increased intention to stay. This effect, however, is weak for perceptions of external CSR (0.27) and moderate for perceptions of internal CSR (0.43) as demonstrated by the standardised estimates.

Table 23

The Significance of Internal and External CSR on Intention to Stay

Variable	DF	Parameter	t-value	P-value	Standardised
		Estimate			<b>Estimate</b>
P_Ext_CSR	1	0.40	0.13	0.0032*	0.27
P_Int_CSR	1	0.72	0.15	<.0001*	0.43

<sup>\*</sup> p < 0.05

An examination of R-squared suggests that both perceptions of internal and external CSR explain 37.03% of the variance in intention to stay ( $R^2 = 0.3703$ ) An examination of adjusted R-squared, considered to be less biased than R-squared (Huck, 2009), suggests that both the independent variables explain 35.89% of the variance in intention to stay (Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.3589$ ). Multicollinearity was not present, as evident is section 4 of appendix J, since the highest condition index was 15.96, which suggests the independent variables are not highly correlated. In conclusion, both perceptions of internal and external CSR predict intention to stay however the former does so to a greater extent than the latter.

## 6.4) Research Question Two: Do individuals have a preference for certain types of CSR practices?

In order to examine whether or not individuals have a preference for certain interventions the importance variables were examined. Initially, analytic hierarchy process was utilised in order to rank the CSR preference for each individual in the sample. Thereafter, Ward's cluster analysis was utilised in order to determine whether there were groupings of individuals with the same ranking. Although the six independent variables were grouped into two overarching variables above, for both the analytic hierarchy process and Ward's cluster analysis, the six preference variables were examined. Thus, the preference variables were not truncated into external CSR preference and internal CSR preference as was done with the independent variables. The preference variables remained separate since it allows for a more rigorous examination of employee preference. Specifically it allows for an examination of the preference amongst the variables that would not occur if they were grouped together. For example, if internal CSR preference was examined then employee preference for each aspect thereof – namely perceptions of equality with regards to gender, race, sexual orientation and disability – could not be determined. Thus, an examination of the six preference variables was utilised since it more robustly described the sample's preference.

It is important to note that when examining the first research question above, two sets of data were utilised since there were different outliers removed in each: one for commitment and one for intention to stay. The following discussion does not pertain to organisational commitment and intention to stay and thus the original data with the 119 participants was utilised in the analytic hierarchy process and Ward's cluster analysis. A discussion thereof follows below.

6.4.1) Analytic hierarchy process (AHP). As described in the previous chapter of the literature review, AHP was utilised in order to determine the rank order for employee preference for external social CSR, environmental CSR, gender equality, racial redress and equality with regards to sexual orientation and disability. This was achieved through the development of matrices for each individual in the sample based on their responses to the dichotomous comparisons in the preference questionnaire. Thereafter, the priority vector was calculated which demonstrated the importance of certain CSR practices over others. The priority vector for each participant in the current study is demonstrated in Appendix H. Lastly, consistency was calculated in order to determine whether or not the participants'

responses to the dichotomous comparisons were consistent. Results demonstrate that merely 57 participants responded consistently – due to the small number of individuals with consistent rating, inconsistent participants could not be eliminated since it would render the sample too small. The following chapter of the research will outline the possible reasons for the high percentage of inconsistent ratings.

**6.4.2)** Cluster Analysis. Ward's minimum variance method was utilised in order to determine whether or not the rank for preference derived from the analytic hierarchy process could be grouped. The clusters derived from cluster analysis ensure that there is a small variation within a cluster but a large difference between clusters (Kachigan, 1991). Thus, cluster analysis ensures that individuals with similar rankings were grouped into the same cluster. The formation of clusters in the current cluster analysis occurred based on the rank order of preference for external social CSR, environmental CSR, gender equality, racial redress, equal treatment regardless of sexual orientation and equality in terms of disability. Results from the cluster analysis demonstrate that there are two distinct clusters in the current sample. The clustering history, cubic clustering criterion and a description of the two clusters is provided below.

6.4.2.1) Clustering history and cubic clustering criterion. As an initial step in understanding the process involved in cluster analysis, it is necessary to demonstrate the manner in which a clustering history is determined. A full account of the clustering history for the entire sample will not be provided as the process is repetitive and extensive. An example, however, will be presented in order to demonstrate the manner in which the clustering history may be determined. The example will describe the process which occurs in table 24 below where the written explanation and table should be considered in conjunction. Cluster 57 and observation 67 combine to form cluster 30 (n = 4). Thereafter, cluster 30 and cluster 32 join and form cluster 16, which has 7 individuals. Subsequently, clusters 16 and 4 joined and formed cluster 3 which comprised of 76 individuals. Cluster 3 then combined with cluster 9 to form cluster 2 (n = 101). Lastly, clusters 2 and 7 combine to form cluster 1, which represents the entire sample of 119 participants. This process may be repeated to determine the clustering history for any cluster in the sample.

Table 24

Clustering History

Cluster	Clusters	Joined	Frequency
30	OB67	CL57	4
29	CL43	CL47	10
28	CL54	CL40	5
27	CL50	CL45	9
26	CL60	CL37	11
25	CL48	OB99	5
24	CL58	CL35	11
23	CL41	CL33	11
22	CL25	OB95	6
21	CL31	CL115	9
20	CL23	CL69	15
19	CL52	CL29	24
18	CL34	OB17	3
17	CL20	CL38	19
16	CL30	CL32	7
15	CL19	CL46	27
14	CL28	CL22	11
13	CL17	CL53	22
12	CL24	CL26	22
11	CL14	OB92	12
10	CL15	CL12	49
9	CL13	CL39	25
8	CL18	CL42	5
7	CL27	CL21	18
6	CL10	CL11	61
5	CL6	CL36	64
4	CL5	CL8	69
3	CL4	CL16	76
2	CL3	CL9	101
1	CL2	CL7	119

While the clustering history is necessary to determine the composition of clusters within a sample, it is essential to determine the number of clusters to utilise in a study as an initial step. There are a multitude of techniques which may be utilised when determining the number of clusters which occur in a given sample. The Cubic Clustering Criterion (CCC) was utilised in the current study where a visual representation of the approximate number of clusters is provided. The approximate number of clusters may be determined by examining the lowest point on the CCC graph, provided in figure 6 below. As demonstrated below, there appears to be two clusters for the sample in this study.

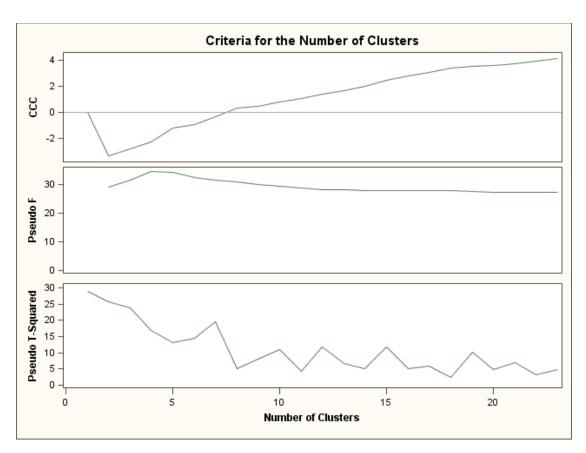


Figure 6. The CCC graph utilised to determine the number of clusters.

The two clusters in the current sample are clusters 2 (n = 101) and 7 (n = 18). This is determined by observing the clustering history in table 26 above and may further be demonstrated in the dendogram in figure 7 below. The clustering history reveals that the sample (cluster 1) is separated into clusters 2 and 7.

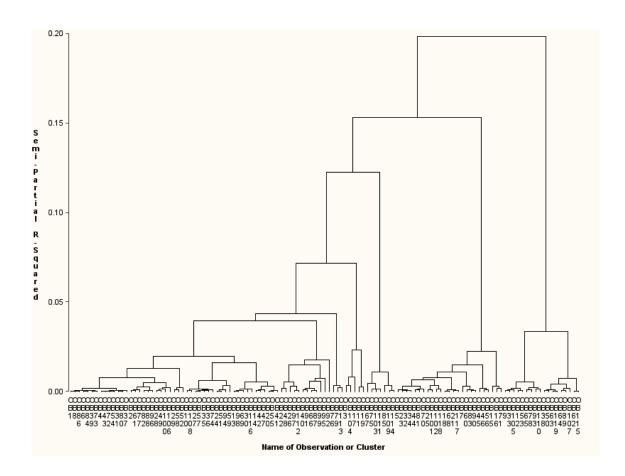


Figure 7. The dendogram derived from the cluster analysis.

The two clusters in the current sample are clusters 2 and 7 where the clustering history for each is provided below.

• Cluster 7 = Cl 50 + Cl 45 + Cl 31 + Cl 115

The clustering history provided above demonstrates what clusters and observations constitute each of the two main clusters in the study. As depicted in figure 8 below cluster 2 has the highest preference for external social CSR, followed by environmental CSR, equality with regards to disability, gender equality and racial redress. The least preferred CSR practice in this cluster is equality with regards to sexual orientation. Cluster 7 has a preference for external social CSR which is only marginally preferred to environmental CSR. Thereafter, equality with regard to sexual orientation is preferred followed by equality in terms of disability and gender. The least preferred CSR practice is racial redress. Examining the graph overall it is evident that both clusters possess the same overall priority vector score for

equality in terms of disability and similar scores pertaining to racial redress. Across both clusters external social CSR is the most preferred CSR practice followed by environmental CSR. If this is considered in terms of the grouping of the independent variables in the discussion of the first research question, it may be suggested that, overall, the sample had a preference for external CSR as opposed to internal CSR. Within the classification of internal CSR, cluster 2 considered equality in terms of disability of primary importance while cluster 7 displayed a preference for equality in terms of sexual orientation.

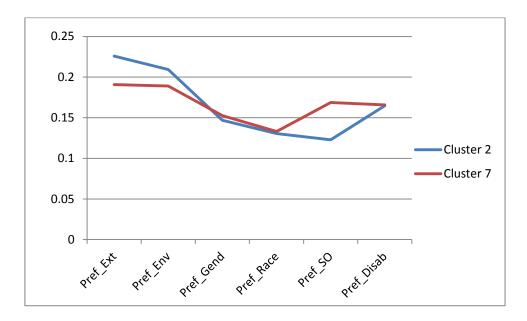


Figure 8. A graphical representation of CSR preference for clusters 2 and 7.

Thus, the analytic hierarchy process and the hierarchical cluster analysis demonstrated that individuals do have a preference for certain CSR practices, and that preference may be clustered into two groups. Each cluster represents a group of individuals with a similar preference. The following section of this chapter will examine whether or not preference, as represented by the two clusters, impacts upon employee perceptions of their organisations CSR practices.

## 6.5) Research Question Three: Is an individual's preference related to employees' perceived adequacy of their organisations CSR practices?

It is hypothesised that preference will impact upon an employee's perceived adequacy of their organisations CSR practices. Specifically, it is suggested that if an individual has a high preference for certain CSR practices, they are likely to have strict standards to measure their organisations adequacy with regards to that particular intervention. For example, if an

individual considers environmental CSR to be particularly important, they will have specific standards upon which organisational CSR practices may be measured. This contrasts to an individual who does not have a preference for environmental CSR since in this case, any environmental interventions may be considered adequate. Thus, an individual's preference should result in a more stringent and sensitive evaluation of their organisations CSR practices, particularly with regard to what is considered important. In order to examine the relationship between preference and employee perceptions of their organisations CSR practices, two-independent sample t-tests were conducted. Two t-tests were run, where the independent variable for each was preference (cluster) and the dependent variables were employee perceptions of external CSR and internal CSR. The two truncated versions of perceptions of CSR were utilised since the results of the t-tests relate to the results derived from the multiple regressions above.

In order to ensure two-independent sample t-tests were the appropriate statistical technique, the assumptions were examined. The assumptions for t-tests include: an interval dependent variable which is normally distributed, homogeneity of variances and random independent sampling. While random independent sampling is never truly achieved in research, it is often assumed to be met, as is the case with this research. The dependent variables for the t-tests are employee perceptions of external CSR and internal CSR and both are normally distributed, as evidenced in appendix I. Moreover, each of the aforementioned dependent variables are measured on a 5 point likert-type scale, which is considered interval in behavioural research. Homogeneity of variances refers to the assumption that the variances are equal throughout the data (Field & Miles, 2010). As depicted in Table 25 below, homogeneity of variance is present for both dependent variables: perceptions of external CSR ( $F_{17;100} = 1.08$ ; p = 0.91) and perceptions of internal CSR ( $F_{17;100} = 1.34$ ; p = 0.36). Thus, each of the assumptions for the t-tests were met.

Table 25

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance

Dependent Variable	DF	F value	P value
P_Ext_CSR	17; 100	1.08	0.91
P_Int_CSR	17; 100	1.34	0.36

As demonstrated in Table 26 below, preference does not impact upon perceived adequacy of organisational CSR practices at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . This is demonstrated by the insignificant results for preference on external CSR ( $t_{117} = 0.10$ ; p = 0.92) and internal CSR ( $t_{117} = 0.25$ ; p = 0.80). Due to the insignificant results derived from the t-tests the difference between the means in the clusters do not need to be examined.

Table 26

Results derived from the t-tests

Dependent Variable	DF	t-value	p-value
P_Ext_CSR	117	0.10	0.92
P_Int_CSR	117	0.25	0.80

The results derived from the t-tests therefore demonstrate that individual preference for certain CSR practices is not related to the perceived adequacy of organisational CSR initiatives. Thus, the significant relationship derived when examining research question one is not affected by preference. Overall the results suggest that perceptions of external CSR and internal CSR predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. However, perceptions of external and internal CSR practices are not impacted upon by employee preference. The following chapter of this research will discuss all the results and the implications thereof.

### **Chapter Five: Discussion**

This chapter of the research will discuss the results ascertained in the previous chapter. The discussion will be conducted in accordance with the three main research questions under examination in the current study. Information from the literature review as well as alternative theory and research will be utilised in the discussion of the results.

# 5.1) Research Question One: Is there a Relationship between Employee Perceptions of their Organisations CSR Practices and their Organisational Commitment and Intention to Stay?

The initial multiple regressions conducted with the original six independent variables on organisational commitment and intention to stay demonstrated that multicollinearity was present. This suggested that employee perceptions of environmental CSR, external social CSR, racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability were correlated with one another. This was confirmed through the correlation which suggested that many of the independent variables had strong positive relationships. Thus, the independent variables were not predicting anything unique about organisational commitment and intention to stay since they were so highly correlated.

The correlation demonstrated that perceptions of gender equality had strong correlations with all of the asymmetries under examination in the study. Of the correlations, the relationship with racial redress was the strongest (0.75). This was the highest correlation between the independent variables and suggests that the perceptions of racial redress are strongly associated with perceptions of gender equality. Thus, if the participant perceived racial redress to be adequately dealt with, they perceived gender equality to be sufficiently addressed. Due to the largely female sample, it is not surprising that perceptions of gender equality had strong positive correlations with each of the other asymmetries.

An exploratory factor analysis was then conducted, in order to determine whether the CSR constructs had similar groupings. It is important to note that the exploratory factor analysis was not done on the items of the questionnaires but on the mean scores of each scale. Thus, any groupings within the factor analysis do not represent similarly worded items and constructs but rather reflect the manner in which the perceptions of employees in the sample are grouped.

Results from the exploratory factor analysis demonstrated that employee perceptions of CSR occur roughly in terms of two broad dimensions: perceptions of CSR within and outside the workplace. These two constructs were termed internal and external CSR respectively. With regards to internal CSR, employees' do not examine the adequacy of CSR policies aimed at racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability individually. Rather, a holistic perception of the adequacy of organisations equality practices are taken into account. In chapter 2 of this research, the explanation for examining internal social CSR in terms of the sub constructs; namely asymmetries in terms of race, gender, sexual orientation and disability; was the notion that certain individuals would place particular internal CSR practices ahead of others. It was suggested that the internal social CSR sub constructs would not be perceived in the same manner since they are different and may be implemented differently at work. This reasoning, however, was proved incorrect since the exploratory factor analysis demonstrated that perceptions of the social asymmetries are sufficiently similar to fall under a single construct: internal CSR. Therefore, this provides evidence to suggest that in terms of the policies aimed at addressing racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability, employees perceive them as an overall construct rather than independently. It may further suggest that if employees perceptions are an accurate reflection of the organisations CSR practices then organisations that adequately deal with one of the social asymmetries are likely to have sound equality policies related to all of them.

Similarly, the exploratory factor analysis revealed that CSR practices which do not relate directly to employees but are focused on factors outside the organisation were sufficiently similar so as to be viewed as a single construct: external CSR. Thus, CSR initiatives aimed at the environment and communities and individuals in need, were perceived as the same CSR practice. As opposed to examining these arguably separable aspects of CSR independently, an overall holistic perception of CSR external to the organisation was examined. This suggests that the perceptions of the sample in the current study are the same for any organisational action which does not impact them at work. This is surprising since in much of the literature pertaining to CSR, environmental and external social CSR are viewed as two distinct constructs which suggests that employees would have distinct perceptions regarding them. Thus, while environmental and external social CSR are two independent constructs theoretically, practically the perceptions held by employees with regards to the constructs are extremely similar.

The aforementioned results demonstrate that employee perceptions of CSR occur in terms of practices which impact upon them in the workplace (internal CSR) and those that do not (external CSR). Further regressions were run with these two new independent variables on organisational commitment and intention to stay. The results demonstrate that both perceptions of internal and external CSR significantly predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. The fact that perceptions of both CSR practices predict organisational commitment and intention to stay is similar to findings from other studies and is consistent with much of the theory pertaining to the topic. Specifically, Moir (2001) stated that CSR increases loyalty and intention to stay. This was found to be particularly true when the outcomes of CSR were deemed ethical (Collier & Esteban, 2007). Moreover, Knox and Maklan (2006) revealed that CSR initiatives decrease employee turnover and thus increases intention to stay. The benefits of CSR and the resultant impact upon organisational commitment were evident in a study by Peterson (2004) who revealed that CSR and commitment are related and that this relationship was stronger for employees who deemed CSR to be important. Similarly, a study conducted by Ali et al. (2010) demonstrated that employee perceptions of CSR impacted upon their organisational commitment.

The positive relationship between CSR and organisational commitment was further established in a study by Brammer et al. (2007). One of Brammer et al.'s conceptualisations of CSR focused on philanthropic activities, which is an aspect of external CSR in the current study. Environmental CSR, the other aspect of external CSR, has also been highlighted as impacting upon organisational outcomes. The fact that external CSR significantly predicts intention to stay partially mirrors Senge and his co-authors (2010) claims in *The Necessary Revolution* where it is suggested that employee retention is, in part, contingent upon environmental initiatives. Research evidence further exists in terms of the relationship between internal CSR and positive organisational outcomes such as commitment and intention to stay. Specifically, Stewart et al. (2011) demonstrated that employee perceptions of the diversity in the organisation in terms of equality, similar to the equality practices which constitute internal CSR in the current study, impact upon job attitudes and behaviour, particularly intention to stay. The results in the current study therefore coincide with the aforementioned research pertaining to CSR, organisational commitment and intention to stay.

The results for organisational commitment and intention to stay were extremely similar. With regards to the former, perceptions of external CSR had small predictive qualities (0.24) as did external CSR on intention to stay (0.27). Internal CSR moderately predicted organisational

commitment (0.45) and intention to stay (0.43). The similarity between the results for the two dependent variables suggests that they are closely related. This was corroborated in chapter 2 of the research where it was stated that the definition of commitment utilised in the current study entails that "committed employees are less likely to leave" (Mowday et al., 1979, p237). Scholl (1981) and Mowday et al. (1979) demonstrated an inverse relationship between organisational commitment and turnover. It may be argued that turnover is the opposite of intention to stay – thus high levels of commitment were associated with low intention to turnover and consequently high intention to stay. This relationship between organisational commitment and intention to stay was demonstrated in the correlation run in the current research where a significant, strong positive relationship was present (0.80).

As outlined above, in terms of both organisational commitment and intention to stay perceptions of internal CSR (0.45 and 0.43 respectively) were more predictive than perceptions of external CSR (0.24 and 0.27 respectively). This, alongside with the positive nature of the prediction, suggests that if employees' perceive that their company adequately addresses the CSR practices which may impact upon them in the workplace (internal CSR), positive organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment and intention to stay follow. Thus, the perceptions of CSR practices which impact employees at work, namely internal CSR, are more predictive of positive outcomes such as organisational commitment and intention to stay.

Interestingly, for both organisational commitment and intention to stay, perceptions of internal CSR only predicted a moderate proportion of the dependent variables while perceptions of external CSR had low predictive qualities. This suggests that while perceptions of internal CSR is more predictive that perceptions of external CSR, other factors may be at play which impact upon organisational commitment and intention to stay in a more significant manner. An examination of the organisational commitment and intention to stay literature may suggest which factors are more poignant predictors than CSR perceptions.

In terms of the literature pertaining to organisational commitment, O'Drisscoll and Randall (1999) suggest that perceived organisational support and rewards significantly predict commitment toward the organisation. Further organisational factors which may contribute a great deal to organisational commitment and intention to stay have been discovered in the human resource arena. A study conducted by Chew and Chan (2008) demonstrated that person-organisation congruence, remuneration, recognition and the opportunity for

challenging work tasks positively affected organisational commitment. Moreover, personorganisation congruence, remuneration, recognition and training were significantly related to intention to stay (Chew & Chan, 2008). Further research demonstrated that innovative and supportive organisational cultures have been found to have positive effects on organisational commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2003). The aforementioned studies demonstrate viable options of organisational factors which explain commitment and intention to stay, other than perceptions of CSR. It was essential to examine alternative antecedents of organisational commitment and intention to stay since the results from the current study suggest that perceptions of CSR are merely weak and moderate predictors of the dependent variables.

Overall, an important finding in the current study is that it demonstrates the importance of perceptions in shaping outcomes, as opposed to the actual practices themselves. As stated in chapter 2, the literature pertaining to the perceptions employees hold is sparse. In an attempt to fill the gap in the research, this study did not examine the actual CSR practices of organisations but rather focused on employee perceptions thereof. The results for this research question demonstrate that perceptions of CSR, as opposed to CSR activities themselves, impact upon vital outcomes such as organisational commitment and intention to stay. The literature review utilised valence and Aguilera et al.'s CSR model as a means of highlighting the importance of preference. Aguilera et al.'s (2007) model of CSR focused on justice perceptions of an organisation's socially responsible activities and how this impacts upon employee outcomes. Here, it was suggested that an employee's view of the organisation's CSR practices was contingent upon their general justice perceptions (Aguilera et al., 2007). While the current study did not examine justice, the central tenant taken from this model was the importance of perceptions in shaping employee outcomes. The current study thus demonstrates that perceptions of CSR are central in impacting upon outcomes and suggests that perceptions do not need to occur in terms of justice, as outlined by Aguilera et al. (2007).

The significant impact of perceptions of CSR on commitment and intention to stay is similar to research conducted by Turban (2000). Here it was suggested that the perceptions job applicants hold in terms of a company's CSR policies influence their desire to work for the organisation. The literature review in chapter 2 suggested that Turban's findings could be extended to employees whereby their perceptions of CSR impact upon intention to stay. The results for the current study prove the above claim to be valid.

The results for this research question therefore demonstrated that internal and external CSR are two broad categories under which employee perceptions fall. Perceptions of internal and external CSR both significantly and positively predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. Employee perceptions of internal CSR is, however, a stronger predictor of both dependent variables than perceptions of external CSR.

## 5.2) Research Question Two: Do Individuals have a Preference for Certain Types of CSR Practices?

As an initial step in determining whether or not individuals possessed a preference for certain CSR practices as opposed to others, analytic hierarchy process was utilised. While the above discussion outlined how the original six independent variables were examined by employees as either internal or external this classification was not utilised for preference. This is true since, in chapter 2 of this research, the explanation provided for examining internal social CSR in terms of the sub constructs; namely racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability; was the notion that certain individuals would place particular internal CSR practices ahead of others. Similarly, it was believed that individuals would display different preferences for environmental and external social CSR practices. Thus merely examining preference as internal and external would limit the amount of information derived to explain preference. Specifically, the interaction between the variables which constitute internal CSR and those which make up external CSR could not be examined. Consequently, it would not be possible to determine the preference ranking for each of the social asymmetries which comprise internal CSR. Similarly, it would not be possible to determine which aspect of external CSR; environmental or external social; was deemed more important by employees. Therefore, in order to more robustly ascertain the preference of employees in the sample, preference was ranked for each individual in terms of the following CSR practices: environmental, external social, racial redress and equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability.

As discussed in the previous chapter AHP creates priority vectors where a rank order for CSR preference is created for each participant. Inherent in the AHP process is an examination of the consistency of the ratings attained in the dichotomous comparisons examined through the questionnaire (appendix B). Within the current study merely 57 participants were consistent in their ratings. It may be suggested that this lack of consistency is due to the difficulty in ranking variables which many consider to all be equally important. A further explanation for

the low level of consistency is evident in an examination of the scale utilised to examine employee preference (appendix B, section C).

The Employee Preference for CSR Practices Scale utilised phrases to describe environmental CSR, external social CSR and internal social CSR (race, gender, sexual orientation and disability). The phrases utilised for each comparison were, however, different. For example, environmental CSR was measured using the terms saving scarce resources, recycling, environmental sustainability, environmental conservation, decreasing harmful emissions and decreasing pollution. The above phrases, however, are not necessarily of equal importance to all individuals where decreasing harmful emissions is possibly more important than recycling. The same may be said for the manner in which the other preference variables were described in the questionnaire. Specifically, helping those in need, charity work and philanthropic behaviour were terms used to describe external social CSR. Similarly, internal social CSR was examined in terms of social asymmetries based on race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. Thus terms such as redressing past discrimination based on race, gender equality, equal treatment toward homosexuals, heterosexuals and bisexuals as well as availability of facilities for disabled employees are examples of terms used to examine each construct of internal social CSR. As with environmental CSR, there may be differences in terms of the inherent importance of each of the phrases used to describe each preference variable, thus making consistency difficult to achieve. The justification for the use of phrases, as stated in chapter 3 of the research, was the fact that CSR was not a universally understood term and had multiple constructs. The use of phrases thus attempted to create a unanimous understanding among participants which was in accordance with the manner in which CSR was operationalised in the current study. Despite this, the lack of consistent phrases may provide a plausible explanation as to why there was little consistency in ranking, as revealed through the analytic hierarchy process.

Despite the lack of consistency, AHP still derived a rank order of CSR preference for each participant. In order to determine whether or not participants in the sample had similar rankings, cluster analysis was utilised. It was demonstrated that the sample could be split into two groups of participants with similar preferences. While one group was significantly larger than the other, it suggests that within the sample there was a great degree of similarity in terms of CSR preferences. Figure 8 from chapter 6 in the research is again provided below to visually demonstrate the preference of the clusters. This figure should be considered in conjunction with the discussion.

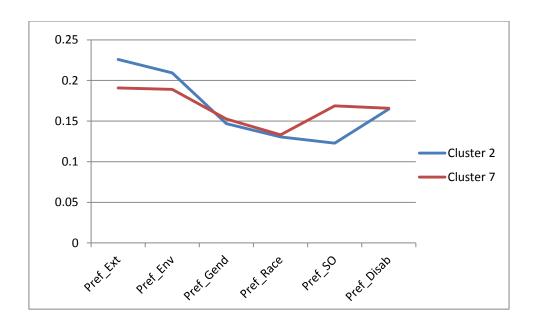


Figure 8. A graphical representation of CSR preference for clusters 2 and 7.

The majority of the sample, represented by cluster 2 (n = 101), had a preference for external social CSR followed by environmental CSR. Thereafter practices aimed at equality in terms of disability, gender and racial redress, respectively, followed. This cluster deemed practices aimed at equality with regards to sexual orientation as least important. If such results are examined in terms of the two broad categories for CSR highlighted in the exploratory factor analysis it demonstrates that external CSR is preferred to internal CSR within the current sample. Thus, this cluster considers social activities aimed outside of the organisation to be more pertinent than those aimed at employees. Within the internal CSR category the preference for racial redress and gender equality were similar however practices aimed at equality for the disabled were slightly higher while those aimed at equality in terms of sexual orientation were the lowest. The fact that equality in terms of sexual orientation was the least preferred practice is surprising in South Africa since the constitution and legislation was one of the first to acknowledge the rights of homosexuals and bisexuals. As outlined in chapter 2, homosexuals and bisexuals often feel discriminated against in terms of promotions (King et al., 2008) and are made to feel different and treated as unequal members of the organisation (Brooks & Edwards, 2009). Therefore, the results from this cluster may perhaps reflect the alarming number of homosexual and bisexual employees that feel unwelcome and discriminated against in the workplace. The very fact that within the large majority of the sample, represented as cluster 2, equality practices aimed at equality in terms of sexual orientation were ranked as least important may allude to prevalence of the negative workplace experiences for homosexuals and bisexuals described above.

While the aforementioned discussion may be a viable explanation for preference in this cluster it is important to note that the fact that equality with regards to sexual orientation was least preferred does not necessarily mean that it is considered immaterial. Therefore, the ranking may not denote that equality with regards to sexual orientation is not important it merely reveals that it is the least important in comparison to alternative CSR practices. This may be due to the composition of the sample, where there may be few homosexual and bisexual participants. Thus, the notion that gender equality practices are deemed more important may be a reflection of the largely female sample as opposed to a genuine lack of preference for equality with regards to sexual orientation. This may be feasible however it cannot be stated with certainty, particularly since it is unclear what proportion of the sample are homosexual and bisexual.

In terms of this and the other findings related to internal CSR preference, it would have been useful to examine the demographics of the sample in terms of sexual orientation and disability. The demographic aspect of the questionnaire ascertained that the majority of the sample was white and female however the percentage of disabled, homosexual and bisexual participants is unknown. This may have been useful in further exploring the aforementioned results for employee preference, as well as those which will examine internal CSR in cluster 7.

The results for internal CSR in cluster 7 contrast to cluster 2 outlined above. In terms of internal CSR, 18 participants –represented in cluster 7 – rated CSR practices aimed at equality in terms of sexual orientation to be the most preferred, followed by practices aimed at equality in terms of disability, gender and lastly racial redress. Racial redress was significantly less preferred than the other internal CSR practices which is surprising due to the need to redress past injustice in terms of race. A potential explanation as to why racial redress was considered least important in this cluster may be the well-documented challenges in instituting affirmative action policies (Thomas, 2002 as cited in Ramashamole, 2010). Moreover, the sample in the current study was largely white (63.87%) where Human (1996) suggests that affirmative action poses a threat to the position of white South Africans. This threat may be applied in the employment arena, where white employees may fear losing their jobs due to the necessary increased inclusion of previously disadvantaged South Africans. While, within this cluster racial redress was ranked least important, this does not denote that redressing past discrimination in terms of race is deemed as undesirable by the cluster.

Rather, the rank results reveal that it is merely viewed as least important in comparison to other CSR practices amongst the 18 participants.

Overall, regardless of the cluster participants fell into, the entire sample deemed external social CSR as the most important and preferable CSR practice, followed by environmental CSR. This further demonstrates that the sample was identical with their ranking of environmental and external social CSR and merely differed in terms of the ranking of racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability. The fact that the only differences within the sample was based on the internal CSR variables may be a function of the demographics of the sample, since the internal CSR variables are, in some sense, related to the demographics of individuals. Thus, if this is considered in terms of the two broad categories of CSR derived from the exploratory factor analysis, it may be suggested that external CSR was more preferable than internal CSR for the entire sample. This is surprising since, in the results derived from the multiple regressions above, internal CSR was slightly more predictive of organisational commitment and intention to stay than external CSR. This will, however, be discussed in greater detail in the following section of this chapter.

The primary preference for external social CSR across the entire sample is not surprising, particularly in the South African context. Many individuals believe it is the responsibility of business to utilise resources to help those in need. This is demonstrated by Everatt (2004) who conducted a study which revealed that the majority of individuals believe businesses should pay more tax to help individuals and communities in need. The role of business in assisting with social problems is pertinent in South Africa due to the breadth of social problems which plague the country, such as HIV/AIDS and poverty (Fig, 2005). Due to the large number of unfortunate individuals and communities in South Africa it is not surprising that the sample suggested that helping the underprivileged is the most important and most preferred CSR practice.

The fact that environmental CSR amounted to a secondary preference across the entire sample suggests that Senge and his co-authors were correct in emphasising the importance of environmental sustainability to employees. As outlined in chapter 2 of this research as well as above in a discussion of the first research question *The Necessary Revolution* suggests that employees, particularly younger ones, prefer to work for organisations with environmentally sustainable policies (Senge et al., 2010). Moreover, the literature review outlined how survey

evidence suggested that 80% of employees would prefer to work in organisations with environmentally friendly policies while 92% would prefer to work for green organisations (Senge et al., 2010). The aforementioned survey took place in twenty three countries, however Senge and his co-authors do not outline whether the countries are first world countries, developing countries or both. The results from the current study, however, demonstrate that in a developing country like South Africa, environmental sustainability is of great concern. The fact that environmental CSR was ranked as a secondary preference across the entire sample is promising since Delmas and Toffel (2004) suggest that stakeholders – including employees – play a central role in encouraging organisations to take on an environmental focus. This is true since stakeholders, by definition, are able to influence the organisation (Savage et al., 1991). In line with this reasoning, if employees overall have a preference for external social and environmental CSR and make their preference heard, they may influence the organisation in practicing more socially responsible behaviour within those domains.

Thus, overall the entire sample demonstrated a preference for external social CSR and environmental CSR which, if examined in terms of the two overarching CSR variables derived from the exploratory factor analysis, suggests that eternal CSR is primarily important. Specifically, employees within the sample display a preference for CSR practices which are aimed outside the organisation. Overall, internal CSR was deemed less important than external CSR however, the order of preference for racial redress and equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability differed between the two clusters.

# 5.3) Research Question Three: Is an Individual's Preference Related to Employees' Perceived Adequacy of their Organisations CSR Practices?

The current study hypothesised that the relationship between preference and employee perceptions of their organisations CSR practices could occur in two forms. Firstly, it was hypothesised that if an employee has a preference for a particular CSR practice, the standard upon which organisational CSR initiatives were be measured, would be extremely stringent. This was believed to be plausible since a preference for a certain CSR practice would suggest that there were clear standards as to what organisational actions were sufficient and those that were not. The current study, however, suggested that the opposite could also be true. Specifically, it was hypothesised that if an employee has a preference for a particular CSR practice then any action undertaken by the organisation would be deemed beneficial, since

any initiatives are better than inaction. The results derived from the two independent sample t-tests suggest that neither of the aforementioned hypotheses were true. Rather, the results suggest that preference, examined in terms of clusters, is not related to employee perceptions of their organisations internal and external CSR practices. Thus, regardless of employee preference their perception of how their organisation addresses CSR is unaltered.

The study utilised aspects from stakeholder theory and person-environment congruence to support the hypothesis. In terms of the former, it was believed that employees as stakeholders would raise certain issues which they believe need to be addressed by the organisation. The social issues raised should reflect the preference employees have in terms of CSR. Thereafter any action taken by the organisation would be deemed adequate or unsatisfactory by employees, thus impacting upon their perceptions. The fact that the results demonstrate that preference does not impact upon perceptions demonstrates the fault with this line of reasoning. Despite the fact that theory suggests employees would vocalise the issues which they deem important (Savage et al., 2001; Stawiski et al., 2010 as cited in Ali et al., 2010), this may not be the case in organisations today. This could be due to many reasons including the heightened job insecurity where employee focus could be on retaining a job as opposed to vocalising actions organisations should take.

The reasoning behind person-environment congruence was further put forth as a means of substantiating the hypothesis that employee preference impacted upon perceptions. The central tenant behind this theory is the notion that employees desire to work in an organisation which has similar values to their own thus allowing supplementary fit to be experienced (Cable & Edwards, 2004). If the organisation truly values a certain CSR practice, it is likely that there will be adequate measures in place to address it. If the employee considers the same CSR practice to be a preference, it is likely that the congruence will result in the employee having positive perceptions about the organisations CSR initiatives. The insignificant relationship between perception and preference proves this reasoning is invalid within the current study.

The current research demonstrates that preference does not impact upon perceptions. It is therefore salient to examine what theory and research suggests does impact upon perceptions. As outlined above, Aguilera et al. (2007) suggest that, in terms of CSR, perceptions are understood in terms of justice. The daily actions undertaken by the organisation provide employees with information pertaining to the general justice of the company (Aguilera et al.,

2007). This justice information is yielded into a perception of CSR where the outcomes and processes of CSR are perceived in terms of their fairness (Aguilera et al., 2007). Alternative research pertaining to what impacts upon employee perceptions is sparse in the literature and perhaps demonstrates a gap which should be fulfilled through future research. Understanding what drives employee perceptions of CSR, particularly when they are salient in impacting upon organisational commitment and intention to stay is extremely important. While the current study established that preference for CSR does not impact upon perceptions thereof, it was determined that the preference in South Africa lies primarily within external social CSR followed by environmental CSR. The current study not only demonstrated the composition of preference within a South African sample but further demonstrated that employee perceptions of CSR predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. This is particularly true in terms of internal CSR. However, it was highlighted that while internal and external CSR are valuable in predicting the dependent variables, alternative factors are potentially more predictive.

### **Chapter Six: Limitations**

In light of the above discussion, the limitations associated with the current research will be described. The primary limitation relates to the size and nature of the sample, however the inconsistency for the AHP as well as the non-experimental nature of the study will be discussed.

The primary limitation in the current study pertains to the sample in terms of size and composition. In terms of the former, a sample of 119 is small and a slightly larger sample would have been more beneficial for the research. Moreover, due to the outliers in the data, the sample size decreased further when these values were removed. Thus, when examining organisational commitment, the sample size was 115 while the examination of intention to stay was conducted with 113 participants. An understanding of sample size needs to be examined in relation to the notion of statistical power (Whitley Jr., 2002). Specifically, an adequate sample size increases the power of the statistical test, where the greater the power the greater the likelihood of accurately deducing that the independent variable had no effect on the dependent variable (Whitley Jr., 2002). Statistical power may be understood in terms of type I and type II errors where the former occurs when you reject the null hypothesis when it is in fact true (Huck, 2009). Conversely, a Type II error occurs when you fail to reject the null hypothesis when it is false (Huck, 2009). The level of significance is utilised to ascertain the probability of a Type I error, where a 5% significance level is generally accepted as beneficial since it provides a balance between the potential for both forms of error (Huck, 2009; Whitley Jr., 2002). In the current study,  $\alpha = 0.05$  therefore there is a 5% chance of falsely rejecting a true null hypothesis. The current study utilised a two-tailed t-test in order to determine whether or not preference impacted upon perceptions of CSR. Kraemer and Thiemann (1987 as cited in Whitley Jr., 2002) suggest that two-tailed tests, such as the t-tests utilised in the current study, require larger sample sizes. Thus, due to the small sample size, the power of the statistical analyses is not high thus increasing the probability of failing to reject a null hypothesis which is in fact true.

The composition of the sample is a further limitation in the current study. Specifically, the sample was largely female and white and was therefore not representative of the South African population. This was particularly problematic since a concept under examination in the current study dealt with internal CSR, which involved examining the preference and perceptions of employees with regard to particular demographic variables such as race,

gender, sexual orientation and disability. The presence of disabled, homosexual and bisexual participants was not examined through a demographic questionnaire, which is problematic since such information would have been valuable when examining employee preference. The gender and race of the sample was ascertained, however the fact that the sample is not more representative in terms of these variables might have influenced the examination of preference. This may be true since it seems plausible to assume that certain females will have at least some preference for CSR policies aimed at gender equality. The same might be true in terms of race, disability and sexual orientation. Thus, the largely white and female nature of the sample may have influenced the preference rankings for the sample.

The nature of the sample suggests that the results derived from the study may only be generalised to a small portion of the population, namely white female employees. The lack of a representative sample thus hampers the external validity of the study. A final concern relating to the sample involves the manner in which it was attained. The use of snowball sampling, while necessary due to the low response rate from the organisations, meant that individuals from a multitude of companies were utilised. While this problem is minimised since perceptions of CSR practices were under examination, as opposed to actual practices themselves, it would have been beneficial to attain a sample from a few organisations.

A further limitation in the study involves the lack of consistency in the participants rating in the analytic hierarchy process. As discussed previously, this lack of consistency may be due to two possible reasons. The first involves the difficulty in ranking variables which many consider to all be equally important. Thus, there may be a lack of consistency since the participants do not have a strong preference for certain variables, but rather believe each to be important. The second potential reason for the lack of consistency is the manner in which the preferences were phrased. Specifically, the Employee Preference for CSR Practices Scale utilised phrases to describe environmental CSR, external social CSR and CSR practices aimed at racial redress as well as equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability. As described above, the phrases utilised for each comparison were different where the phrases used to describe each CSR practice were not necessarily of equal importance (e.g.: recycling v decreasing harmful emissions). Therefore, there may have been differences in terms of the inherent importance of each of the phrases used to describe each preference variable, thus making consistency difficult to achieve. The use of phrases was, however, essential since CSR may not be unanimously understood by all participants. The phrases

therefore attempted to create a unanimous understanding of how CSR was operationlised among all participants.

The final limitation in the study was the non-experimental nature of the research. The study could not examine causality between variables since there was no control group, no random assignment and no manipulation of the independent variables. The results and conclusions derived from the study could thus only be examined in terms of associations and predictions. Despite the aforementioned limitations, the current study still provides contributions and implications theoretically and practically. Such implications, as well as areas for future research, are discussed in the following chapter of the research.

### **Chapter Seven: Recommendations**

This chapter of the research will outline the recommendations for future research as well as the implications derived from the study. The implications will be examined with regards to both theory and practice.

### 7.1) Implications for Practice

With regards to the implications for practice, the current study reveals that the perceptions employees hold pertaining to CSR practices predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. This perhaps points to the possibility that organisations should accurately inform employees of the CSR initiatives undertaken – this informed employee may have enhanced perceptions of their organisations dedication to CSR and thus positive organisational behaviour may follow. This may be particularly useful for organisations that are truly dedicated to CSR and thus have a multitude of practices in place to implement it. It may be argued that if employees are made aware of their organisations CSR initiatives - if their company is truly dedicated to behaving in a socially responsible manner - then the perceptions held by employees would be altered which would lead to positive organisational behaviour.

The study further revealed that internal CSR was more predictive of organisational commitment and intention to stay than external CSR. This suggests that organisations should have internal CSR practices aimed at ensuring racial redress and equality in terms of gender, sexual orientation and disability. Organisations which adequately address each of these social asymmetries are likely to be perceived as being committed to internal CSR. This perceived investment in internal CSR is beneficial to the organisation, since it moderately predicts organisational commitment and intention to stay. The fact that all the social asymmetries loaded upon a single construct in the exploratory factor analysis demonstrates that employee perceptions of racial redress and equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability occur holistically. Thus while each social asymmetry is important to address, it may be argued that an organisations internal CSR practices are judged overall in terms of the equality which is experienced in the workplace. Practically, this suggests that organisations need to ensure that equality is present in all spheres of the organisation, as opposed to singling out certain social asymmetries to address above others.

The current study further demonstrated that the preference employees have with regards to certain CSR practices did not impact their perceptions thereof. The practical implications of this finding suggest that, regardless of employee's personal preference, the perceptions they hold about the manner in which their organisation is socially responsible is unaltered. This is beneficial since the preference of employees does not create a bias when evaluating organisations CSR initiatives. Thus, organisations may implement CSR practices without concern that employee preference will impact upon perceptions of adequacy, and thus impact upon organisational commitment and intention to stay.

Lastly, this research demonstrates the benefits that accrue from CSR initiatives, not only to the individuals onto which the practices are aimed, but for the organisation overall. Employee perceptions of CSR, both internal and external, to some extent predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. The benefits for the organisation with regard to committed employees include a decrease in absenteeism, turnover and an increase in innovation (Camilleri, 2002). An increase in intention to stay inevitably decreases turnover, which decreases the costs associated with hiring and training new employees (Camilleri, 2002). The benefits which accrue form organisational commitment and intention to stay demonstrate the importance thereof. Both of these organisational outcomes should be fostered within employees, and a manner in which this may be achieved is through implementing CSR practices and ensuring that employees are made aware of such initiatives, thus increasing their positive perceptions toward their company's socially responsible behaviour.

### 7.2) Implications for Theory

In terms of the implications for theory, the current study demonstrated that within the sample, perceptions of CSR were viewed within two broad categories: those which impact employees within the organisation and those which do not. Perceptions employees hold with regards to CSR is sparse in the literature and this study therefore attempted to fill the void. The examination of employee perceptions of CSR and the evidence which suggests it occurs in terms of two broad constructs is therefore beneficial. Moreover, the current study corroborated findings from previous research which demonstrates that perceptions of CSR are associated with organisational commitment and intention to stay. Furthermore, it was demonstrated that perceptions of internal CSR are more predictive than external CSR in terms of both dependent variables, however neither are strong predictors. In terms of

theoretical implications, this suggests that while CSR is important is predicting organisational commitment and intention to stay, alternative factors may contribute more significantly.

Theoretically, this study examined CSR within the South African context, thus the socially responsible initiatives under examination were made relevant to the South African context. This study therefore demonstrates the preference a South African sample has with regards to environmental CSR, external social CSR and CSR initiatives aimed at achieving racial redress and equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability. The notion that the entire sample, regardless of cluster, indicated that external social CSR is of primary importance suggests that within South Africa assisting individuals and communities in need is of primary importance. Surprisingly environmental CSR was indicated as being a secondary preference across the entire sample. This suggests that even in a developing country such as South Africa where there are a multitude of social problems, the environment is still a concern. Internal CSR was deemed to be the least preferred practice across the entire sample, yet clusters differed with the ranking of the social asymmetries. This suggests that in South Africa, there are still differences which exist in terms of which redress and equality practices are most important. In terms of theory, the current study thus provides insight into the preference for certain CSR initiatives within a South African context.

#### 7.3) Future Research

Future research that aims to examine the impact of perceptions of CSR should utilise a larger sample which is more representative of the population. The results derived from a more representative sample may be more generalisable within the South African context. The need for a larger more representative sample is particularly important for internal CSR, particularly in terms of preference. In terms of examining preference, future research should ascertain the samples demographic characteristics with regards to race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. An understanding of the composition of each of the aforementioned demographic variables may assist in understanding the preference for CSR across the sample.

Future research may further utilise the race, gender, sexual orientation and disability demographic factors as control variables when examining internal CSR. The control of demographics may occur through a representative sample which is fairly evenly distributed in terms of gender, race, sexual orientation and disability. Alternatively such demographic factors may be utilised as covariates in statistical analyses where any impact thereof will not affect the results derived. Perhaps a more accurate and consistent representation of preference

with a larger sample would demonstrate a different relationship between preference for CSR practices and the perceptions thereof.

The current study demonstrated that perceptions of CSR practices, as opposed to the practices themselves, are associated with organisational commitment and intention to stay. The importance of employee perceptions in predicting organisational outcomes demonstrates the significance of determining its antecedents. Thus future research within the CSR field could focus on the personal or organisational facets which impact upon employee perceptions.

### **Chapter Eight: Conclusion**

The current study demonstrated that employee perceptions of CSR occur in terms of two broad categories: internal CSR and external CSR. The former is concerned with CSR initiatives which impact upon employees in the workplace such as practices aimed at racial redress and equality with regards to gender, sexual orientation and disability. Conversely, external CSR focuses on socially responsible initiatives which do not impact upon employees in the workplace such as helping those in need and environmental initiatives. In terms of these two broad CSR categories, employee perceptions of internal CSR moderately predict organisational commitment and intention to stay. Moreover, perceptions of external CSR significantly predicts both outcome variables, however the prediction is weak. It was hypothesised that the perceptions employees hold with regard to the adequacy of their organisations CSR policies would be impacted upon by their preference for certain practices. This was proven to be incorrect where employee preference was not related to their perceptions of their company's CSR practices. The study did reveal, however, that the entire sample deemed helping individuals and communities in need to be the most important CSR practice within the South African context.

### References

Aguilera, R. V., Rupp, D. E., Williams, C. A. & Ganapathi, J. (2007). Putting the S back in corporate social responsibility: A multilevel theory of social change in organisations. *Academy of Management Review, 32*, 836-863.

Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organisation. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18. Bily, S. & Manochehri, G. (1995). Breaking the glass ceiling. *American Business Review*, 13, 33 – 40.

Ali, I., Rehman, K. U., Ali, S. I., Yousaf, J. & Zia, M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility influences, employee commitment and organisational performance. *African Journal of Business Management*, *4* (12), 2796-2801. Retrieved from http://academicjournals.org/ajbm/PDF/pdf2010/4Oct/Ali%20et%20al.pdf

Allison, P. D. (1999). *Multiple regression: A primer*. California, U. S. A.: Pine Forge Press Inc.

Berry, W. D. (1993). *Understanding regression assumptions*. California, U. S. A. Sage Publications.

Blau, F. D. & Khan, L. M. (2007). The gender pay gap: Have women gone as far as they can?, *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21, 7-23.

Bottomley, S. (2007). *The constitutional corporation: Rethinking corporate governance*. Hampshire, England.: Ashgate Publishing Limited.

Booysen, L. (2007). Barriers to employment equity implementation and retention of blacks in management in South Africa. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, *31*, 47-71.

Brammer, S., Milington, A. & Rayton, B. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility on organisational commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18, 1701-1719.

Brooks, A. K. & Edwards, K. (2009). Allies in the workplace: Including LGBT in HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 11, 136-149.

Brown, T. A. (2006). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. New York, U. S. A.: Gulliford Press.

Cable, D. M. & Edwards, J.R. (2004). Complementary and supplementary fit: A theoretical and empirical integration. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 822-834.

Camilleri, E. (2002). Some antecedents of organisational commitment: results from an information systems public sector organisation. *Bank of Valleta Review*, 25.

Carroll, A. B. (1986). A three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *The Academy of Management Review*, *4*,497-505.

Carroll, A. B. (1999). Corporate social responsibility: Evolution of a definitional construct. *Business & Society*, *38*, 268-259.

Chatterjee, S. & Hadi, A. S. (2006). *Regression analysis by example*. New Jresey, U.S.A. Wiley and Sons Inc.

Chew, J. & Chan, C. A. (2008). Human resource practices, organisational commitment and intention to stay. *International Journal of Manpower*, 29 (6), 503-522. DOI: 10.1108/01437720810904194

Child, D. (2006). *The essential of factor analysis (3rd Ed.)* New York, U. S. A.: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Cock, J. (2003). Engendering gay and lesbian rights: The equality clause in the South African Constitution. *Women's Studies International Forum*, *26*, 35-45.

Collier, J. & Esteban, R. (2007). Corporate social responsibility and employee commitment. *Business Ethics, a European Review, 16,* 19-33.

Cramer, D. (2003). *Advanced Quantitative Data Analysis*. Philadelphia, U. S. A.: McGraw-Hill Education.

Dahlsrud, A. (2006). How corporate social responsibility is defined: An analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*. Published online in Wiley InterScience. DOI: 10.1002/csr.132

Dangelico, R. M. & Pujari, D. (2010). Mainstreaming green product innovation: Why and how companies integrate environmental sustainability, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95, 471-486.

Dawkins, C. & Nghunjiri, F. W. (2008). Corporate social responsibility reporting in South Africa: A descriptive and comparative analysis. *Journal of Business Communications*, 45, 286-307.

Delmas, M. & Toffel, M. W. (2004). Stakeholders and environmental management practices: An institutional framework. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, *13*, 209-222.

Enticott, G & Walker, R. M. (2008). Sustainability, performance and organisational strategy: An empirical analysis of public organisations. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 17, 79-92.

Erez, A. & Isen, A. M. (2002). The influence of positive affect on the components of expectancy motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *18* (6), 1055-1067.

Everitt, B. S., Landau, S., Leese, M. & Stahl, D. (2001). *Cluster Analysis* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed). West Sussex, U. K.: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Fairchild, A. J. (2008). A comparison of frameworks for the joint analysis of mediation and moderation effects. U. S. A.: Proquest LLC.

Fernando, A. C. (2010). *Business ethics and corporate governance*. India: Pearsin Education.

Field, A. & Miles, J. (2010). *Discovering statistics using SAS*. London, U. K.: Sage Publications.

Fig, D. (2005). Manufacturing amnesia: Corporate social responsibility in South Africa. *International Affairs*, *81*, 599-617.

Fisher, D. (2010). Leading a sustainable organisation. *The Journal for Quality & Participation*, 32, 29-31.

Foxcroft, C. & Roodt, G. (2010). *Introduction to psychological assessment in the South African context*. Cape Town, South Africa.: Oxford University Press

Garriga, E. & Mele, D. (2004). Corporate social responsibility theories: Mapping the territory. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *53*, 51-57.

Gore Jr., P. A. (2000). Cluster analysis. In H. E. A. Tinsley & S. D. Brown (Eds), *Handbook of applied multivariate statistics and mathematical modelling* (pp297-319). California, U. S. A.: Academic Press.

Hardle, W. L. & Simar, L. (2007). *Applied multivariate statistical analysis* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed). Berlin, Germany: Springer.

Haugh, H. M. & Talwar, A. (2010). How do corporations embed sustainability across the organisation? *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, *9*, 384 – 396.

Hill, R. J. (2009). Incorporating queers: blowback, backlash and other forms of resistance to workplace diversity initiatives that support sexual minorities. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 11 (1), 37-53. DOI: 10.1177/1523422308328128

Hinton, P. R. (2004). Statistics explained (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). East Sussex, U. K.: Routledge.

Hiss, S. (2009). From implicit to explicit corporate social responsibility: Institutional change as a fight for myths. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 19, 433 – 451.

Hoffman, E. A. (2008). A wolf in sheep's clothing: Discrimination against the majority undermines equality, while continuing to benefit few under the guise of black economic empowerment. *Journal of International Law and Commerce*, *36*, 87-115.

Hofmann, D. A. (1997). An overview of the logic and rationale of hierarchical linear models. *Journal of Management*, *23*, 723-744.

Howell, D. C. (2008). Fundamental statistics for the behavioural sciences (6<sup>th</sup> Ed). California, U. S. A.: Thomas Higher Education.

Huck, S.W. (2009). *Reading Statistics and Research* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Pearsons Education, Inc. Boston, U.S.A.

Human, L. (1996). Managing workforce diversity: A critique and example from South Africa. *International Journal of Manpower*, 17 (4), 46-64.

Izenman, A. J. (2008). Modern multivariate statistical technique: Regression, classification and manifold learning. New York, U. S. A.: Springer.

Jackson, S. L. (2009). Research methods and statistics: A critical thinking approach (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed). California.: U. S. A.

Kakabadse, N. K., Rozuel, C. & Lee-Davies, L. (2005). Corporate social responsibility and stakeholder approach: A conceptual review. *International Journal of Business Governance and Ethics*, 1, 277-302.

Kang, D. S. (2007). Perceived organisational justice as a predictor of employees' motivation to participate in training. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 15, 89-107.

Kaul, A. (2009). Gender and workplace experience, *Vikalpa, The Journal of Decision Makers*, 34, 79-83.

Kemp, M. (2007). Black economic empowerment. *International Financial Law Review*, 26, 65-66.

King, R. D., Stewart, K. L. & Barr, J. (2008). Gay rights: The impact and interaction of popular culture, business practices and law. *Journal of the North-eastern Association of Business, Economics and Technology*, 39-51.

Knox, S. & Maklan, S. (2006). Corporate social responsibility: Moving beyond investment toward measuring outcomes. *European Management Journal*, 22, 508-516.

Kruse, D. & Hale, D. (2003). Disability and employment: Symposium introduction. *Industrial Relation*, 42, 1-11.

Lansing, P. & Cruser, C. (2009). The moral responsibility of business to protect homosexuals from discrimination in the workplace. *Employee Relations Law Journal*, *35*,43-66.

Larrabee, J. H., Wu, Y., Persily, C. A., Simoni, P. S., Johnston, P. A., Marcischak, T. L., Mott, C. L. & Gladden, S. D. (2010). Influence of stress resiliency on RN job satisfaction and intent to stay. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, *32*, 81-102.

Lok, P. & Crawford, J. (2003). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A cross-national comparison. *Journal of Management Development*, 23 (4), 321-338. DOI 10.1108/02621710410529785

Lyon, T. P. & Maxwell, J. W. (2008). Corporate social responsibility and the environment: A theoretical perspective. *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy, 1*, 1-22.

Makgetla, N. S. (2007). Black economic empowerment: Politically correct capitalism or social problem? In Gunnarsen, G., Mac Manus, P., Nielsen, M. & Stolten, H. E. (Eds), *At the end of the rainbow? Social identity and welfare in the new South Africa* (pp. 75-91) (L. Daalgrad Tans,). Copenhagen, Denmark.: Southern Africa Contact.

Martin Jr, T. N. (1979). A contextual model of employee turnover intentions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 22, 313-324.

Marsden, P.V. & Wright, J. D. (2010). *Handbook of survey research* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). Bingley, U. K.: Academic Press

McMahon, A. M. (2010). Does workplace diversity matter? A survey of empirical studies on diversity and firm performance, 200-09. *Journal of Diversity Management*, 5, 37-50.

Melville, N. P. (2010). Information systems innovation for environmental sustainability. *MIS Quarterly, 34,* 1-21.

Moir, L. (2001). What do we mean by corporate social responsibility? *Corporate Governance*, 1, 16-22.

Montello, D. R. & Sutton, P. C. (2006). *An introduction into scientific research methods in geography*. California, U.S.A.: sage Publications Inc.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviours.: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 845-855.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M. & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organisational commitment. *Journal of Vocational behaviour*, *14*, 224-247.

Munchinsky, P. M. & Monahan, C. J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 31, 268-277

Nga, J. K. H. & Soo. N. W. M. (2010). The influence of personal attributes on perceptions of economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainability. *Journal of Global Business and Economics*, 1, 99-119.

O'Drisscoll, M. P. & Randall, D. M. (1999). Perceived organisational support, satisfaction with rewards and employee job involvement and organisational commitment. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 48, (2), 197-209.* 

Orlitzky, M., Siegal, D. S., & Waldman, D. A. (2011). Strategic corporate social responsibility and environmental sustainability. *Business & Society*, *50*, 6-27.

Peterson, D. K. (2004). The relationship between perceptions of corporate citizenship and organisational commitment. *Business and Society*, *43*, 296-319.

Ponte, S., Roberts, S. & van Sittert, L. (2007). 'Black Economic Empowerment', business and the state of South Africa. *Development and Change*, *38*, 933-955.

Ragins, B. R., Townsend, B. & Mattis, M. (1998). Gender gap in the executive suite: CEO's and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling, *Academy of Management Executive*, 12, 28 – 42.

Ramashamole, M. A. (2010). An exploration of the career barriers faced by black women in middle management: An application of Scholssberg's theory. Unpublished Dissertation. University of the Witwatersrand.

Randolph, D. S. (2005). The meaning of workplace discrimination for women with disabilities. *Work*, *24*, 369-380.

Romesburg, C. (2004). *Cluster analysis for researchers*. California, U. S. A.: Wadsworth Inc.

Ruppert, D. (2004). *Statistics and finance: An introduction*. New York, U. S. A.: Springer-Verlag.

Saaty, T. L. (1990). How to make a decision: The analytic hierarchy process. European Journal of Operational Research, 48, 9-26.

Saaty, T. L. & Vargas, L. G. (2001). *The analytic hierarchy process*. Massachusetts, U. S. A.: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Savage, G. T., Nix, T. W., Whitehead, C. J. & Blair, J. D. (1991). Strategies for assessing and managing organisational stakeholders. *Academy of Management Executive*, *5*, 61-75.

Scholl, R. W. (1981). Differentiating organisational commitment from expectancy as a motivational force. *Academy of Management Review*, *6*, 589-599.

Senge, P., Smith, B., Kruschwitz, N., Laur, J. & Schley, S. (2010). *The necessary revolution: How individuals and organisations are working together to create a sustainable world.* Nicholas Brealy Publishing, London.: U.K.

Shrivastava, P. (1995). Industrial/environmental crises and corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 24.

Singh, K. (2007). *Quantitative social research methods*. New Delhi, India.: Sage Publications.

Statistics South Africa (2010). *Mid-year population estimates*. Retrieve from: http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0302/P03022010.pdf

Stevens, J. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*. New Jersey, U. S. A.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.

Stewart, R., Volpone, S. D., Avery, D. R. & McKay, P. (2011). You support diversity but are you ethical? Examining the interactive affects of diversity and ethical climate perceptions on turnover intentions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 100, 581-593.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). *Government Gazette* (No.17678).

Thomas, A. & Jain, H. C. (2004). Employment equity in Canada and South Africa: progress and propositions. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15, 36-55.

Urdan, T. C. (2005). *Statistics in plain English (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed)*. New Jersey, U. S. A.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Van Marrewijk, M. (2003). Concepts and definitions of CSR and corporate sustainability: Between agency and communion. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 95-105.

Walker, J. T. (1999). *Statistics in criminal justice: Analysis and interpretation*. Maryland.: Aspen Publishers Inc.

Watermeyer, B., Swartz, L., Lorenzo, T., Scheider, M. & Priestley, M. (2006). *Disability and social change: A South African agenda*. Cape Town, South Africa.: HSRC Press.

Whitley Jr., B. E. (2002). *Principles of research in behavioural science* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York. U.S.A. McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.

Wöcke, A. & Sutherland, M. (2008). The impact of employment equity regulations on psychological contracts in South Africa. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19, 528-542. DOI: 10.1080/09585190801953525.

### Appendix A

### 1) Request for Access to an Organisation



# Psychology

School of Human & Community Development University of the Witwatersrand Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050

relopment Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559



### To Whom It May Concern

#### Dear Sir or Madam

My name is Bianca Pitt and I am a Masters student at the University of the Witwatersrand. In order to fulfil the requirements for my Masters degree, a research project needs to be conducted and completed. The current study aims at determining whether or not there is a relationship between employee perceptions of an organisation's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) practices, commitment to the organisation and intention to stay with the company. Lastly, the current study aims at examining whether the relationship between perceptions of CSR practices, commitment and intention to stay are moderated by the degree to which CSR is important to employees.

In order to examine this relationship, data collection is necessary. Your institution and members of your institution would be of great benefit to me in the compilation of this data. I would be grateful if you would grant permission for access to your employees to invite them to participate in the study by completing a questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation in this study is voluntary and participants may withdraw before the completion of the questionnaire (as completion of the questionnaire is considered consent). The organisation will not be named in the study. Employees will remain anonymous as no identifying information will be asked for. The data will be analysed at group level so as that no individual will be identified. Your organisation will receive the results of the study in the form of a summary. The results from this study may provide you with insight into whether or not employees wish to remain with the company and are committed to your organisation and its goals.

Once the study is complete, the raw data will be destroyed. The questionnaires will only be viewed by me and my research supervisor. If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me.

Regards,

Bianca Pitt Ian Siemers

### 2) Participant Information Sheet



# Psychology

School of Human & Community Development University of the Witwatersrand Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050

Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559



### Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Bianca Pitt and I am a student at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am conducting research in order to attain my Masters in Organisational Psychology. I am currently conducting research into employee perceptions of an organisation's actions and how this impacts behaviour.

For the purpose of this study, I need to collect data from a number of participants in organisations. I would like to invite you to participate in this study. Participation is completely voluntary and participation and non-participation will not benefit or disadvantage you in any way. If you choose to participate in the study you will be required to complete an online questionnaire, which will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your honest response will be warmly appreciated. Please be aware that your identity will remain anonymous. This will be accomplished by ensuring that no identifying information, such as your name or identification number, will be asked for. The completed questionnaire will only be seen by me and my research supervisor, thus ensuring confidentiality. The data is analysed at a group level so that no individual may be identified. Any feedback given to the organisation will be at a group level and in the form of a summary. If you would like feedback, you may call or email me and the group summary of your organisation can be provided. The data will be destroyed once the research is complete. Completion of this questionnaire will be considered consent.

If you have	any que	eries o	or require	additional	information,	please	feel	free	to	contact	me	on
the informat	tion prov	vided 1	below.									

Regards,

Bianca Pitt Ian Siemers

### Appendix B

# 1) Section A: Demographics Please answer the following questions. Age in years: \_\_\_\_\_ Length of Tenure in this Organisation: Please answer the following questions by making an 'X' on appropriate line. Female \_\_\_\_\_ Male: \_\_\_\_ **Gender: Race:** Black: \_\_\_\_\_ White: \_\_\_\_ Indian: \_\_\_\_\_ Other: \_\_\_\_\_ If *other*, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_ \* Race will be used for statistical purposes only and is not intended to offend Your position in the organisation: Full Time: \_\_\_\_\_\_ Part Time: \_\_\_\_\_ If *other*, please specify: Level of education: Matric: \_\_\_\_\_ Undergraduate Degree: \_\_\_\_\_ Diploma: \_\_\_\_\_ Postgraduate Degree: \_\_\_\_\_ If you have a postgraduate degree, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_\_

## 2) Section B: Perceptions of CSR Practices

Please place an 'X' to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree.

## **Perceptions of External Social CSR**

1)	I think my organisation is actively engaged in helping individuals (outside the company) in need.	1	2	3	4	5
2)	I believe my organisation participates in philanthropic/charitable activities.	1	2	3	4	5
3)	I think my organisation encourages its employees to engage in philanthropic/ charitable behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
4)	I don't think my organisation is interested in charity work.	1	2	3	4	5
5)	I think my organisation is actively engaged in helping underprivileged communities.	1	2	3	4	5
6)	I believe my organisation is actively engaged in social activities which are relevant in South Africa (eg: Poverty, HIV).	1	2	3	4	5
7)	I think there are desirable/positive outcomes from all socially responsible duties my organisation engages in.	1	2	3	4	5
8)	I feel my company only engages in charitable activities to improve the company's image.	1	2	3	4	5
9)	I think my company is genuinely committed to helping individuals and communities in need.	1	2	3	4	5

### **Perceptions of Environmental CSR**

1)	I believe my organisation is concerned for the	1	2	3	4	5
	environment.					
2)	I think my organisation takes steps in becoming more environmentally friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
3)	I feel my organisation has policies which promote environmental sustainability in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
4)	I believe environmental policies are put into practice in the daily functioning of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

5)	I don't think my organisation is concerned about the environment.	1	2	3	4	5
6)	My job within the organisation allows me to behave sustainably.	1	2	3	4	5
7)	I think my organisation encourages its employees to behave in ways which will benefit the environment (eg: recycling etc).	1	2	3	4	5
8)	There are many ways in which I think my organisation could become more environmentally friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
9)	I believe my organisation is genuinely dedicated to decreasing the damage done to the environment.	1	2	3	4	5

# **Perceptions of Internal Social CSR**

# **Perceptions of Gender Equality**

I believe my organisation promotes gender equality in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
2) I think my organisation is open to opinions/ideas from all employees, regardless of gender.	1	2	3	4	5
3) I believe my organisation has policies ensuring equal treatment of males and females in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
4) I feel my organisation puts its gender policies into practice in the daily functioning of the company.	1	2	3	4	5
5) I don't believe my company is dedicated to gender equality in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5

# **Perceptions of Racial Redress**

I believe my organisation takes an active stance in promoting Black Economic Empowerment.	1	2	3	4	5
2) I believe my organisation actively promotes employment equity.	1	2	3	4	5
3) I don't think my organisation discriminates against previously disadvantaged South Africans in the	1	2	3	4	5

workplace.					
4) I believe my organisation ensures that all previously disadvantaged South African's are given multiple opportunities in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
5) I don't think my organisation takes Black Economic Empowerment seriously.	1	2	3	4	5

# Perceptions of Equality with regards to Sexual Orientation

I think my organisation has policies which discourage discrimination based on sexual orientation in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
2) I believe my organisation attempts to ensure that there is no discrimination against homosexuals in the daily functioning of the company.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel my organisation encourages people to openly acknowledge their sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
4) I think all employees are treated equally in the workplace, regardless of sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
5) I don't think my organisation is genuinely concerned about equality in terms of sexual orientation.	1	2	3	4	5

# Perceptions of Equality with regards to Disability

I feel my organisation has policies to ensure that disabled employees are not discriminated against.	1 1	2	3	4	5
2) I believe my organisation puts the disability policies into practice in the daily functioning of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
3) There are facilities within the organisation for disabled employees (eg: stairs v ramps).	1	2	3	4	5
4) I don't think disability is a major concern for my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
5) I think all employees are treated equally in the organisation, regardless of disability/no disability.	1	2	3	4	5

### 3) Section C – Employee Preference for CSR Practices

In the following section, you will be provided with two options. You need to choose which of the two options provided are more important to you.

If you have R100 how would you divide the money between the 2 options provided in each of the tables below? (Please use denominations of R10). There is no right or wrong answer scores will only be used to determine relative degrees of importance. Please do not use comparisons of 100 and 0. An Example is provided below.

Example Item	Recycling	Providing Food for the
		<u>Homeless</u>
Money Designated to Each	30	70
Cause		

Please complete the following questions:

1	Saving Scarce Resources	Helping Those in Need
Money Designated to Each Cause		

2	Environmental Sustainability	Gender Equality
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

3	Environmental Conservation	Addressing Past Injustices in
		Terms of Race
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

4	Decreasing the Damage	Equal Treatment of People
	Done to the Environment	Regardless of Sexual
	Done to the Environment	
		<u>Orientation</u>
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		
5	Decreasing Pollution and	Equal Treatment for the
	<b>Harmful Emissions</b>	<u>Disabled</u>
Money Designated to Est		
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		
6	Helping Underprivileged	Equal Treatment of Men and
	Communities	Women
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		
7	<u>Charity Work</u>	Addressing Past
	•	Discrimination in terms of
		Race
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		
- 1		
		Equal Treatment toward
8	Philanthropic Behaviour	Homosexuals. Heterosexuals
		& Bisexuals.
Money Designated to Each		
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

9	Helping Underprivileged	Facilities for disabled People
	<u>People</u>	(ramps etc).
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

10	Redressing previous	Equal Treatment of Women
	Injustices in Terms of Race	and Men in the Workplace
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

11	Rectify Previous	Multiple Opportunities in the
	Discrimination in Terms of	Workplace for Gay, Lesbian
	Race	and Bisexual Employees
<b>Money Designated to Each</b>		
Cause		

12	Redressing Previous	Equal Treatment in the
	<u>Injustices in Terms of Race</u>	Workplace Regardless of
		<u>Disability</u>
Manay Dagignated to Fach		
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

13	Opportunities for Women to	Equal Treatment Regardless
	Advance in the Workplace	of Sexual Orientation
Money Designated to Each		

|--|

14	Equality in the Workplace in	Facilities for Disabled
	Terms of Gender	Workers.
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

15	Fair Treatment at Work	Equal Treatment at Work
	Regardless of Sexual	Regardless as to whether or
	<u>Orientation</u>	not Employees are Disabled.
Money Designated to Each		
Cause		

# 4) Section D – Intention to Stay

Please place an 'X' to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	<u>5</u>
I can see myself staying with my current organisation in the future.					
If I were offered a new job at another organisation, I would take it without hesitation.					
I am happy working for this organisation.					
If I were free to do so, I would look for a new job at a different organisation.					
I have no intention of looking for a new job at a new organisation					

## 5) Section E – Organisational Commitment

Provided below are a list of statements. Please state the degree to which you agree/disagree with regards to the current organisation in which you work.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2=Moderately Disagree 3=Slightly Disagree

4= Neither Agree nor Disagree 5=Slightly Agree 6=Moderately Agree

7=Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful							
I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.							
I feel very little loyalty to this organisation.							
I would accept almost any kind of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.							
I find that my values and my organisations values are very similar.							
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.							
I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar.							
This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.							
It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave the organisation.							
I am extremity glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.							
There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.							
Often, I find it difficult to agree with the organisations policies on important matters relating							

to its employees.				
I really care about the fate of this organisation.				
For me, this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.				
Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part.				

## **Appendix C**

This appendix will examine the eigenvalues, cumulative proportions as well as the scree plots for each of the exploratory factor analyses conducted in order to validate the instruments utilised in the current study.

## 1) Employee Perceptions of External Social CSR.

As demonstrated in table 27 below the eigenvalues suggest a one factor solution for this scale. This is true since there is only one eigenvalue above 1 and 5.41 is significantly higher than the rest of the values. An examination of the cumulative proportion supports the one factor solution since one factor explains 60% of the variance.

Table 27

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of External Social CSR

Factors	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	5.41	0.60
2	0.93	0.70
3	0.62	0.77
4	0.55	0.84
5	0.4	0.88
6	0.3	0.92
7	0.3	0.96
8	0.20	0.98
9	0.17	1

The one factor solution is further validated by an examination of the scree plot in figure 9 below. Thus the employee perceptions of external social CSR scale loads upon a single factor.

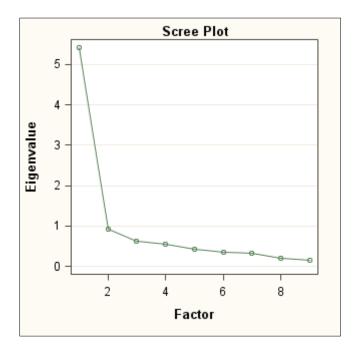


Figure 9. The Scree Plot for employee perceptions of external social CSR.

#### 2) Employee Perceptions of Internal Social CSR

The eigenvalues, cumulative proportions and scree plots for each of the factor analyses for the internal social CSR assymetries are outlined below.

**2.1) Perceptions of gender equality**. As demonstrated in table 28 below, only one eigenvalue is above 1.00 which suggests a one factor solution. Moreover, the cumulative proportion suggests that one factor explains 63% of the variance.

Table 28

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of Gender Equality

Factors	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	3.15	0.63
2	0.65	0.76
3	0.56	0.87
4	0.34	0.94
5	0.30	1

The use of one factor is further demonstrated by the scree plot in figure 10 below. The evidence therefore demonstrates that the subscale which measures perceptions of gender equality loads upon a single factor.

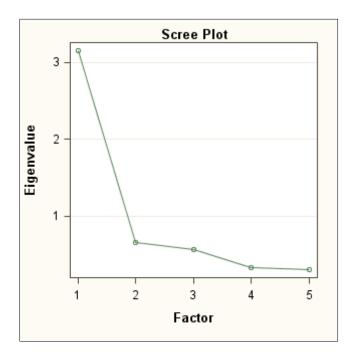


Figure 10. The Scree Plot for employee perceptions of gender equality.

**2.2) Perceptions of racial redress.** As demonstrated in table 29 below the eigenvalues suggest a one factor solution (3.32) which explains 67% of the variance.

Table 29

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of Racial Redress

Factor	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	3.32	0.67
2	0.68	0.80
3	0.46	0.89
4	0.30	0.95
5	0.23	1

The scree plot in figure 11 below corroborates the one factor solution demonstrated in the eigenvalues and cumulative proportion above. Thus, the subscale which examines perceptions of racial redress loads upon a single factor.

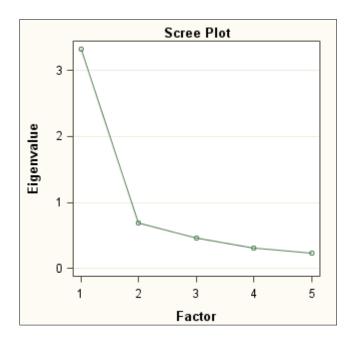


Figure 11. The Scree Plot for employee perceptions of racial redress.

**2.3) Perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation.** As demonstrated in table 30 below, a one factor solution is provided for perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation. This is demonstrated through the eigenvalue for one factor (2.63) and the fact that one factor explain 52% of the variance.

Table 30

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of Equality in terms of Sexual Orientation

Factor	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	2.63	0.52
2	0.73	0.67
3	0.69	0.81
4	0.52	0.91
5	0.43	1

The one factor solution is further demonstrated in the sree plot in figure 12 below. Thus, the evidence demonstrates that perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation loads upon a single factor.

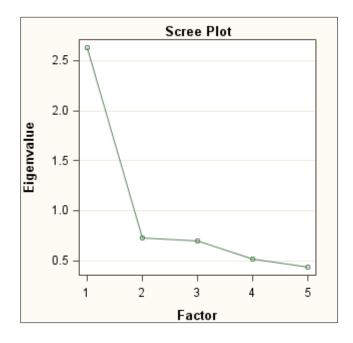


Figure 12. The Scree Plot for employee perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation.

**2.4) Perceptions of equality with regards to disability.** With regards to this subscale, a one factor solution explains 54% of the variance, as demonstrated in table 31 below. Moreover, the eigenvalue for one factor (2.72) is significantly higher than the rest of the eigenvalues and is the only value above 1.00.

Table 31

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of Equality in terms of Disability.

Factors	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	2.72	0.54
2	0.84	0.71
3	0.73	0.86
4	0.41	0.94
5	0.3	1

The one factor solution is further demonstrated in the scree plot in figure 13 below. The evidence therefore demonstrates that perceptions of equality in terms of disability load upon one factor.

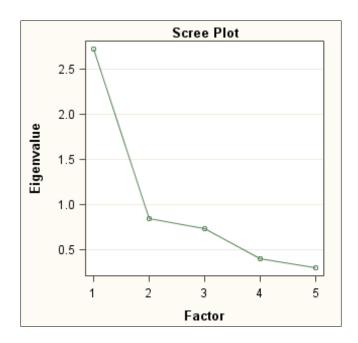


Figure 13. The Scree Plot for employee perceptions of equality in terms of disability.

## 3) Employee Perceptions of Environmental CSR

The eigenvalues in table 32 below demonstrate a one factor solution for employee perceptions of environmental CSR. The cumulative proportion suggests that one factor explains 64% of the variance.

Table 32

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of Environmental CSR.

Factor	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	5.76	0.64
2	0.88	0.74
3	0.54	0.80
4	0.51	0.85
5	0.36	0.89
6	0.31	0.93
7	0.27	0.96
8	0.23	0.98
9	0.15	1

The one factor solution is further evidenced in the scree plot in figure 14 below. Thus, employee perceptions of CSR scale loads upon a single factor.

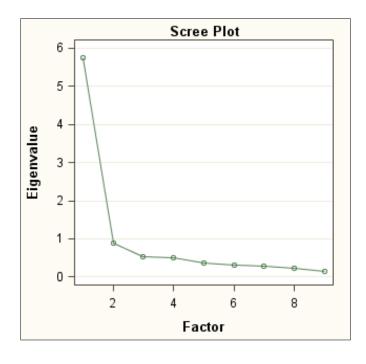


Figure 14. The Scree Plot for employee perceptions of environmental CSR.

## 4) Intention to Stay

As demonstrated in table 33 below, the eigenvalues suggest a one factor solution. This is true since there is only one eigevalue above 1 and the value thereof is significantly higher than the rest (4.10).

Table 33

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Intention to Stay

Factor	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	4.10	0.82
2	0.33	30.89
3	0.24	0.93
4	0.20	0.97
5	0.13	1

The one factor solution is further demonstrated in the scree plot in figure 15 below. Thus intention to stay loads upon one factor.

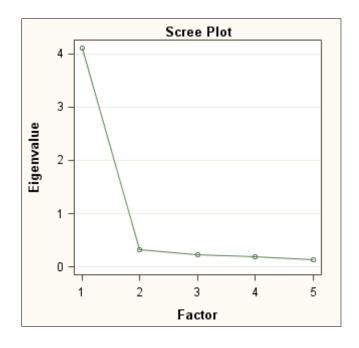


Figure 15. The Scree Plot for intention to stay.

## Appendix D

The histograms provided below supply additional information regarding the normality of the distribution in the current study. In terms of perceptions of external social CSR, the histogram in figure 16 below suggests the data is normally distributed. This is corroborated by the skewness and kurtosis values in chapter 4 of the research.

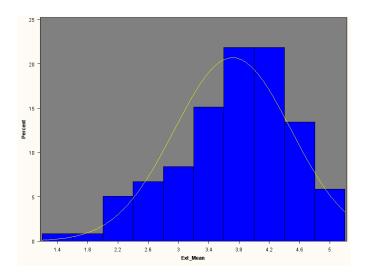


Figure 16. The histogram for perceptions of external social CSR.

Figure 17 below demonstrates the histogram for perceptions of environmental CSR which appears to be normally distributed. The modal score, 3.75, is significantly high however this does not render the data skew. This is demonstrated in the kurtosis score for perceptions of environmental CSR (0.78) which falls within the desired category, as mentioned in chapter 4.

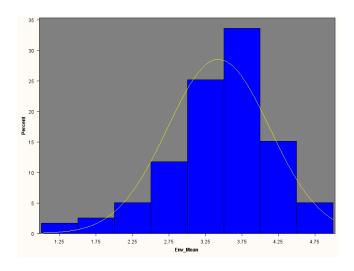


Figure 17. The histogram for perceptions of environmental CSR.

In terms of perceptions of gender equality, in figure 18 below, the high kurtosis value (1.34) described in chapter 4 is visually demonstrated. Despite this, the data appears lo lack skewness – while it is not perfectly symmetrical the lack of significant skewness is corroborated by the skewness score (-0.80) in chapter 4.

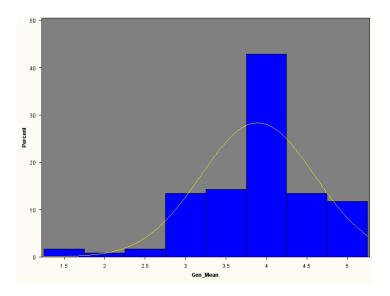


Figure 18. The histogram for perceptions of gender equality.

Figure 19 below demonstrates the distribution with regards to perceptions of racial redress. The high kurtosis value (1.15) is visually demonstrated in the high modal score. However the data does resemble a normal distribution, as determined through the skewness (-0.76) value described in chapter 4.

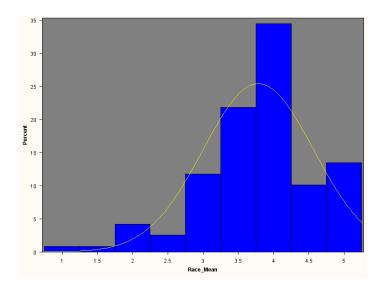


Figure 19. The histogram for perceptions of racial redress.

The high kurtosis value (1.07) for perceptions of equality with regards to sexual orientation is demonstrated in the high modal score in figure 20 below. Despite this, the data appears to be normally distributed and possesses the appropriate skewness score (-0.35).

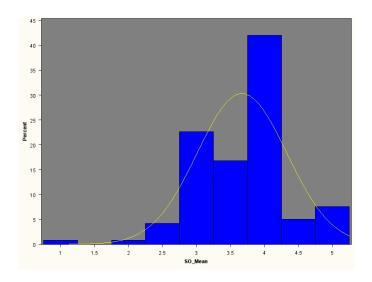


Figure 20. The histogram for perceptions of equality in terms of sexual orientation.

The histogram in figure 21 below suggests that perceptions of equality in terms of disability is normally distributed, which is corroborated by the values for skewness (-0.25) and kurtosis (0.29) described in chapter 4.

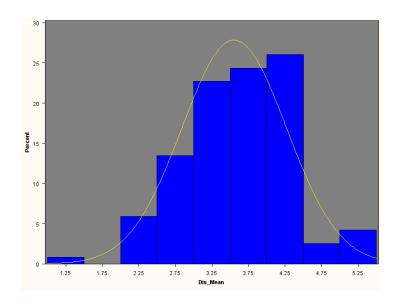


Figure 21. The histogram for perceptions of equality in terms of disability.

Normality was demonstrated for organisational commitment and intention to stay through the scores for skewness (-0.70 and -0.54 respectively) and kurtosis (-0.18 and -0.30 respectively)

in chapter 4. The normality of the data is further evidenced through the histograms in figures 22 and 23 below.

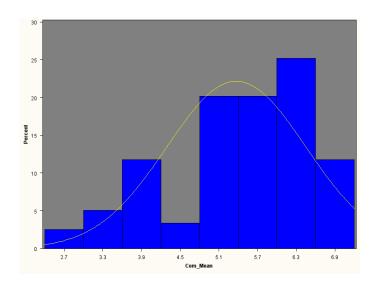


Figure 22. The histogram for organisational commitment.

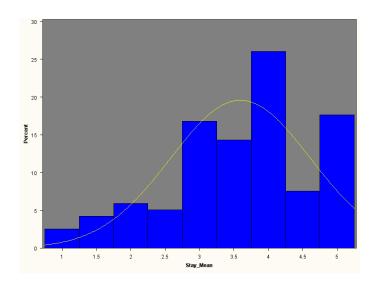


Figure 23. The histogram for intention to stay.

## Appendix E

This appendix outlines the assumptions for the multiple regressions discussed in chapter 4 of the research.

# 1) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee Perceptions of CSR and Organisational Commitment.

The following discussion will provide diagrams which will supplement the discussion in Chapter 4 of the research. Here, the statistical diagrams will demonstrate that the assumptions for the linear regression examining employee perceptions of CSR and commitment are met.

**1.1) Outliers.** An examination of the Cook's D, in figure 24 below demonstrates the presence of outliers. Specifically, there appears to be two extremely high values above the 0.12 threshold discussed in chapter 4.

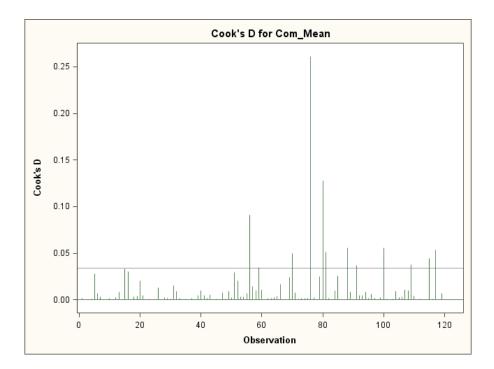


Figure 24. Cook's D for organisational commitment.

Once the outliers were removed and the regression analysis was rerun, Cook's D was again examined in order to ensure that there were no longer outliers present in the data. Again the horizontal line provided (0.038) was multiplied by 3 in order to determine a threshold of acceptable Cook's D values. The threshold of 0.114 was not exceeded by any values, as demonstrated in Figure 25 below. This reveals that there were no further outliers in the data.

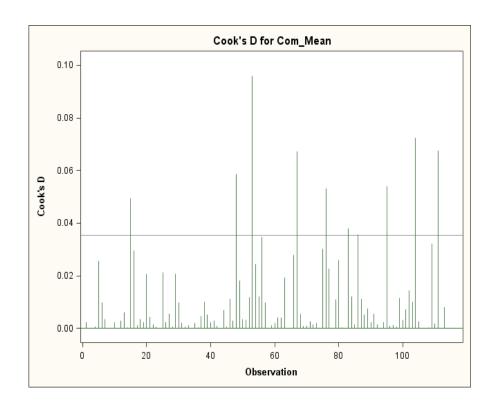


Figure 25. Cook's D once the outliers were removed.

**1.2) Normality, Homogeneity of Variances and Linearity.** As demonstrated in figure 26 below, the residuals were normally distributed. The histogram below represents the data once the outliers were removed and demonstrates that the assumption of normality was met.

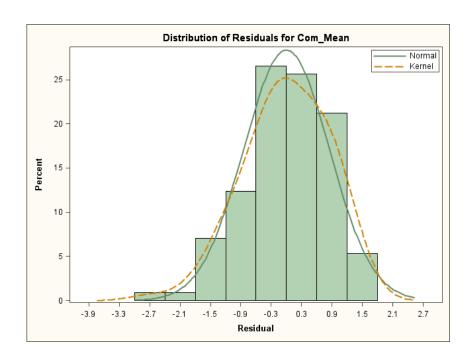


Figure 26. A histogram to examine the normality of the residuals for organisational commitment.

The studentised residual in figure 27 below demonstrates that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met. The points on the studentised residual are all roughly gathered around the horizontal line, with few points that fall outside the predominant area.

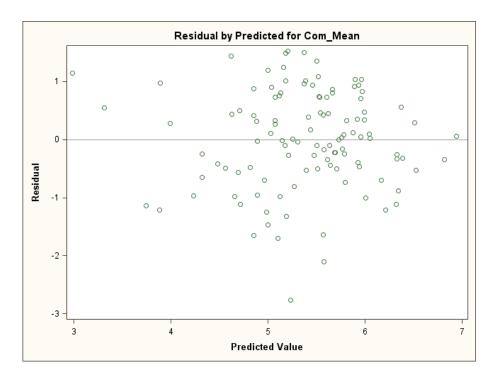


Figure 27. Studentised residual for organisational commitment

# 2) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee Perceptions of CSR and Intention to Stay

**2.1) Outliers.** As demonstrated in figure 28 below, the horizontal line in Cook's D possesses a value of 0.4 which, when multiplied by 3, yields a threshold of 0.12. All participants with values exceeding 0.12 (n = 5) were removed.

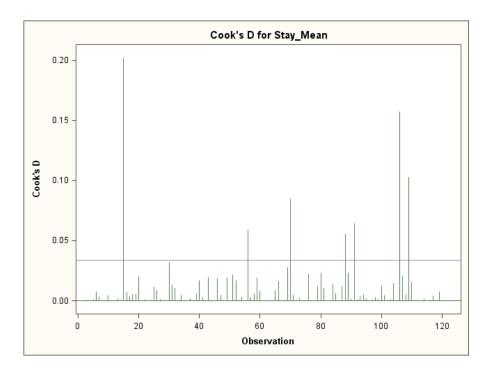


Figure 28. Cook's D for intention to stay.

Once the outliers were removed, the analysis was rerun. As demonstrated in figure 29 below, the data contained further outliers. Thus, any individuals with a Cook's D value above 0.1125 were removed (n = 1) since this was the threshold calculated when the horizontal line was multiplied by three.

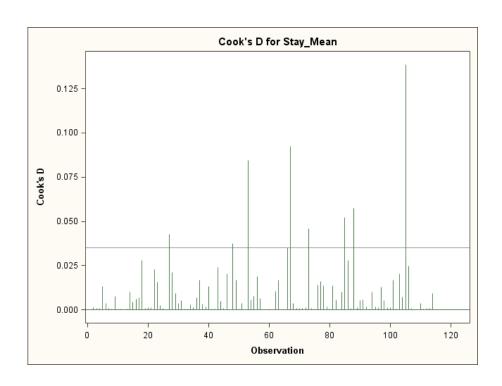


Figure 29. Cook's D for intention to stay once four outliers were removed.

In order to ensure no further outliers were present in the sample, the multiple regression was rerun and Cook's D was once again examined. Figure 30 below demonstrates that no further outliers exist in the data – the horizontal line, 0.035, when multiplied by three yields a threshold of 0.105 which was not exceeded by any participants.

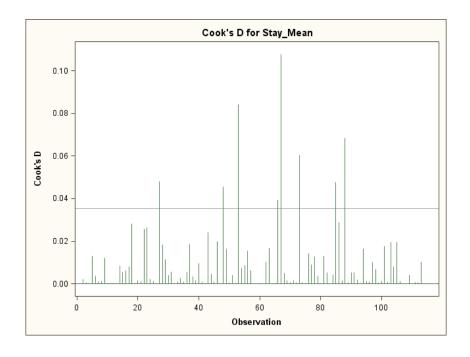


Figure 30. Cook's D for intention to stay once 5 outliers were removed.

**2.2) Normality, Homogeneity of Variances and Linearity.** The assumption of the normality of residuals was met, as demonstrated in the histogram in figure 31 below, as the data resembles a bell-shaped distribution.

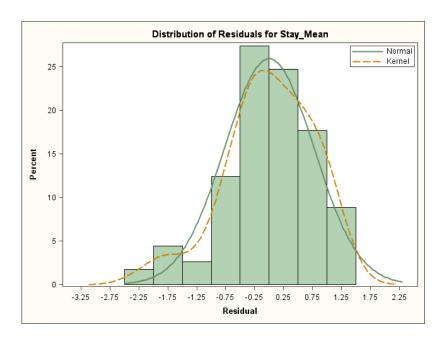


Figure 31. A histogram to examine the normality of the residuals for intention to stay.

The studentised residual in figure 32 below demonstrates that the data has homogeneity of variances, since the residuals are distributed around the horizontal line and do not exceed -2 and 2.

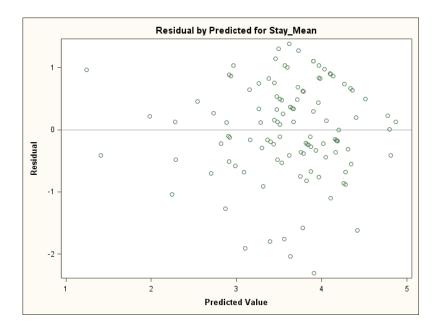


Figure 32. Studentised residuals for intention to stay.

## Appendix F

This appendix will outline the eigenvalues, cumulative proportions and provide the scree plots for the two exploratory factor analyses conducted. The first section will examine the aforementioned criteria for the perceptions of CSR with the data attained once the outliers for organisational commitment were removed. The second section will examine perceptions of CSR with the data attained once the outliers pertaining to intention to stay were removed. Two exploratory factor analyses were conducted since the data for each dependent variable had different outliers, thus necessitating the use of different analyses.

#### 1) The First Exploratory Factor Analysis for Employee Perceptions of CSR

The data utilised to examine the factor analysis for CSR perceptions possesses none of the outliers removed from the organisational commitment data. As demonstrated in table 34 below, the eigenvalue for one factor is 3.55 while that for two factors is 0.92. This would suggest a one factor solution, and possibly a two factor solution since 0.92 is extremely close to the suggested 1.00 value.

Table 34

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of CSR

Factor	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	3.55	0.59
2	0.92	0.74
3	0.52	0.83
4	0.50	0.92
5	0.27	0.96
6	0.23	1

An examination of the scree plot in figure 33 below suggests a two factor solution. This, in conjunction with the eigenvalues above suggests that perceptions of CSR may be examined in terms of two factors. This is accurate since the cumulative proportion in table 34 above demonstrates that two factors explain 74% of the variance.

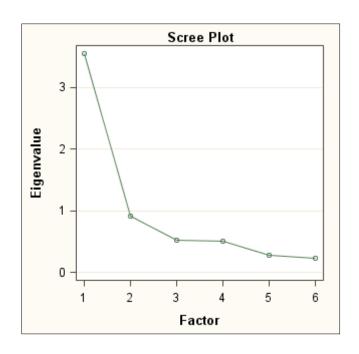


Figure 33. The scree plot for employee perceptions of CSR

## 2) The Second Exploratory Factor Analysis for Employee Perceptions of CSR

This exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the data which removed the outliers for intention to stay. As demonstrated in table 35 below, a two factor solution is viable for perceptions of CSR where two factors explain 76% of the variance.

Table 35

The Eigen Values and Cumulative Proportion for Employee Perceptions of External Social CSR

Factor	Eigenvalue	<b>Cumulative Proportion</b>
1	3.52	0.59
2	1.1	0.76
3	0.52	0.85
4	0.44	0.92
5	0.24	0.96
6	0.21	1

The scree plot in figure 34 below supports the above evidence which demonstrates that employee perceptions of CSR fall under two factors.

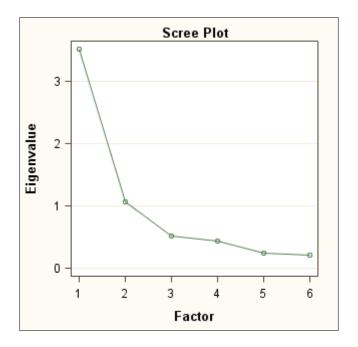


Figure 34. The scree plot for employee perceptions of CSR

## Appendix G

The appendix examines the assumptions for the multiple regressions which utilised two independent variables, namely internal and external CSR on organisational commitment and intention to stay.

- 1) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee Perceptions of Internal and External CSR and Organisational Commitment.
- **1.1) Outliers.** As depicted in figure 35 below, the data contained no outliers. The horizontal line in Cook's D, when multiplied by three, yields a threshold of 0.105. The visual representation of Cook's D below as well as an examination of the values of Cook's D for each participant demonstrates that there are not outliers in the data.

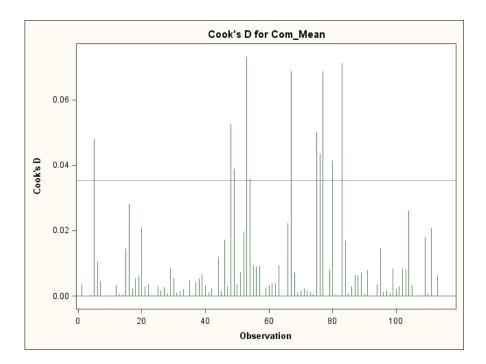


Figure 35. Cook's D for internal CSR, external CSR and organisational commitment.

**1.2) Normality, Linearity and Homogeneity of Variances.** The assumption referring to the normal distribution of the residuals is evident in figure 36 below.

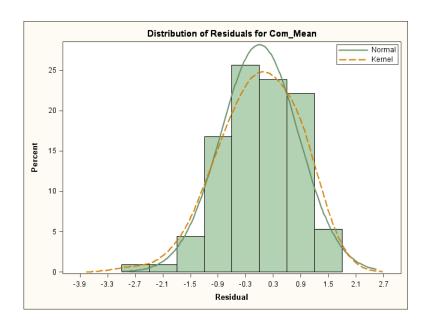


Figure 36. The histogram for the residuals of organisational commitment.

Homogeneity of variances is further achieved, as demonstrated in figure 37 below since most of the points occur near the horizontal axis.

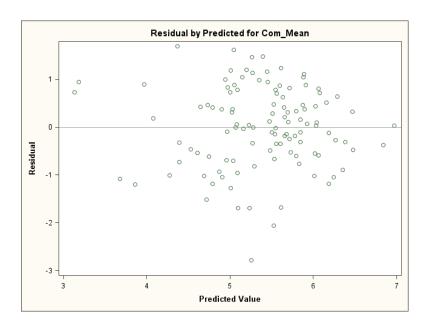


Figure 37. The studentised residuals for organisational commitment.

# 2) The Assumptions for the Multiple Regression Examining Employee Perceptions of Internal and External CSR and Intention to Stay.

**2.1) Outliers**. The threshold value for Cook's D was 0.1125, as described in chapter 4. Cook's D in figure 38 below suggests one outlier is present. However, when the individual

scores for Cook's D were examined, no participants had a value which exceeded the 0.1125 threshold. This therefore suggests that there are no outliers in the data.

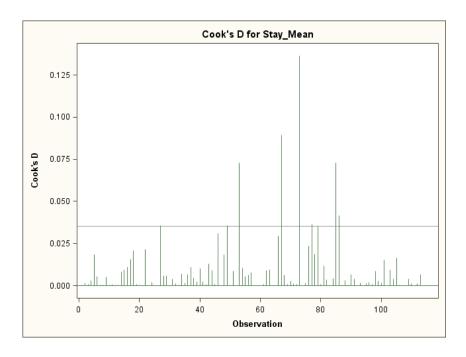


Figure 38. Cook's D for internal CSR, external CSR and intention to stay.

**2.2) Normality, Linearity and Homogeneity of Variances.** Figure 39 below provides a histogram which demonstrates that the residuals are normally distributed.

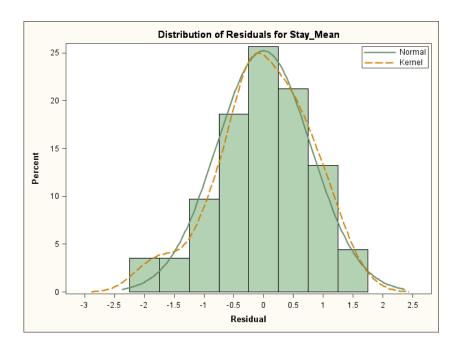


Figure 39. The histogram for the residuals of intention to stay.

Moreover, an examination if the studentised residuals in figure 40 suggests that the homogeneity of variance assumption is met and that there is linearity.

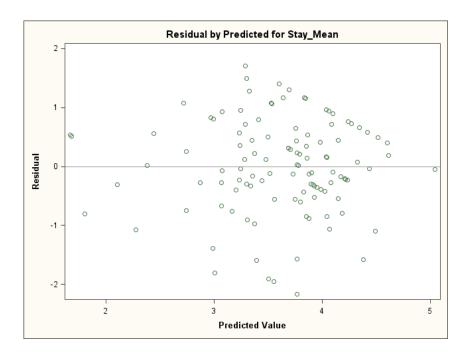


Figure 40. The studentised residuals for intention to stay.

# Appendix H

## 1) AHP: Priority Vectors

In table 36 below, the priority vector for each participant in the study is described for each of the preference variables. For each participant the values for all the preference variables combined add up to one. The highest preference value denotes that the particular CSR practice is a preference where decreasing values represent decreasing preference. Thus, the first participant has relatively equal preferences for all CSR practices. This contrasts to the third participant who favours equality in terms of disability and environmental CSR.

Table 36

The Priority Vector for each Participant

Part	Pref_Ext	Pref_Env	Pref_Gen	Pref_Race	Pref_SO	Pref_Disab
1	0.19	0.14	0.17	0.14	0.18	0.18
2	0.13	0.21	0.15	0.21	0.14	0.15
3	0.23	0.31	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.33
4	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.18
5	0.32	0.27	0.11	0.10	0.06	0.13
6	0.19	0.19	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.17
7	0.33	0.19	0.21	0.03	0.03	0.23
8	0.22	0.14	0.15	0.16	0.18	0.15
9	0.18	0.32	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.18
10	0.21	0.20	0.11	0.18	0.12	0.18
11	0.06	0.04	0.14	0.02	0.23	0.52
12	0.20	0.30	0.14	0.12	0.10	0.14
13	0.19	0.19	0.21	0.07	0.16	0.18
14	0.18	0.20	0.19	0.11	0.13	0.19
15	0.41	0.10	0.24	0.11	0.02	0.13
16	0.52	0.08	0.16	0.03	0.04	0.16
17	0.10	0.22	0.08	0.23	0.03	0.34
18	0.40	0.11	0.14	0.09	0.13	0.13
19	0.10	0.08	0.18	0.07	0.11	0.46
20	0.14	0.20	0.18	0.08	0.13	0.27

21	0.37	0.11	0.17	0.14	0.12	0.09
22	0.21	0.22	0.12	0.07	0.25	0.13
23	0.34	0.22	0.13	0.09	0.10	0.13
24	0.23	0.20	0.15	0.21	0.08	0.15
25	0.35	0.23	0.06	0.03	0.11	0.21
26	0.03	0.18	0.15	0.11	0.33	0.20
27	0.26	0.20	0.15	0.12	0.13	0.16
28	0.14	0.15	0.23	0.15	0.17	0.16
29	0.13	0.05	0.15	0.21	0.23	0.23
30	0.21	0.18	0.23	0.04	0.13	0.21
31	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.16	0.20
32	0.29	0.26	0.14	0.07	0.11	0.12
33	0.17	0.30	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.21
34	0.28	0.23	0.15	0.13	0.10	0.12
35	0.24	0.19	0.16	0.09	0.14	0.18
36	0.25	0.15	0.14	0.12	0.15	0.19
37	0.14	0.15	0.19	0.19	0.15	0.17
38	0.16	0.53	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.11
39	0.19	0.16	0.14	0.17	0.17	0.19
40	0.20	0.08	0.17	0.17	0.18	0.20
41	0.16	0.16	0.18	0.08	0.17	0.25
42	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.15	0.09	0.18
43	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17
44	0.33	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.05	0.12
45	0.33	0.30	0.14	0.02	0.02	0.20
46	0.26	0.37	0.13	0.05	0.06	0.14
47	0.17	0.21	0.14	0.16	0.08	0.23
48	0.17	0.23	0.12	0.01	0.25	0.22
49	0.16	0.19	0.21	0.14	0.16	0.14
50	0.18	0.52	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.07
51	0.25	0.17	0.13	0.23	0.08	0.15
52	0.15	0.08	0.16	0.30	0.17	0.14

53	0.21	0.28	0.10	0.17	0.12	0.13
54	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.16	0.17	0.17
55	0.14	0.21	0.16	0.10	0.14	0.24
56	0.30	0.31	0.14	0.03	0.08	0.13
57	0.24	0.19	0.17	0.14	0.11	0.17
58	0.12	0.09	0.18	0.22	0.17	0.22
59	0.28	0.06	0.12	0.21	0.18	0.15
60	0.30	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.10	0.23
61	0.14	0.26	0.15	0.19	0.13	0.14
62	0.25	0.53	0.06	0.12	0.03	0.01
63	0.18	0.48	0.10	0.07	0.09	0.09
64	0.19	0.41	0.09	0.04	0.09	0.17
65	0.15	0.30	0.08	0.18	0.14	0.15
66	0.24	0.11	0.19	0.06	0.19	0.21
67	0.11	0.09	0.21	0.39	0.07	0.12
68	0.39	0.13	0.12	0.09	0.12	0.15
69	0.20	0.25	0.21	0.03	0.16	0.15
70	0.32	0.24	0.08	0.17	0.10	0.10
71	0.47	0.07	0.23	0.04	0.11	0.09
72	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17
73	0.19	0.16	0.15	0.13	0.16	0.20
74	0.29	0.20	0.11	0.07	0.13	0.18
75	0.19	0.08	0.08	0.39	0.12	0.13
76	0.13	0.16	0.40	0.04	0.15	0.11
77	0.09	0.24	0.20	0.23	0.12	0.13
78	0.14	0.36	0.10	0.16	0.12	0.11
79	0.28	0.18	0.36	0.05	0.06	0.07
80	0.13	0.18	0.16	0.18	0.16	0.19
81	0.35	0.17	0.10	0.16	0.08	0.14
82	0.15	0.22	0.16	0.14	0.19	0.14
83	0.34	0.13	0.11	0.03	0.11	0.27
84	0.20	0.16	0.16	0.18	0.14	0.16
·	·	·	·	·	·	

85	0.17	0.18	0.06	0.45	0.09	0.04
86	0.20	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.17	0.15
87	0.24	0.12	0.13	0.08	0.23	0.20
88	0.13	0.23	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.15
89	0.21	0.40	0.13	0.05	0.06	0.15
90	0.32	0.16	0.12	0.07	0.09	0.24
91	0.23	0.13	0.11	0.12	0.17	0.24
92	0.15	0.03	0.19	0.04	0.49	0.11
93	0.16	0.41	0.11	0.09	0.15	0.08
94	0.27	0.13	0.15	0.19	0.11	0.15
95	0.22	0.05	0.30	0.02	0.19	0.22
96	0.18	0.24	0.15	0.13	0.15	0.14
97	0.14	0.20	0.12	0.12	0.28	0.15
98	0.19	0.23	0.18	0.06	0.15	0.19
99	0.28	0.11	0.08	0.12	0.30	0.10
100	0.16	0.17	0.21	0.22	0.13	0.11
101	0.37	0.15	0.06	0.06	0.14	0.21
102	0.42	0.19	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.15
103	0.17	0.16	0.10	0.31	0.14	0.12
104	0.26	0.17	0.08	0.06	0.03	0.41
105	0.17	0.26	0.15	0.09	0.13	0.21
106	0.15	0.20	0.30	0.14	0.10	0.12
107	0.22	0.41	0.07	0.13	0.05	0.12
108	0.24	0.21	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.17
109	0.32	0.14	0.04	0.43	0.03	0.03
110	0.09	0.36	0.15	0.11	0.14	0.14
111	0.25	0.12	0.10	0.32	0.12	0.09
112	0.15	0.16	0.07	0.14	0.29	0.19
113	0.17	0.24	0.40	0.06	0.03	0.10
114	0.28	0.16	0.09	0.43	0.03	0.01
115	0.24	0.52	0.07	0.11	0.04	0.02
116	0.23	0.17	0.21	0.09	0.16	0.14

117	0.33	0.13	0.14	0.12	0.13	0.15
118	0.37	0.26	0.13	0.05	0.08	0.10
119	0.17	0.47	0.09	0.06	0.08	0.13

## Appendix I

### 1) Distribution Analysis for Perceptions of External and Internal CSR

As depicted in table 37 below, external CSR is normally distributed since the skewness (-0.67) and kurtosis (0.07) values fall within the desired -1 to 1 range. An examination of the p-value for Kolgomorov-Smirnov, however, suggests that the data is not normally distributed since the value is small (<0.010). However, an examination of the histogram in figure 41 below demonstrates the normality since it resembles a bell-shaped curve. The skewness and kurtosis values along with the histogram thus suggest that the data is normally distributed. Table 37 below further demonstrates the normality for internal CSR. The skewness value falls within the desired range (-0.87) however the kurtosis value does not (2.32). Moreover, Kolmogorov-Smirnov suggests the data is not normally distributed due to the small value thereof (<0.010). An examination of the histogram in figure 42 below, however, suggests normality since it resembles a bell-shaped curve. The histogram and skewness value, along with central limit theorem suggest that the data is normally distributed.

Table 37

Distribution Analysis for External and Internal CSR

	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov-
			Smirnov
External CSR	-0.64	0.07	< 0.010
Internal CSR	-0.87	2.32	< 0.010

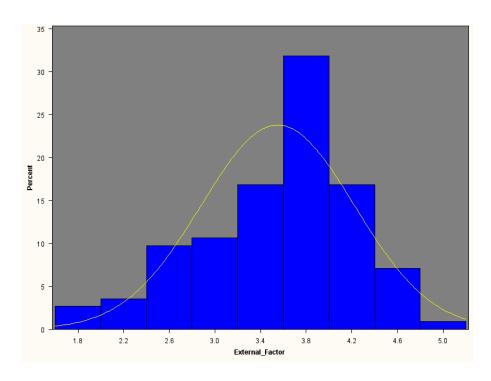


Figure 41. The histogram for external CSR.

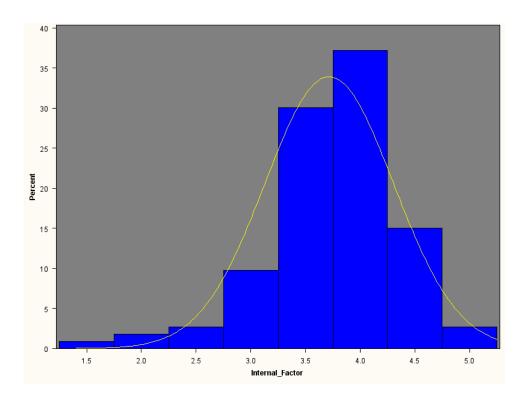


Figure 42. The histogram for internal CSR.

## Appendix J

This appendix will provide the colllinearity diagnostics for each of the multiple regressions run in the study. The largest value in each table is considered, where a value above 30 suggests multicollinearity is present.

#### 1) Section 1: Employee perceptions of CSR practices and organisational commitment

Table 38 below demonstrates that multicollinearity was present when all the independent variables were examined against organisational commitment since the condition index exceeds 30.

Table 38

Collinearity Diagnostics for the Six Independent Variables and Organisational Commitment

Number	<b>Condition Index</b>
1	14.69
2	17.68
3	18.78
4	21.72
5	26.25
6	31.07

## 2) Section 2: Employee perceptions of CSR practices and intention to stay

As demonstrated in table 39 below, multicollinearity was present when all the independent variables were predicted against intention to stay.

Table 39

Collinearity Diagnostics for the Six Independent Variables and Intention to Stay

Number	<b>Condition Index</b>
1	13.20
2	18.09
3	19.20
4	21.98
5	27.36
6	31.71

#### 3) Section 3: Internal and External CSR on Organisational Commitment

Table 40 below demonstrates that multicollinearity is not present when internal and external CSR are predicted upon organisational commitment. This is true since the highest value of the condition index is 16.94, which is below the 30 threshold.

Table 40

Collinearity Diagnostics for Internal CSR, External CSR and Organisational Commitment

Number	<b>Condition Index</b>
2	13.84
3	16.94

#### 4) Section 4: Internal and External CSR on Intention to Stay

As demonstrated in table 41 below, multicollinearity is not present when internal and external CSR are predicted upon intention to stay since the values for the condition index are below 30.

Table 41

Collinearity Diagnostics for Internal CSR, External CSR and Intention to Stay

Number		Condition Index		
-	2	13.01		
-	3	15.96		