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**CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, REPUTATION AND PERFORMANCE
IN THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE**

BY

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**A thesis submitted for the requirement for Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Degree in
the discipline of Business Administration**

in the

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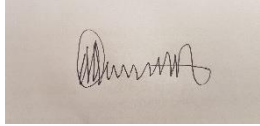
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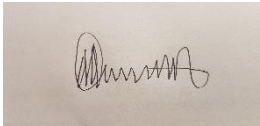


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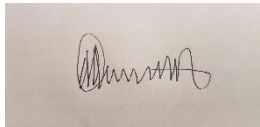


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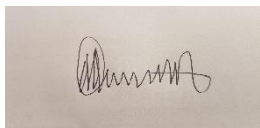


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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my late mother and entire family for support and encouragement throughout the study. The perpetual support enhanced my confidence and motivation towards achieving this goal.

ABSTRACT

The world over the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has gradually evolved from a theoretical concept to a managerial tool used to shape organisational competitiveness. Thus, this study sought to establish the influence of CSR on reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe, given the limited evidence of such studies in the body of knowledge. The framework for data collection, presentation, analysis and interpretation was guided by the positivist paradigm, quantitative approach, and descriptive survey design. With the questionnaire being utilised to collect data from 330 respondents who were purposively and conveniently sampled from the targeted mines. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was employed to test for the validity and reliability of the designed instrument. In addition, the Pearson's correlation was used to determine relationships between constructs, while regression analysis was used to predict the reputation value based on causality. In addition, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed to determine the factor structure of the data collected based on the relationship of constructs and items.

The analysed data revealed that most respondents, through descriptive statistics, agreed with the construct items except political corporate social responsibility (PCSR), which had the least mean score of (4.7311). This implied that the respondents somewhat agreed PCSR was being observed though at marginal levels. The other constructs stakeholder corporate social responsibility (SCSR), environment corporate social responsibility (ENCSR), ethical corporate social responsibility (ETCSR), and social corporate responsibility (SOCSR) had mean scores above 4, indicating that respondents agreed that CSR was being observed to retain a reputable image. Furthermore, regression analysis revealed that four of the stated hypotheses supported the assumption on SCSR, ETCSR, operational performance (OP), and social performance (SP). Furthermore, the results revealed that PCSR, ENCSR, SOCSR, and economic performance (EP) could not be used to support reputation.

The results on the hypotheses statements confirmed the empirical literature assumptions. Thus, partnerships, trust, honesty, disclosure, competitive advantage, operational efficiency, values based on morality, and transparency were confirmed to be by-products of CSR practices. Based on this, it can be argued that mining firms in Zimbabwe could employ CSR as a strategic tool to handle stakeholders' concerns. In this regard, a theoretical model was crafted for the mining sector in Zimbabwe, which reduced independent variables to two, namely the SCSR and ETCSR. Hence the results established a strong positive association between PCSR, SCSR,

SOCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR, and corporate reputation (CR). In addition, corporate performance was seen to have a positive impact on OP and SP.

Based on the above results, it is recommended that mining companies in Zimbabwe fully embrace CSR as a vehicle for engaging with stakeholders. More so, CSR programmes should be done in consultation with stakeholders, especially surrounding communities that host or provide an operating environment. Furthermore, mining companies should be wary of the cultural effects of their operations through the crafting and implementation of ethical policies. This can further be enhanced through CSR reporting on CSR initiatives and programmes.

Keywords: *corporate reputation; corporate performance, corporate social responsibility, mining industry, social exchange theory, stakeholder theory.*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	II
DEDICATION	III
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VI
LIST OF TABLES	XIV
LIST OF FIGURES	XVI
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	XVII
CHAPTER 1	1
OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	3
1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	5
1.3.1 Primary objectives	5
1.3.2 Secondary Objectives.....	5
1.3.3 Theoretical objectives	6
1.3.4 Empirical objectives	6
1.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY	6
1.5 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY	7
1.6 RESEARCH THEORIES	8
1.6.1 Stakeholder theory.....	8
1.6.2 Social exchange theory	9
1.7 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW	9
1.7.1 Corporate Social Responsibility	9
1.7.2 Sub-Components of Corporate Social Responsibility	10
1.7.3 Corporate Reputation	11
1.7.4 Corporate Performance	12
1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	12
1.8.1 Research Design	12
1.8.2 Literature Review.....	13
1.8.3 Empirical Study	13
1.8.4 Sampling Procedure	13
1.8.5 Target population	14
1.8.6 Sampling frame	14
1.8.7 Sample size.....	14
1.8.8 Sampling technique.....	14
1.8.9 Data Collection Method and Procedure.....	15
1.8.10 Data Analysis and Statistical Approaches	15
1.8.11 Reliability and Validity	16
1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	16
1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS.....	17
1.11 STRUCTURE OF THESIS.....	18
1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY+	19
CHAPTER 2	20
MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE	20

2.1	INTRODUCTION.....	20
2.2	COMPOSITION OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE	20
2.2.1	<i>Small-scale artisanal mining</i>	21
2.2.2	<i>Large-scale mining</i>	22
2.3	HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE.....	23
2.3.1	<i>Pre-Independence mining in Zimbabwe</i>	23
2.3.2	<i>Post-Independence mining in Zimbabwe</i>	25
2.3.3	<i>The emergence of new minerals</i>	27
2.4	MAJOR BODIES GOVERNING THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE	28
2.4.1	<i>Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC)</i>	28
2.4.2	<i>Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ)</i>	29
2.5	THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE	29
2.5.1	<i>Mines and Minerals Act (MMA) Chapter 21:05</i>	31
2.5.2	<i>Precious Stones Trade Act (PSTA) Chapter 21:06</i>	32
2.6.1	<i>Economic Contributions</i>	34
2.6.2	<i>Social impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe</i>	36
2.6.3	<i>The political impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe</i>	39
2.6.4	<i>Environmental impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe</i>	42
2.7	CHALLENGES FACING THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE.....	44
2.7.1	<i>Legal challenges</i>	44
2.7.2	<i>Access to capital</i>	45
2.8	PREVIOUS MANAGEMENT-BASED RESEARCH WORK IN THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE.....	45
2.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY	49
	CHAPTER 3.....	51
	CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY	51
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	51
3.2	CONCEPTUALISATION OF CSR	51
3.3	CHARACTERISTICS OF CSR	55
3.3.1	<i>Voluntarism</i>	56
3.3.2	<i>Managing externalities or internalising</i>	57
3.3.3	<i>Multiple stakeholder orientation</i>	57
3.3.4	<i>Alignment of social and economic responsibilities</i>	57
3.3.5	<i>Practices and values</i>	58
3.3.6	<i>Beyond philanthropy</i>	58
3.4	DEVELOPMENTAL DEFINITIONS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY	59
3.5	DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY	62
3.5.1	<i>Company size</i>	63
3.5.2	<i>Profitability</i>	64
3.5.3	<i>Industry sector</i>	65
3.5.4	<i>Ownership</i>	65
3.5.5	<i>Governance mechanism</i>	66
3.5.6	<i>Age of an organisation</i>	66
3.6	IMPORTANCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY	67
3.6.1	<i>Economic responsibilities</i>	69
3.6.2	<i>Legal responsibilities</i>	69
3.6.3	<i>Ethical responsibilities</i>	70
3.6.4	<i>Philanthropic responsibilities</i>	70
3.7	BENEFITS OF CSR	71
3.7.1	<i>CSR benefits for the organisation</i>	71
3.7.2	<i>CSR benefits the society</i>	73

3.8	MEASUREMENT OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY.....	75
3.8.1	<i>The importance of metrics as a tool of measuring CSR.....</i>	76
3.8.2	<i>Calibration.....</i>	77
3.8.3	<i>Evaluation.....</i>	77
3.8.4	<i>Justification.....</i>	77
3.9	DIMENSIONS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY	80
3.9.1	<i>Environmental CSR.....</i>	81
3.9.2	<i>Social CSR.....</i>	82
3.9.3	<i>Philanthropic CSR.....</i>	82
3.9.4	<i>Economic CSR.....</i>	83
3.9.5	<i>Production CSR.....</i>	83
3.9.6	<i>Stakeholder CSR.....</i>	83
3.9.7	<i>Voluntary CSR.....</i>	84
3.9.8	<i>Legal CSR.....</i>	85
3.9.9	<i>Ethics CSR.....</i>	85
3.9.10	<i>Political CSR.....</i>	85
3.10	PREVIOUS MANAGEMENT RESEARCH WORK ON CSR IN ZIMBABWE	87
3.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	90
CHAPTER 4.....		93
CORPORATE REPUTATION, PERFORMANCE AND HYPOTHESES FORMULATION... 93		
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	93
4.2	UNDERSTANDING CORPORATE REPUTATION.....	94
4.3	DEFINING CORPORATE REPUTATION.....	95
4.4	DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE REPUTATION.....	97
4.4.1	<i>Ethical corporate reputation.....</i>	97
4.4.2	<i>Employees/workplace.....</i>	98
4.4.3	<i>Financial performance.....</i>	99
4.4.4	<i>Management.....</i>	99
4.4.5	<i>Social responsibility.....</i>	99
4.4.6	<i>Customer focus.....</i>	99
4.4.7	<i>Quality.....</i>	100
4.4.8	<i>Reliability.....</i>	100
4.4.9	<i>Emotional appeal.....</i>	100
4.5	IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF CORPORATE REPUTATION	100
4.6	MEASUREMENTS OF CORPORATE REPUTATION	101
4.7	UNDERSTANDING CORPORATE PERFORMANCE	102
4.8	CORPORATE PERFORMANCE DEFINED	102
4.9	DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE PERFORMANCE.....	104
4.9.1	<i>Profitability performance.....</i>	104
4.9.2	<i>Growth performance.....</i>	105
4.9.3	<i>Market value performance of the firm.....</i>	105
4.9.4	<i>Customer satisfaction.....</i>	105
4.9.5	<i>Employee satisfaction.....</i>	105
4.9.6	<i>Environmental audit performance.....</i>	106
4.9.7	<i>Corporate governance performance.....</i>	106
4.9.8	<i>Social performance.....</i>	106
4.9.9	THE IMPORTANCE OF CORPORATE PERFORMANCE	107
4.10	COMPONENTS OF CORPORATE PERFORMANCE.....	110
4.10.1	<i>Operational performance.....</i>	110
4.10.2	<i>Social performance.....</i>	111
4.10.3	<i>Economic performance.....</i>	111

4.11	PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORKS	112
4.11.1	<i>Balanced scorecard</i>	112
4.11.2	<i>Customer perspective</i>	113
4.11.3	<i>Financial perspective</i>	113
4.11.4	<i>Learning and growth perspective</i>	113
4.11.5	<i>Malcolm Baldrige model</i>	113
4.11.6	<i>Performance prism</i>	113
4.11.7	<i>European Foundation for quality management (EFQM)</i>	114
4.12	HYPOTHESES FORMULATIONS.....	114
4.13	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	115
4.14	HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT	116
4.14.1	<i>Political CSR and corporate reputation</i>	116
4.14.2	<i>Stakeholder CSR and corporate reputation</i>	118
4.14.3	<i>Production CSR and corporate reputation</i>	119
4.14.4	<i>Environment CSR and corporate reputation</i>	120
4.14.5	<i>Ethical CSR and corporate reputation</i>	121
4.14.6	<i>Social CSR and corporate reputation</i>	122
4.14.7	<i>Corporate reputation and economic performance</i>	122
4.14.8	<i>Corporate reputation and operational performance</i>	123
4.14.9	<i>Corporate reputation and social performance</i>	124
4.15	PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CORPORATE REPUTATION IN ZIMBABWE	124
4.16	PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CORPORATE PERFORMANCE IN ZIMBABWE.....	125
CHAPTER 5.....		127
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		127
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	127
5.2	RESEARCH REASONING	127
5.2.1	<i>Deductive reasoning</i>	127
5.2.2	<i>Inductive reasoning</i>	129
5.2.3	<i>Abductive reasoning</i>	130
5.3	RESEARCH PARADIGMS/PHILOSOPHIES	131
5.3.1	<i>The positivist paradigm/philosophy</i>	131
5.3.2	<i>Post-positivism</i>	132
5.3.3	<i>Phenomenology</i>	132
5.3.4	<i>Realism</i>	133
5.3.5	<i>Pragmatism</i>	133
5.8.1	<i>Sampling Design</i>	138
5.8.2	<i>The population of the study</i>	138
5.8.3	<i>Target population</i>	138
5.8.4	<i>Sample frame</i>	139
5.8.5	<i>Sample size</i>	139
5.8.6	<i>Sampling techniques</i>	140
5.8.6.1	<i>Probability sampling</i>	141
5.8.6.2	<i>Non-probability sampling</i>	141
5.8.6.3	<i>Sampling procedure and technique for the study</i>	142
5.10	RESPONSE OPTIONS.....	153
5.11	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES.....	153
5.12	PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS	154
5.12.1	<i>Data Preparation</i>	154
5.12.2	<i>Data editing</i>	155
5.12.3	<i>Data coding</i>	155
5.12.4	<i>Data cleaning</i>	155

5.12.5	<i>Tests for normality of data</i>	156
5.12.6	<i>Descriptive statistics</i>	156
5.12.7	<i>Frequencies</i>	156
5.12.8	<i>Mean scores</i>	157
5.12.9	<i>Standard deviation</i>	157
5.12.10	<i>Exploratory factor analysis</i>	157
5.12.11	<i>Correlation analysis</i>	158
5.12.12	<i>Pearson correlation</i>	158
5.12.13	<i>Spearman correlation</i>	159
5.12.14	<i>Kendall's rank correlation</i>	159
5.12.15	<i>Regression analysis</i>	159
5.12.16	<i>Reliability</i>	160
5.12.17	<i>Validity</i>	161
5.12.17.1	<i>Face validity</i>	162
5.12.17.2	<i>Content validity</i>	162
5.12.17.3	<i>Construct validity</i>	162
5.12.17.4	<i>Convergent validity</i>	163
5.12.17.5	<i>Discriminant validity</i>	163
5.13	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	164
5.13.1	<i>Informed consent</i>	164
5.13.2	<i>Confidentiality and anonymity</i>	165
5.13.4	<i>Ethics clearance</i>	165
5.14	CHAPTER SUMMARY	165
CHAPTER 6		167
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION		167
6.1	INTRODUCTION	167
6.2	RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY	168
6.3	RESULTS OF THE MAIN STUDY	170
6.3.1	<i>Response rate</i>	170
6.4	DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS	171
6.4.1	<i>Demographic details of respondents</i>	171
6.4.1.1	<i>Gender of respondents</i>	172
6.4.1.2	<i>Age Distribution of respondents</i>	173
6.4.1.3	<i>Highest qualification of respondents</i>	173
6.4.1.4	<i>Position in an Organisation</i>	174
6.4.1.5	<i>Employment Period</i>	175
6.4.1.6	<i>Occupational area</i>	176
6.4.2.1	<i>Number of Employees</i>	177
6.5	EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)	180
6.5.1	<i>The KMO measure and the Bartlett's test</i>	180
6.5.1.1	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the political corporate social responsibility scale</i>	182
6.5.1.2	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the stakeholder corporate social responsibility scale</i>	182
6.5.1.3	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the environmental corporate social responsibility scale</i>	183
6.5.1.4	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the ethical corporate social responsibility scale</i>	184
6.5.1.5	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the social corporate social responsibility scale</i>	185
6.5.1.6	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the corporate reputation scale</i>	185
6.5.1.7	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the economic performance scale</i>	186
6.5.1.8	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the operational performance scale</i>	187
6.5.1.9	<i>Exploratory factor analysis for the social performance scale</i>	187
6.6	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONSTRUCTS	188
6.6.1	<i>Descriptive statistics of political corporate social responsibility</i>	189
6.6.2	<i>Descriptive statistics of stakeholder corporate social responsibility</i>	191
6.6.3	<i>Descriptive statistics of Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility</i>	192

6.6.4	<i>Descriptive statistics of Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility (ETCSR)</i>	193
6.6.5	<i>Descriptive statistics of Social Corporate Social Responsibility</i>	194
6.6.6	<i>Descriptive statistics of corporate reputation</i>	195
6.6.7	<i>Descriptive statistics of Economic Performance</i>	196
6.6.8	<i>Descriptive statistics of operational performance</i>	197
6.6.9	<i>Descriptive statistics of Social Performance</i>	198
6.7	PEARSON'S CORRELATIONS	200
6.7.1	<i>Correlations between political corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation</i>	202
6.7.2	<i>Correlations between stakeholder corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation</i> ...	202
6.7.3	<i>Correlations between environmental corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation</i> 203	
6.7.4	<i>Correlations between ethical corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation</i>	203
6.7.5	<i>Correlations between social corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation</i>	203
6.7.6	<i>Correlations between corporate reputation and economic performance</i>	204
6.7.7	<i>Correlations between corporate reputation and operational performance</i>	204
6.7.8	<i>Correlations between corporate reputation and social performance</i>	205
6.8	REGRESSION ANALYSIS	206
6.8.1	<i>Regression model 1: Five corporate social responsibility factors vs corporate reputation</i>	208
6.8.4	<i>Regression model 4: Corporate reputation vs social performance</i>	211
6.9	HYPOTHESES DECISIONS	211
6.10.1	<i>Constructs hypothetical decisions</i>	212
6.10.1.1	<i>Political corporate social responsibility (PCSR) and corporate reputation</i>	213
6.10.1.2	<i>Stakeholder corporate social responsibility (SCSR) and corporate reputation</i>	213
6.10.1.3	<i>Environmental corporate social responsibility (ENCSR) and corporate reputation</i>	214
6.10.1.4	<i>Ethical corporate social responsibility (ETCSR) and corporate reputation</i>	215
6.10.1.5	<i>Social corporate social responsibility (SOCSR) and corporate reputation</i>	216
6.10.1.6	<i>Economic performance</i>	216
6.10.1.7	<i>Operational performance</i>	217
6.10.1.8	<i>Social performance</i>	218
6.10.1.9	<i>The link between the results of the study to the stakeholder and social exchange theories</i>	218
6.10.1.10	<i>The link between the results of the study to stakeholder theory</i>	218
6.10.1.11	<i>The link between the results of the study and social exchange theory</i>	220
6.10	RELIABILITY TEST	221
6.11	VALIDITY	223
6.11.1	<i>Face validity</i>	223
6.11.2	<i>Content validity</i>	224
6.11.3	<i>Criterion validity</i>	224
6.11.4	<i>Construct validity</i>	225
6.12	COMMON METHOD BIAS (CMB).....	225
6.12.1	<i>IMPORTANCE OF ADDRESSING COMMON METHOD BIAS</i>	226
6.12.2	<i>COMMON METHOD BIAS REMEDIES</i>	226
6.12.2.1	<i>DIVERSE SOURCES:</i>	226
6.12.2.2	<i>RESEARCH INSTRUMENT:</i>	226
6.12.2.3	<i>HARMAN'S SINGLE FACTOR TEST:</i>	227
6.12.2.4	<i>ELIMINATING COMMON SCALE PROPERTIES:</i>	227
6.12.2.5	<i>IMPROVING SCALE ITEMS CLARITY:</i>	227
6.13	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	228
CHAPTER 7.....		229
CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....		229
7.1	INTRODUCTION.....	229
7.2	SUMMARY OF THE THESIS.....	229

7.3	CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES	232
7.3.1	<i>Overview of mining in Zimbabwe</i>	232
7.3.2	<i>Conclusions on the literature review on the conceptualisation of CSR practices about corporate reputation and performance.....</i>	232
7.3.3	<i>Conclusions on the literature review on corporate reputation</i>	235
7.3.4	<i>Conclusions on the literature review on corporate performance</i>	236
7.3.5	<i>Conclusions based on literature review on the stakeholder theory</i>	236
7.3.6	<i>Conclusions based on literature review on the social exchange theory</i>	237
7.4	CONCLUSIONS BASED ON EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES	238
7.4.1	<i>Conclusions on the levels of CSR in the mining industry in Zimbabwe</i>	238
7.4.1.1	<i>Conclusions on the levels of CSR, based on political corporate social responsibility (PCSR)</i>	238
7.4.1.2	<i>Conclusions based on the levels of CSR based on the stakeholder corporate social responsibility (SCSR)</i>	239
7.4.1.3	<i>Conclusions based on levels of CSR based on the environmental corporate social responsibility (ENCSR)</i>	239
7.4.1.4	<i>Conclusions based on levels of CSR based on ethical corporate social responsibility (ETCSR)</i>	240
7.4.1.5	<i>Conclusions based on levels of CSR based on social corporate social responsibility (SOCSR)</i>	240
7.4.2	<i>Conclusions based on the levels of corporate reputation in mining industry Zimbabwe.....</i>	241
7.4.3	<i>Conclusions based on the levels of performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.....</i>	241
7.4.4	<i>Conclusions on the relationship between CSR and corporate reputation in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.....</i>	242
7.4.4.1	<i>Relationship between PCSR and corporate reputation</i>	242
7.4.4.2	<i>Relationship between SCSR and corporate reputation.....</i>	243
7.4.4.3	<i>Relationship between ENCSR and corporate reputation.....</i>	243
7.4.4.4	<i>Relationship between ETCSR and corporate reputation</i>	243
7.4.4.5	<i>Relationship between SOCSR and corporate reputation.....</i>	244
7.4.5	<i>Conclusions on the influence of corporate reputation on corporate performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.....</i>	244
7.4.5.1	<i>Relationship between corporate reputation and economic performance</i>	245
7.4.5.2	<i>Relationship between corporate reputation and operational performance</i>	245
7.4.5.3	<i>Relationship between corporate reputation and social performance</i>	245
7.4.5.4	<i>Influence of corporate performance on corporate reputation</i>	246
7.4.6	<i>The recommended model for the mining industry in Zimbabwe</i>	247
7.5	RECOMMENDATIONS	248
7.5.1	<i>Recommendations on CSR practices</i>	248
7.5.2	<i>Recommendations based on political social corporate responsibility.....</i>	249
7.5.3	<i>Recommendations based on stakeholder social corporate responsibility.....</i>	249
7.5.4	<i>Recommendations based on environmental social corporate responsibility</i>	250
7.5.5	<i>Recommendations based on ethical corporate social responsibility</i>	251
7.5.6	<i>Recommendations based on social corporate social responsibility.....</i>	251
7.5.7	<i>Recommendations based on social performance</i>	251
7.5.8	<i>Recommendations based on operational performance</i>	252
7.5.9	<i>Recommendations based on economic performance</i>	252
7.6	CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY	253
7.6.1	<i>Theoretical contributions.....</i>	253
7.6.2	<i>Practical contributions</i>	253
7.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	255
7.8	SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY	256
7.9	CONCLUSIONS	256
	REFERENCES.....	259
	APPENDIX 1.....	286
	SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	286

APPENDIX 2.....	292
MINISTRY OF MINES AND MINING DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY LETTER	292
APPENDIX 3.....	293
THE CHAMBER OF MINES.....	293
APPENDIX 4.....	294
ETHICS CLEARANCE LETTER.....	294
APPENDIX 5.....	295
DECLARATION BY LANGUAGE EDITOR	295
APPENDIX 6.....	296
TURNITIN.....	296

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Historical Progression of CSR development	53
Table 3.2: Examples of stakeholder metrics	78
Table 4.1: Developmental definitions of corporate performance	103
Table 5.1: Details for the Political CSR Scale	145
Table 5.2: Details for the Stakeholder CSR Scale	146
Table 5.3: Details for the Production CSR Scale.....	147
Table 5.4: Details for the Environmental CSR Scale	148
Table 5.5: Details for the Ethical CSR Scale	149
Table 5.6: Details for the Social CSR Scale	150
Table 5.7: Details for the Economic Performance CSR Scale.....	151
Table 5.8: Details for the Operational Performance Scale	152
Table 5.9: Details for the Social Performance Scale	152
Table 6.1: Results of the Pilot Test.....	169
Table 6.2: Response rate	170
Table 6.3: Demographic distribution statistics	171
Table 6.4: Demographic profile of mining firms.....	176
Table 6.5: The KMO measure and the Bartlett’s test results.....	181
Table 6.6: Two-factor structure for the political corporate social responsibility scale	182
Table 6.7: Two-factor structure factor structure for the stakeholder corporate social responsibility scale.....	183
Table 6.8: Unidimensional factor structure for the environmental corporate social responsibility scale.....	183
Table 6.9: Unidimensional factor structure for the ethical corporate social responsibility scale	184
Table 6.10: Two-factor structure for the social corporate social responsibility scale	185
Table 6.11: Two-factor structure for the corporate reputation scale	185
Table 6.12: Two-factor structure for the economic performance scale	186
Table 6.13: Unidimensional factor structure for the operational performance scale.....	187
Table 6.14: Unidimensional factor structure for the economic performance scale	188
Table 6.15: Summary descriptive statistics	188
Table 6.16: Descriptive statistics of political corporate social responsibility	189
Table 6.18: Descriptive statistics of environmental corporate social responsibility	192

Table 6.19: Descriptive statistics of ethical corporate social responsibility	193
Table 6.20: Descriptive statistics of social corporate social responsibility	194
Table 6.21: Descriptive statistics of corporate reputation	195
Table 6.22: Descriptive statistics of economic performance	196
Table 6.23: Descriptive statistics of operational performance.....	197
Table 6.24: Descriptive statistics of social performance	198
Table 6.25: Pearson’s Correlation results	201
Table 6.26: Regression analysis model 1 results	208
Table 6.27: Regression analysis model 2 results	209
Table 6.28: Regression analysis model 3 results.	210
Table 6.29: Regression analysis model 4 results	211
Table 6.30: Hypotheses decision results	212
Table 6.31: Scale Reliability results	221

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: A Conceptual framework on Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Reputation and Performance in the Mining Sector in Zimbabwe.....	7
Figure 2.1: Quarterly Gold Output Trend Analysis 2017-2018.....	22
Figure 2.2: The Great Dyke Mineral Belt of Zimbabwe	25
Figure 2.3: Sector Contributions to Shipments.....	38
Figure 2.4: Land degradation caused by artisanal mining	43
Figure 3.1: Definition of CSR in the 21 st Century	60
Figure 3.2 CSR benefits to the organisation	73
Figure 3.3 Benefits of CSR to society	75
Figure 3.4: Organisational Obligations to Society: Cyclical Matrix of CSR	80
Figure 4.1: The determinants of corporate reputation within a firm.....	98
Figure 4.2: Conceptual framework on CSR, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe.	115
Figure 5.1: Deductive reasoning	129
Figure 5.2: Sampling Techniques	140
Figure 6.1: Analysis framework	168
Figure 6.2: Gender distribution.....	172
Figure 6.3: Age distribution.....	173
Figure 6.4 Highest qualification	174
Figure 6.5: Position in the organisation	174
Figure 6.6 Employment period distribution.....	175
Figure 6.7: Area of occupation	176
Figure 6.8: Number of Employees.....	177
Figure 6.9: Number of years in operation	178
Figure 6.10: Type of Mineral.....	179
Figure 6.11: Annual turnover.....	180
Figure 7.1: Model for CSR practices in the mining industry in Zimbabwe	247

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BSAC	British South African Company
CG	Corporate Governance
CMB	Common Method Bias
CPA	Corporate Political Activity
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EMA	Environmental Management Agency
ETCSR	Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
MIEE	Ministry of Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment
MMCZ	Mineral Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe
MMD	Mining and Mining Development
MNC	Multinational Companies
PCSR	Political Corporate Social Responsibility
PRCSR	Production Corporate Social Responsibility
RBZ	Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe
SCSR	Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SOCSR	Social Corporate Social Responsibility
ZIMRA	Zimbabwe Revenue Authority
ZMDC	Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The economies of most Sub-Saharan African countries thrive on mining activities as they are endowed with rich mineral wealth (Mawowa, 2013:2; Mlambo, 2016:1). Zimbabwe is no exception, as its mining sector made phenomenal growth at the turn of the millennium, which saw both public and private players investing heavily in the sector (Malinga, 2018:74; Mlambo, 2016:2). The increased mining activities had notable and significant contributions to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), notably during the first quarter of 2018, where most key minerals registered strong positive performance (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe Quarterly Economic Review, 2018:15).

Despite its notable contributions to Zimbabwe and other economies worldwide, the mining sector has attracted much attention because of its operational inconsistencies. These inconsistencies have primarily been attributed to several factors such as globalisation, greater access to information, unfair business practices, corporate profits, persistent poverty, and environmental catastrophes (Idowu & Filho, 2009:295; Moyo & Mabhena, 2014:4; Cronje, Reyneke & Chenga, 2017:4). Mining activities carried out by most corporations have resulted in huge profits while the surrounding communities remain undeveloped, with rampant environmental degradation and the people living in abject poverty (Crowther & Aras, 2008:14; Mawowa, 2013:1; Moyo & Mabhena, 2014:5). This state of affairs has raised calls for mining firms to adopt CSR as a mitigation measure of contributing towards sustainable economic development, where firms integrate social, economic, and environmental concerns in their business strategies, particularly in the communities they operate and reside (Crowther & Aras, 2008:16; Okwemba, Chitiavi, Egessa, Douglas & Musiega, 2014:37).

CSR is generally viewed as the continued commitment by businesses to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce, their families, and the society at large (Mason & Simmons, 2014:78; Adeneye & Ahmed, 2015:151). The CSR initiative entirely depends upon the adopted economic perspective of the firm, with the apparent intent to maximise shareholder value with CSR considered secondary (Tyagi, 2012:1). Successful CSR identifies three important parties, namely business, government, and communities. Business or the corporate sector is the driving force behind this initiative, as its

primary goal is the creation of a favourable local operating environment, which means it must be concerned about the welfare and wellbeing of the society in which it operates (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007:112; Dziro, 2014:62). On the other hand, the government is interested in long-term sustainable growth and development, emphasising good corporate governance and CSR in particular (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:14). Finally, communities, in general, are concerned with good livelihoods focusing on the quality of life, which should not diminish the physical and cultural environment which should not deteriorate as well as prospects of employment and earnings (Dziro, 2014:63; Galant & Cadez, 2017:677; Cronje, Reyneke & Chenga, 2017:15).

The nature and scale of CSR activities vary with each developmental phase, making it difficult to define and cost such programmes upfront. However, on the other hand, communities expect immediate gains from such ventures that directly affect their lives. Usually, communities are left living in poverty, with polluted water sources due to hazardous substances and sludge deposited into rivers, endangering livestock and degrading agricultural land (Centre for Research and Development Report, 2014:9). In the Zimbabwean context, most of the CSR activities by multinational firms are out of charity, and public relations stunts are meant to pacify dissenting voices based on profits and get tax rebates (Maphosa, 1997:181; Masuku & Moyo, 2013:113). Although various reasons have been put forward to justify the absence of meaningful CSR by stakeholders in the mining sector, the reputation or image portrayed by mining corporations in Zimbabwe is deplorable and shows a lack of commitment (Malinga, 2018:89). For instance, the Chiadzwa Diamond Mines debacle located 80km from Mutare City in the eastern highlands is an ideal example, which tells a story of the bad reputation of the mining corporations (Katsaura, 2010:340; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:152). In this instance, numerous corporates sought to exploit diamond mining after discovering diamonds in the area. The rush by prospective miners systematically displaced the interests and peace of the inhabitants of the Chiadzwa area, where the diamonds were found (Katsaura, 2010:341; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:145). The local community endured untold suffering as exploration and production were conducted concurrently with very little and no evidence of meaningful CSR projects. Chiadzwa today does not have much to show for an area that had more than twelve corporations mining diamonds at the peak of the venture. There are very few infrastructure developments to show, roads are still in gravel, and some schools are in a derelict state (Katsaura, 2010:350; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146). This unfortunate situation earned the mining corporations a bad reputation because of insincerity and false pretence (Mathende

& Nhapi, 2017:153). Most corporates were then labelled plunderers, looters, and smugglers bent on siphoning the precious mineral, which damaged the corporations' reputation.

Corporate reputation, in the instances, cited above directly affects the strategic behaviour patterns of a firm and the observable characteristics that are of strategic importance to its survival, growth, and profitability (Adeosun & Ganiyu, 2013:220). This implies that CSR, reputation, and performance remain a farce to most communities and the nation of Zimbabwe at large. CSR, therefore, remains a contested area and by no means certain that everyone thinks that it is essential or relevant to modern business (Crowther & Aras, 2008:10).

It is against the above background that this study sought to gain insights into the relationship between CSR, corporate reputation, and performance in the mining industry within the Zimbabwean context. It is envisaged that the inclusion of CSR into mainstream corporate strategic plans can earn corporates a good reputation and improved performance results operationally, socially, and economically (Galant & Cadez, 2017:678; Feldman, Bahamonde & Bellido, 2014:60). Furthermore, advocates of CSR argue that incorporating CSR in strategic plans improves the image and performance of the mining firm. When a mining firm exercises CSR, it informs community members that it is a friend of the society. This improves the impression people have of the corporate existence of the mining firm (Goel & Ramanathan, 2014:50). The Zimbabwean mining sector regrettably has a poor CSR record and is better known for exporting the minerals extracted from the country to other markets elsewhere for processing, value addition, and selling for huge profits. Information is thus required that provides evidence of the benefits of CSR activities to mining firms in Zimbabwe, hence the need for this study as a scientific response to the current situation.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Over the years, Zimbabwe's economy has been anchored on the agricultural and mining sectors, and the two sectors contributed and complimented each other towards the country's revenue in improving the Zimbabwean economy (Malinga, 2018:72). However, despite the marginal successes posted in the two sectors, the mining sector has been under scrutiny for various reasons, including the sector's growth after the economy's stagnation. This growth within the mining sector led stakeholders to notice the non-existence of CSR programmes (James, 2013:122; Moyo & Mabhena, 2014:4). In this regard, mining firms are expected to develop sustainable strategies to deal with the intersection between societal needs, the natural environment, and corresponding business imperatives (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:143). It is

against this background that Zimbabwe's large corporate mining firms have remained production-centred with no meaningful CSR strategies in place to address social concerns that could be used to increase the levels of corporate reputation and productivity through synergies with local communities with subsequent positive effects on profitability, share value and the firm's image (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:14; Marfo, Amoako, Antwi, Ghansah & Mohammed Baba, 2017:194).

The implementation of CSR in the mining sector in Zimbabwe has not been consistent over the years, with some firms not being involved in such activities for various reasons (Mawowa, 2013:22). To address this, the government came up with the Indigenisation and Empowerment Act Chapter 14:33 in 2007, which made it a mandatory requirement that all mining firms with a net income of USD500 000 remit ten percent (10%) of their earnings to local communities as part of their CSR obligations as a way of giving back to communities affected by mining activities (Crowther & Aras, 2008:16; Mawowa, 2013:4). The promulgation of this act resulted in an acrimonious relationship between government and the mining industry as the mining firms perceived the development compelling mining firms to cede 10% of net earnings to the host communities as a coercive act bent on threatening business operations and investments (James, 2013:123). Despite lobbying by the government in the absence of policy or statutory instruments, most mining firms continued to give a blind eye to CSR as it was viewed as an expense, which deflated shareholders' dividends (Galant & Cadez, 2017:679). In this regard, various lobby groups challenged the government to come up with comprehensive laws compelling mining firms to give back to communities, as Zimbabwe is sitting on one of the richest lands in the world, endowed with minerals but are not benefiting native communities because of the unyielding attitudes of the mining firms (Mawowa, 2013:22).

In addition, it should be borne in mind that CSR arises from the amount of social power an organisation has and its involvement with the community (Garriga & Mele, 2004:51). Therefore, from a global perspective, the World Bank perceives CSR as the bedrock of sustainable economic development through working with employees, their families, the local community, and society at large to improve quality of life, in ways that are both good for business, national and international development (Idowu & Filho, 2009:295). It is therefore against this background that this study seeks to gain insights into how the application of CSR practices in the Zimbabwean mining sector can help to improve stakeholder involvement, corporate reputation, and performance, which may have a positive impact on the well-being of communities as well as the national economy.

Given this background, the emergence of the CSR concept in Zimbabwe led to various studies by local scholars and researchers. For example, Maphosa (1997:181) analysed mission statements and annual reports of various companies, focusing on CSR execution. Mandina, Maravire, and Masere (2014:152) investigated CSR effectiveness in enhancing a firm's image using the Unki Mine in Midlands Province, Zimbabwe, as a case study. Dziro (2014:61) focused on the relevance of community development and CSR in the wake of indigenisation and empowerment programmes in Zimbabwe. Mawowa (2013:45) investigated the viability of community share ownership trusts as vehicles of empowerment and positive social and economic transformation of local communities, particularly ordinary citizens. Masuku and Moyo (2013:114) focused on how people can perceive CSR as an invention of public relations by corporations. Mhlongo and Amponsah-Dacosta (2016:280) focused on the state of CSR in mining firms and sustainable development with a particular focus on the Shamva community.

While the above-cited studies dealt with issues concerning certain aspects of CSR, it is worth noting that they overlooked the potential impact of CSR practices on corporate reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This overlooking of the potential relationship leaves an overarching gap, given that CSR, corporate reputation and performance is interdependent, as any activities undertaken by mining firms will impact the internal and external environments positively or negatively. Therefore, this study presupposes that the mining firms should adopt CSR practices to solve the current problems between the firms, the community and the country at large as far as the reputation and performance of these firms are concerned. The study will thus contribute to new knowledge that will fill this gap by establishing links between CSR, reputation and the performance of mining firms and how this can foster community development through stakeholder involvement.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study included primary, theoretical and secondary objectives.

1.3.1 Primary objectives

- The primary objective of this study was to establish the influence of CSR practices on corporate reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe.

1.3.2 Secondary Objectives

- The secondary objectives of this study included theoretical and empirical objectives:

1.3.3 Theoretical objectives

The following theoretical objectives were formulated:

- i. To conduct a literature review on the mining sector in Zimbabwe.
- ii. To conceptualise CSR practices from the literature and how they relate to corporate reputation and performance.
- iii. To explore the literature on corporate reputation.
- iv. To analyse literature on corporate performance.
- v. To review the literature on stakeholder theory.
- vi. To review the literature on social exchange theory.

1.3.4 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives were formulated for the study:

- i. To examine the levels of CSR, corporate reputation and performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.
- ii. To determine the relationship between CSR and corporate reputation in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.
- iii. To establish the influence of corporate reputation on corporate performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.
- iv. To establish the influence of corporate performance on corporate reputation in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.
- v. To develop a model for managing CSR, reputation and performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.

1.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

A conceptual framework was developed to illustrate the relationships between CSR practices, corporate reputation and performance. In the framework, CSR practices were the predictor variables leading to corporate reputation, the mediating variable leading to corporate performance. The CSR practices were classified into six dimensions, namely, social goodwill activities, ethically based activities, environmental reclamation activities, production-based activities, stakeholder-based activities, and political-based activities. A total of 9 hypotheses (H1 to H9) were formulated, which link the dependent and independent variables. The conceptual framework under consideration in this study is presented in Figure 1.1;

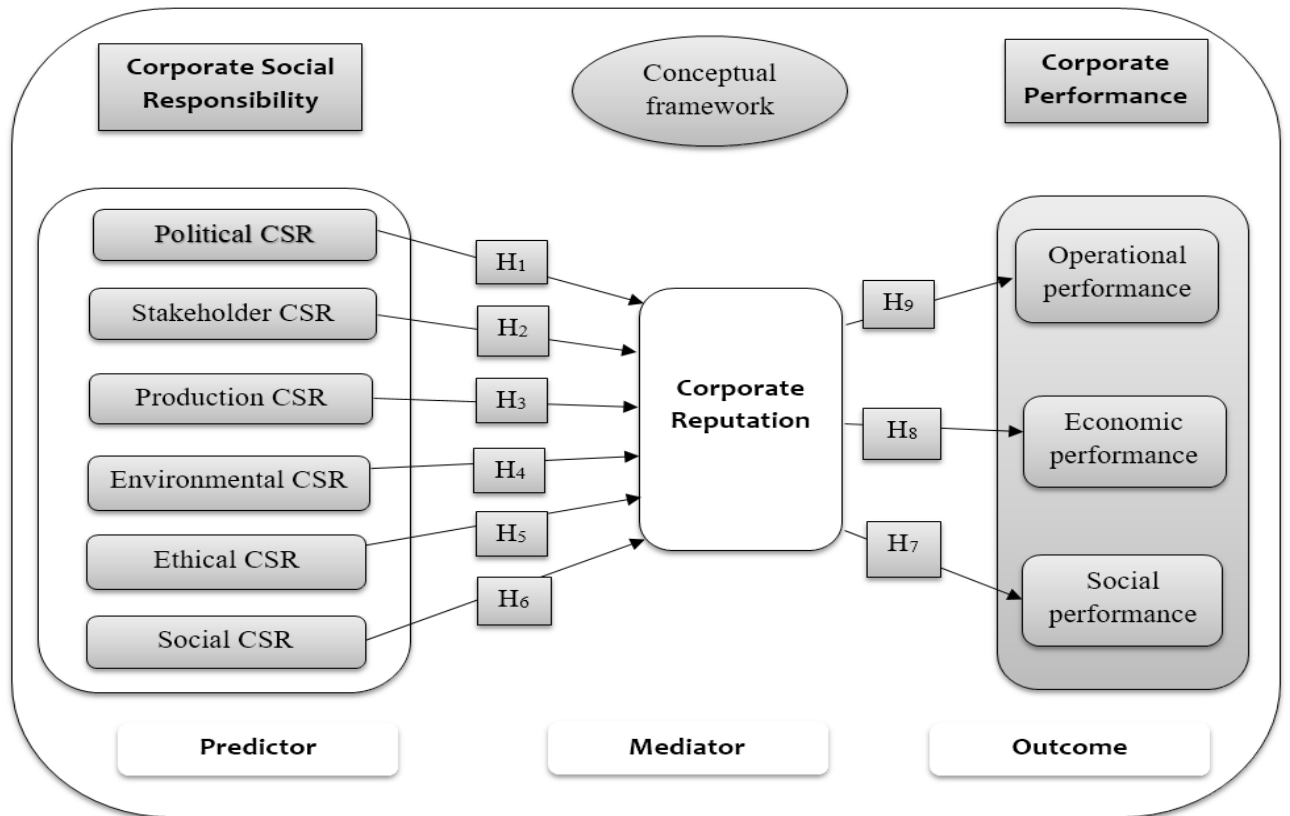


Figure 1.1: A Conceptual framework on Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Reputation and Performance in the Mining Sector in Zimbabwe
Source: Compiled by Author

1.5 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The study was intended to test the following hypotheses, which are based on the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1.1:

- H₁: Political CSR has a significant positive influence on corporate reputation.
- H₂: Stakeholder CSR has a significant positive influence on corporate reputation.
- H₃: Production CSR has a significant positive influence on corporate reputation
- H₄: Environment CSR has a significant positive influence on corporate reputation
- H₅: Ethical CSR has a significant positive influence on corporate reputation
- H₆: Social CSR has a significant positive influence on corporate reputation
- H₇: Corporate reputation has a significant positive influence on economic performance
- H₈: Corporate reputation has a significant positive influence on social performance
- H₉: Corporate reputation has a significant positive influence on operational performance

1.6 RESEARCH THEORIES

This study was conducted through a lens of the stakeholder and social exchange theories. In this framework, the researcher gained an insight into the practices of CSR, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe.

1.6.1 Stakeholder theory

The stakeholder theory is one of the major, if not the most frequently used, approaches in social, environmental, and sustainability management research (Horisch, Freeman & Schaltegger, 2014:328; Montiel & Delgado-Ceballos, 2014:113). It provides a relevant foundation and mirror of analysis to the present study. Freeman (1984:22) also popularised the theory by identifying stakeholders of corporations and recommending methods by which management can give due regard to the interests of those groups. One of the most common and general definitions is provided by Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle (2010:9), who describe stakeholders as “those groups and individuals who can affect or be affected” by the actions connected to value creation and trade in the organisation.

The stakeholder theory attempts to address the principle of whom or what counts within an organisation. A fundamental aspect of the theory is that it attempts to identify numerous factions within a society to whom an organisation may have some responsibility (Crowther & Aras, 2008:14; Wozniak, 2011:298;). In the traditional view of an organisation, only the owners or shareholders of the firm are important, as the organisation has a binding duty to increase value for them. There are, however other parties involved in the matrix who include employees, customers, suppliers, financiers, communities, governmental bodies, political groups, trade associations and trade unions (Ali & Rizwan, 2013:594; Goel & Ramanathan, 2014:50). Even competitors are sometimes counted as stakeholders as their status is derived from their capacity to affect the firm and its stakeholders. The theory seeks to establish a relationship between relevant stakeholders such as communities, customers, employees, shareholders and shareholders’ wealth maximisation (Kumar & Tiwari, 2011:22; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels & Hall, 2017:479). In this view, the stakeholder theory links society and shareholders in bringing about corporate reputation and performance. In summary, the theory is relevant to the present study because it explains the constituent groups that an organisation should be responsible to, and it is expected that those socially responsible to the constituent groups will win their goodwill.

1.6.2 Social exchange theory

The social exchange theory (SET) identifies society as the place that accommodates the organisation in terms of the physical environment engaged in which the business engages in transactions and the organisation, in turn, gives to the society through engaging in CSR (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005:882; Cropanzano, Mitchell & Quisenberry, 2012:99; Adeneye & Ahmed, 2015:153). The theory advances the notion that society purchases from the firm and that the firm also gives to the society by engaging in CSR programmes and indirectly explaining the relationship between CSR and the firm size (Adeneye & Ahmed, 2015:154). The discussed theory provides the business theme that any mining corporation can adopt as its guiding philosophy or principle. The theory provides a lens to draw perceptions of how different corporations view or treat CSR concerning corporate reputation and performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005:883; Orr, Emerson & Keyes, 2008:289). The theory is appropriate for this study as one of the underpinning tenets of the theory is a social contract that exists and binds the interacting parties. In this case, the social contract is between the community and the mining corporations. The interactions are results-driven as these are based on cost-benefit analysis.

1.7 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

1.7.1 Corporate Social Responsibility

The present-day CSR (also known as corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, responsible business and corporate social opportunity) is a concept whereby business corporations consider the interest of society by taking responsibility for the impact of their activities on customers, suppliers, employees, shareholders, communities and other stakeholders as well as their environment (Orr, Emerson & Keyes, 2008:291; Ismail, 2009:199; Choongo, 2017:1300). This obligation shows that corporations have to comply with this and voluntarily take initiatives to improve the well-being of their employees and their families, the local community and the society at large (Mendez & Rodriguez, 2016:32, Mason & Simons, 2014:79). CSR in this context is applied to strategies corporations adopt of how to conduct business in a way that is ethical and society friendly (Cronje, Reyneke & Chenga, 2017:6). CSR can also involve a range of activities such as working in partnership with local communities, socially sensitive investment, and developing relationships with employees, customers, and families. It also involves environmental conservation and sustainability (Ismail, 2009:199).

The immediate benefits of CSR to the corporation are that the corporate is viewed as part of the community and instantly issued with a social licence to operate and, in the process, attract resources (Mason & Simmons, 2014:84; Choongo, 2017:1303). Apart from this, the corporation can obtain quality employees, making it easier to market products and services (Adeosun & Ganiyu, 2013:223). Furthermore, the corporation earns a good reputation with a positive effect on employee motivation, retention and recruitment (Jitaree, 2016:330). Most importantly, the corporation earns increased revenue streams from higher sales and market share (Galant & Cadez, 2017:681).

1.7.2 Sub-Components of Corporate Social Responsibility

CSR has a wide range of components, including political, stakeholder, production, environmental, ethical and social CSR, among others. Each of the sub-components has implications on the outcomes of the CSR programmes put in place. The components are briefly discussed to bring out how each relates to CSR outcomes.

Ethics as a component of CSR, Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility (ETCSR) focuses on consequences of actions measured against values such as happiness, welfare, high productivity and expansion (Harrison & Wicks, 2013:101). The political sub-component of CSR, Political Corporate Social Responsibility (PCSR), refers to the business environment presented by the host country. The Zimbabwean political environment for the past 20 years is a typical example of how political factors of a country can affect business activities (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:145 Shirodkar, Beddewela & Richter, 2018:684).

The stakeholders form a vital component of CSR, Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility (SCSR) and these are groups or individuals who can affect or are affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives (Freeman, 1984:46; Harrison & Wicks, 2013:101). Stakeholders are the people who are directly or indirectly affected by the corporation's activities and are generally grouped into primary and secondary categories (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:15).

The environment is another key component of CSR, hence Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility (ENCSR). The environment is viewed as an essential resource (Jitaree, 2016:246). The business or corporation affects its external and internal environment. In this case, it must be recognised that the internal environment is where the business entity operates, while the societal environment is where the organisation is located and the wider global environment (Crowther & Aras, 2008:13).

Production is another vital sub-component of CSR, hence Production Corporate Social Responsibility (PRCSR), which is central to the investment of the mine project as this shows the magnitude of the project's impact on the environment. Therefore, the corporate should adhere to operating regulations that ensure sustainability, especially related to the future of the business and society. In this regard, measures of sustainability should consider the rate at which resources are consumed concerning the rate at which resources can be regenerated (Crowther & Aras, 2008:14; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146).

Last but not least, the social CSR (SOCSR) subcomponent is of paramount importance because it denotes the living standards of the society. This focuses on the socio-economic and political status of the people (Javed, Rashid & Hussain (2017:1068). These are the people's relations with their past and present and the environment, including their cultural beliefs and religion.

1.7.3 Corporate Reputation

Corporate reputation is a collective representation of multiple constituencies' images of a firm built over time (Argenti & Druckenmiller, 2004:369; Lai, Chiu, Yang & Pai, 2010:458). Corporations generally engage in CSR activities to influence and improve stakeholders' perceptions of their image. This reputation heavily depends on corporate behaviour and interaction with other stakeholders (Feldman, Bahamonde & Bellido, 2014:60). For the latter reason, it makes corporate reputation directly related to the firm's corporate identity, and it is interpreted as an organisation's ethos, goals and values that create a sense of belonging among the firm's stakeholders (Mandina *et al.*, 2014:159). It is, therefore, incumbent upon the corporates to integrate social and economic considerations into their competitive strategies as a way of managing reputation as this is entirely dependent on the behaviour of the firm as a corporate citizen. Therefore, reputation should be considered an inevitable part of the corporate strategy (Adeosun & Ganiyu, 2013:223).

The importance of a good corporate image or reputation cannot be overemphasised as literature has documented various benefits of the corporate image, including: (1) a good image is an efficient marketing and promotional tool (2) credibility and integrity comes with a good name (3) a good firm's image establishes trust, confidence, loyalty and superb client relationship (4) firm image is instrumental in increasing business opportunities, and (5) a good image can stand the test of time (Mandina *et al.*, 2014:160; Makasi & Saruchera, 2014:291). Corporate reputation is also important because it ultimately provides a competitive advantage (Barone, Norman & Miyazaki, 2007:444). Thus, corporate reputation can be a crucial contributor to an

organisation's success, and it can be a contributing factor to an organisation's failure (Adeosun & Ganiyu, 2013:221).

1.7.4 Corporate Performance

Corporate performance refers to a composite evaluation of how well a corporate executes on its essential parameters: information about the state of the firm, its success, development, and future outlook (Olaru, Stoleriu, Pirnea, Kaufmann, & Angheluta, 2012:2). The parameters for corporate performance include; social performance, economic performance and operational performance. Furthermore, corporate performance is an indicator of the health status of the organisation, which has been traditionally measured in terms of financial performance (Galant & Cadez, 2017:680). The benefits drawn from corporate performance include; a focus and assessment of CSR programmes, corporate reputation, innovation, employee morale and productivity (Galant & Cadez, 2017:682). The traditional key performance indicators (KPI) such as revenue, return on investment (ROI), overheads, and operational costs are no longer the only indicators (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:14). There is now a paradigm shift, which focuses on non-financial areas like strategic planning, process efficiencies, brand equity, risk management and human resource management. Gavrea, Ilies and Stegorean (2011:71) sum it up by saying corporate performance is viewed as a set of financial and non-financial indicators, which offer information on the degree of achievement of objectives and results. Corporate performance has in this regard gone a gear up and expanded beyond forecasting, budgeting and planning (Tyagi, 2012:1).

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Neuman (2014:8), all scientific research must be conducted using some relevant methodology. This section discusses how the study was conducted. It outlines the research design, sampling design, procedures for data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations.

1.8.1 Research Design

Lewis (2015:75) defines a research design as the process to follow in conducting a study. Research design can be in the form of qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-method approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2017:53). This study was undertaken based on the quantitative approach, which facilitates testing relationships, in theory, using statistical procedures. In this study, the survey design was used, and according to Creswell and Clark (2017:155), this research design

involves collecting data using a survey questionnaire. The survey method is cross-sectional, which constitutes data collection over a short period, whereas a longitudinal survey involves collecting data over a long period (Hair, 2015:205). This study utilised the cross-sectional survey design in collecting data in the Zimbabwean mining sector. This design was chosen because it enables the collection of data from respondents only once and provides affordable methods of collecting data over a large sample (Bryman & Bell, 2015:148). The research design consisted of two phases. The first phase involved reviewing related literature, followed by the second phase on the empirical aspects of the study.

1.8.2 Literature Review

A literature review of relevant concepts was conducted to address the theoretical objectives of the study. The review of related literature mainly focused on the theoretical key concepts of CSR such as sustainability, transparency, accountability, corporate governance, shareholder value, profit maximisation, corporate reputation, performance and responsibility. Also, the literature review of the mining sector was conducted for an in-depth comprehension of issues within the research context. In this regard, data was sourced from academic search engines and other internet sources such as google scholar and Researchgate, digital databases such as Emerald and Science Direct, amongst others. Books, magazines and organisational records will also be utilised for the study.

1.8.3 Empirical Study

The empirical study involved the sampling design, data collection procedures, data analysis, validity and reliability.

1.8.4 Sampling Procedure

Sampling design is the researcher's provisional plan for a quantitative description of a population's trends, attitudes, or opinions by studying a sample of that population (Polit, & Beck, 2014:176; Mackey & Gass, 2015:11; Creswell & Clark, 2017:235). The primary purpose of sampling is to make inferences about a given population using the selected sample (DiGaetano, 2013:230). The sampling design for this study was comprised of the target population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling technique. These aspects are discussed in detail in chapter 5.

1.8.5 Target population

A target population refers to the complete collection of objects whose description is the major goal of the study (Ott & Rongnecker, 2015:26). The target population of this study was composed of associated professional employees, junior, middle and senior management in the mining sector corporations within a 200km radius from Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe, which is the country's economic hub. According to the Ministry of Mines and Mining development, this number is estimated at 2000 individuals.

1.8.6 Sampling frame

A sampling frame refers to a list or frame that identifies every member (element) of the population under consideration in a study (DiGaetano, 2013:234). The sample frame used in this study consisted of lists of mining corporations in Zimbabwe within a 200km radius from Harare, the capital city. These lists were obtained from the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development. More detail is given in section 5.7.4

1.8.7 Sample size

The sample size is viewed as the number of units used in the sample for the study (Desu & Raghuvaram, 2012:1). Singh and Masuku (2014:6) define it as the determination by the researcher of the number of participants that can be feasibly included in a statistical sample. In this study, a total of 330 respondents were used based on the historical sampling technique. Previous studies on CSR carried out in Zimbabwe were by Chiunya, Mhembwe and Dube, 2017:7; Maligana and Phiri, 2017:505; Moyo and Mabhena, 2014:11; Dziro, 2014:61 and Mandina *et al.*, 2014:156 who used sample sizes ranging between 100 and 500 respondents. In addition, several scholars (Hoogland & Boomsma 1998:362; Boomsma & Hoogland, 2001:140; Kline, 2011:23) recommend that the minimum sample size when conducting a research survey should be $n=200$. Therefore, the sample size of $n=330$ set for this study is considered to be adequate. Further details are provided in section 5.7.5.

1.8.8 Sampling technique

Two distinct sampling techniques can be applied in research, namely probability and non-probability sampling. According to Bhattacharjee; (2012:65), sampling is a statistical process of selecting a subset of a population of interest to make observations and statistical inferences about that population under study. This study employed a non-probability sampling method. Further details are outlined in section 5.7.6.

1.8.9 Data Collection Method and Procedure

The data collection method used in this study was a survey questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed based on two methods: the drop and collect and electronic mail to reach out to the respondents.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections A, B and C. Each section focused on a specific aspect: Section A sought to elicit information on respondents' demographic details; Section B had four questions to elicit information on the organisation. These questions brought out the organisational profile specifically targeting the number of employees in the organisation, number of years the organisation has been in existence, type of mineral mined and approximate turnover per annum. Section C of the questionnaire comprised nine variables coded C1 to C9 related to CSR, namely, C1- Political CSR with questions adopted from previous studies by Shirodkar, Beddewela and Richter (2018:684); E1 - Bassiouny and Letmathe (2019:4); C2- Stakeholder CSR with questions adapted from Mishra and Suar (2010:313).

In addition, C3- Production CSR had measurement scales adopted from Soewarno (2018:11); C4-Environmental CSR used questions adapted from a study by El-Mallah, el Hamid Aref and Sherif (2019:23). Furthermore, C5-Ethical CSR had questions drawn from a study by Tai and Chaung (2014:117). C6-Social CSR had measurement scales drawn from Javed, Rashid and Hussain (2019:1068). C7-Corporate reputation was measured using questions drawn from Lai, Chiu, Yang, and Pai (2010:458). C8- Economic performance CSR was measured using questions drawn from Cao, Schniederjans, Ching Gu and Schniederjans (2019:22). C9- Operational performance CSR had measurement scales drawn from a study by Basuony, Elseidi and Mohamed (2014:767). C10-Social performance CSR with measurement scales drawn from Chen Kai Yin and Cher Min Fong (2016:9). All variables were to elicit responses on corporate social responsibility and how it influences organisational reputation and performance. Measurement scales were presented in Likert-type scales (Hartley, 2014:84) given as; 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neutral, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree and 7= strongly agree.

1.8.10 Data Analysis and Statistical Approaches

Data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Data from Section A of the questionnaire sought to establish the demographic details of the selected respondents and analysed using descriptive statistics. Other sections B and C with data that sought to test

hypotheses were analysed using inferential statistics. The Statistical Package Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 26.0, software was used in the statistical analysis. Measurements adopted from previous studies and developed required Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to test for scale accuracy. Relationships between the research constructs were tested using the Pearson correlation and regression analysis. In the regression analysis, indices such as adjusted R^2 and R values were used to measure the effectiveness of the model and as well tolerance and VIF values to determine the multi-collinearity impact on the predictive model.

1.8.11 Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the extent that the instrument yields the same results over multiple trials based on the consistency, stability and repeatability of results. The research results are considered reliable if consistent and obtained in identical situations but in different circumstances (Twycross & Shields, 2004:36). In addition, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the composite reliability were used for measuring the internal reliability of constructs. The rule of thumb, as given by Alwan and Al-Zubi (2016: 98), concluded that a reliability test that is pegged at or greater than 0.7 for both the Cronbach alpha and the composite reliability is acceptable in social science research.

Validity is defined as is the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Thatcher, 2010:125). In this research, content validity and construct validity were assessed. Content validity was assessed by conducting a pilot study using at least 40 respondents. Construct validity was assessed using factor loadings, which were greater than 0.5 hence considered acceptable (Thatcher, 2010:141). Also, correlations between constructs, which should be less than 1.0, were used to check for construct validity (Thatcher, 2010:147).

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research ethics are cautionary measures taken by the researcher to safeguard the rights of respondents during data collection (Creswell 2013:92). Several ethical considerations were observed before, during and after the research. First, permission to conduct the research was sought from the parent ministry of the mining sector in Zimbabwe, the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development (MMMD). Secondly, all respondents were given full details of the research and assurance that their names were not needed; hence, responses remained anonymous. Most importantly, respondents were made aware that their involvement in the research was voluntary and was free to withdraw from the research process anytime without

any adverse repercussions. Also, strict confidentiality was guaranteed to ensure the names of respondents were not disclosed.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Corporate social responsibility: the ability of a company to be socially responsible for the growth and development of the environment in which it operates (Adeneye & Ahmed, 2015:152)

Corporate reputation: the overall impression reflecting the perception of a collective stakeholder group about a company's past and present actions over some time (Lai, Chiu, Yang, & Pai, 2010:458).

Corporate performance: the overall evaluation of how well a company executes its important parameters; information about the state of the firm, its success, development and future outlook (Olaru, Stoleriu, Pirnea, Kaufmann & Angheluta, 2012:2).

Stakeholder: a person or group of people that can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation objectives (Perez, Lopez & Salmones, 2017:671).

Shareholder: owners or investors in a business organisation (Carroll, 2016:84).

Social performance: a construct that emphasises a company's responsibilities to multiple stakeholders, such as employees and the community at large, in addition to its traditional responsibilities to economic shareholders (Chen & Delmas, 2011:789).

Economic performance: refers to the income generated by organisation activities for sustenance. These include profitability, gross profit, return on asset (ROA), return on investment (ROI), return on equity (ROE), return on sales (ROS), revenue growth, market share, stock price, sales growth, export growth, liquidity and operational efficiency (Umoh, Amah & Wokocho, 2013:122).

Operational performance: refers to the measurable aspects of the outcomes of an organisation's processes, such as reliability, production cycle time, and inventory turns (Azim, Ahmed & Khan, 2015:64).

1.11 STRUCTURE OF THESIS

The final thesis resulting from the study is composed of seven chapters, divided as follows;

Chapter 1: Introduction and background of the study

This chapter discusses the introduction and background of the study. Furthermore, it spelt out the problem statement, research objectives, and other issues, including research hypotheses, brief literature review, and methodology aspects such as sampling, data collection, statistical analysis, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 2: Mining Industry in Zimbabwe

This chapter interrogates literature on the mining industry in Zimbabwe, focusing on investment policies in general and mining policies in particular in the context of CSR.

Chapter 3: Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Reputation

This chapter reviewed related literature on corporate social responsibility practices and reputation with specific reference to mining corporations.

Chapter 4: Corporate performance

This chapter focuses on corporate performance and its influence on organisational activities, particularly those to do with CSR.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

This chapter focuses on the research philosophy, design, approach, population, sampling size, sampling method, research instrument, the procedure for data collection and ethical considerations.

Chapter 6: Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter presents the findings from the study, data analysis and the interpretations of the results, and their implications for the mining sector. The research results were integrated with those from the related literature, augmenting analysis and interpretation of data.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of the study are summarised in this chapter. Furthermore, this chapter provides the conclusions drawn from the study and puts forward some recommendations for consideration with the mining sector for possible adoption in Zimbabwe.

1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter gave a summary of the thesis as it sets the tone of the study by outlining the background of the study through an introduction of the title under study, namely corporate social responsibility, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This background outline led to the unveiling of the problem statement which established the research gap from a global, national and local perspective. This research gap then steered the formulation of the research objectives given as primary, secondary, theoretical and empirical respectively. These objectives inspired the crafting of the conceptual framework which shaped the conceptualisation of the research study. Consequently this led to hypotheses formulation. These hypotheses gave out assumptions that the researcher had based on scholarly work supported by theories that gave credence to the hypotheses' assertions. In this study, two theories were analysed to unpack the theoretical background namely stakeholder theory and social exchange theory respectively. In addition, related literature was also cited as a mechanism of justifying or refuting arguments. This created an enabling platform to layout the appropriate research design and methodology, resulting in this study being undertaken based on the quantitative approach, which facilitated testing relationships, in theory, using statistical procedures. The sampling design for this study was comprised of the target population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling technique. In addition, the chapter outlined data collection method and procedure, analysis and statistical approaches, reliability and validity. Ethical considerations were also outlined such as permission to conduct research, consent by participants and rights to anonymity. The chapter winds up by giving definitions of key terms to the study and outlining the structure of the entire thesis.

CHAPTER 2

MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the literature on the mining sector in Zimbabwe. The chapter gives a general outline of the mining sector, raising issues specific to mining in Zimbabwe using literature that unlocks the state of mining historically up to the present day. The chapter commences by exploring the mining sector, covering the pre- and post-independence epochs to trace the mining development trends in Zimbabwe. The discussion shifts attention to the composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. The next section concentrates on the bodies that control mining activities in Zimbabwe, followed by the legal framework, which is pertinent to the operations of the mining sector. The next section outlines the impact of the mining sector politically, socially, economically and environmentally. Finally, the chapter discusses the challenges faced by the mining sector in its operations. The chapter is important as it lays the foundation for the research context in understanding the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, literature from previous studies in the mining sector and its contributions to the country's socio-economic development is analysed. The chapter establishes an in-depth literature review on the development of the mining sector in Zimbabwe.

2.2 COMPOSITION OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section discusses the composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Apart from providing a general overview of the sector, the section also identifies the two major groups in this critical economic segment in Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe's mining structure or composition comprises multinational and domestic companies that have dominated the mining sector for decades before and after independence. After independence, the government initiated the domestic companies to tap or harness the mineral wealth to benefit indigenous citizens. In addition, the sector composition is further supplemented by small to medium players mainly dominated by local people. Mkonzongi and Spiegel (2019:2042) concur that domestic and international companies, government-owned companies, mining co-operatives and small-scale miners dominated mineral operations in Zimbabwe.

Generally, mines in Zimbabwe have been defined based on the following criteria: capitalisation, production output, turnover, degree of mechanisation, labour, size of mining

concession or lease and size of reserves (Masiya, Mlambo & Mungoni, 2012:286). In this regard, mining in the Zimbabwean context includes both formal and informal operators, mechanised and semi-mechanised miners of varying sizes in production, labour and capitalisation (Zvarivadza, 2018:49).

The fore-going has seen the Zimbabwean mining industry categorised into small-scale artisanal mining and large-scale conglomerates, also known as multinational companies (MNCs). The latter employs both surface and underground mineral extraction methods, which are highly mechanised. The classification of these mining categories hinges on the magnitude of operations employed by each group (Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Report, 2017:5). The leading players who define mining in Zimbabwe include domestic and international mining companies, government-owned companies, mining cooperatives and small-scale miners (Masiya *et al.*, 2012:287; Mobbs, 2015: 45). Each of these categories is discussed in detail in this chapter.

2.2.1 Small-scale artisanal mining

Small scale mining, also known as small-scale artisanal mining, can be informal or formal. The informal group is commonly referred to as ‘Amakorokoza’ (gold panners operating illegally). This informal group operates illegally as it is not registered by arms of government; hence the operations of these miners are not regulated and employ a hide and seek game with the law enforcement agents (Mawowa, 2013:922). These illegal groups usually concentrate on minerals extracted along stream banks, known as alluvial or the reef mining on disused mines. It is, therefore, not strange to find out that this group does not care much about the trail of destruction left on the environment to the detriment and chagrin of both humans and animals (Dreschler, 2001:130).

According to Zvarivadza (2018:50), artisanal mining is defined as the use of primitive instruments to extract marginal mineral resources that are not profitable to mine on a big scale. In the extraction process, small-scale, informal miners use rudimentary tools such as chisels, hammers, picks, shovels, with lighting provided using torches and/or candles. This group of miners are not accountable for their operations, and as a result, informal artisanal small-scale mining (IASM) exhibits a high level of irresponsibility and poses significant obstacles to sustainable development (Maponga & Ngorima, 2003:148; Chandiwana, 2016:2; Koitsiwe & Adachi 2018:145).

However, this sector's contribution to GDP has been increasing. The contributions of the informal artisanal small-scale mining (I/ASM) to the economy were acknowledged by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe through its 2018 Monetary Policy Statement presentation, which noted that small-scale producers accounted for 64 percent of the delivered 17.3 tonnes of gold to Fidelity Printers and Refinery (Reserve Bank Monetary Policy Statement 2018:21).

On the other hand, formal artisanal small-scale mining (FASM) is regulated, and there is accountability, as the miners safeguard mining claims allocated to them (Zvarivadza, 2018:51). These mining establishments usually profiteer from the informal artisanal miners who, in most cases, depend on them for ore processing and marketing.

The gold output trend mainly from the small-scale artisanal miners in Zimbabwe is presented in Figure 2.1.

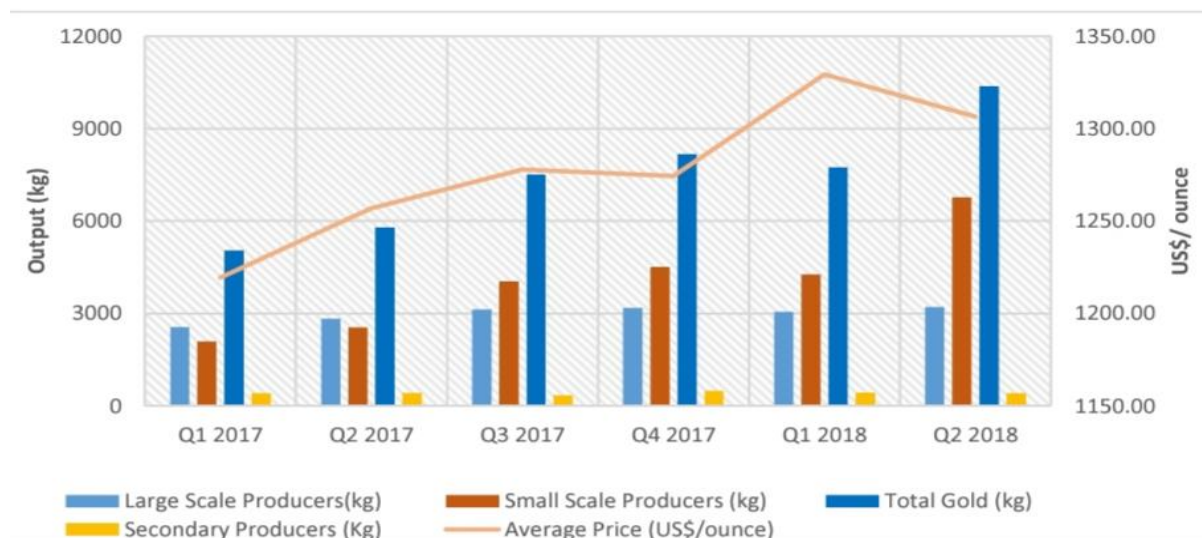


Figure 2.1: Quarterly Gold Output Trend Analysis 2017-2018

Source: Reserve Bank Monetary Policy Statement (2018:21).

As indicated in Figure 2.1, the gold production trend by artisanal miners was on a constant increase from the first quarter of 2017 right through to the second quarter of 2018. The output doubled, surpassing the expected target. Although the small-scale miners have made inroads in doubling figures of gold production, the large-scale producers still have a significant role as they have maintained their production output at higher, sustainable levels.

2.2.2 Large-scale mining

The large-scale mining group comprises MNC's who use heavy machinery and equipment in the mining process. This group of miners in Zimbabwe is dominated by Anglo-American platinum giants like Ngezi Mine in Mhondoro, Mimosa in Zvishavane and Unki in Shurugwi.

Other notable mines are Bindura Nickel, Freda Rebecca Gold Mine of Mwana Africa (Mkodzongi & Spiegel 2019:2143). Other countries with vested interests in mining in Zimbabwe include Britain, Australia, France, and China through the Look East Policy (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146).

This section reviewed the literature on the composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Notably, the sector is composed of artisanal small-scale and large-scale miners. The literature further indicated that although the productivity of small-scale miners has been increasing over the years, it is the large-scale mining enterprises producing the most significant volumes of minerals in the country on a consistent and sustainable trajectory.

2.3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section discusses the history of mining in Zimbabwe. The section focuses on two distinct mining phases: pre-independence and post-independence mining activities. The section outlines the development path of mining in Zimbabwe and its contributions to economic development.

2.3.1 Pre-Independence mining in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe has over forty minerals, including gold, diamonds, platinum, chrome, asbestos, coal, iron ore, among others and the operations date back to the colonial era (Mlambo, 2016:5; Mapira, 2017:314). It is one of the reasons the country was colonised by the British through the Pioneer Column under Cecil John Rhodes. However, current mining operations are administered by the Mines and Minerals Act Chapter 21.05 of 1996, originally crafted during the colonial era in 1961. However, the act has been revised several times to suit the interests of independent Zimbabwe attained in 1980 (Mapira, 2017:314).

Geologically, Zimbabwe is positioned on Africa's granite backbone, where most of the country's resources are found (Hawkins, 2009:25; Saunders, 2017:2). The country is almost bisected from north to south by the Great Dyke, a 500-kilometer-long layered intrusion (Makore & Zano, 2012:2). The Great Dyke has significant platinum, chromite, nickel, asbestos, and base metal deposits. In addition, around the edge of the central plateau, Karoo sediments linked with river basins have commercial coal deposits, and certain areas have been shown to yield gas in the form of coal bed methane (Hollaway, 1997:26). Pegmatites have gemstones linked with them, which may be found in the centre and west of the country. In this regard, European prospectors and miners penetrated modern-day Zimbabwe and confirmed the ancient

stories of a country of plentiful reef gold. Consequently, in 1890 a formal invasion was organised and financed by Cecil Rhodes after obtaining permission from Queen Victoria through the infamous British South African Company (BSAC) (Hollaway, 1997: 27). The modern mining history in the country backdated to at least five centuries ago when the Portuguese traded with gold producers in 16th century Zimbabwe (Jourdan 1986: 13).

The breadth of mining grew substantially under colonial authority in the twentieth century, building on ancient gold and copper mining sites and broadening to cover various minerals. For much of the last century, gold and asbestos mining was prevalent, with world-class nickel and ferrochrome reserves contributing significantly in the 1970s and 1980s. In the 1990s, substantial new platinum group metals activities began, and in the 2000s, a major alluvial diamond strike momentarily propelled the country to the top of the global diamond production rankings (Saunders, 2017:2).

Since 1980 there have been between 4 000 and 5 000 mines in Zimbabwe, mostly small gold operations. The development of the Zimbabwean mining industry has catapulted it to become the largest of its type in Africa north of Limpopo (Hollaway, 1997:28). In 1995, for example, mining contributed about 8% of the GDP, with a total output of about Z\$6.3 billion (US\$800 million), signifying the grand entry of mining contribution to the mainstream economy (Segula, 2013:3). The Zimbabwe Great Dyke Mineral belt where most minerals are found is presented in Figure 2.2.

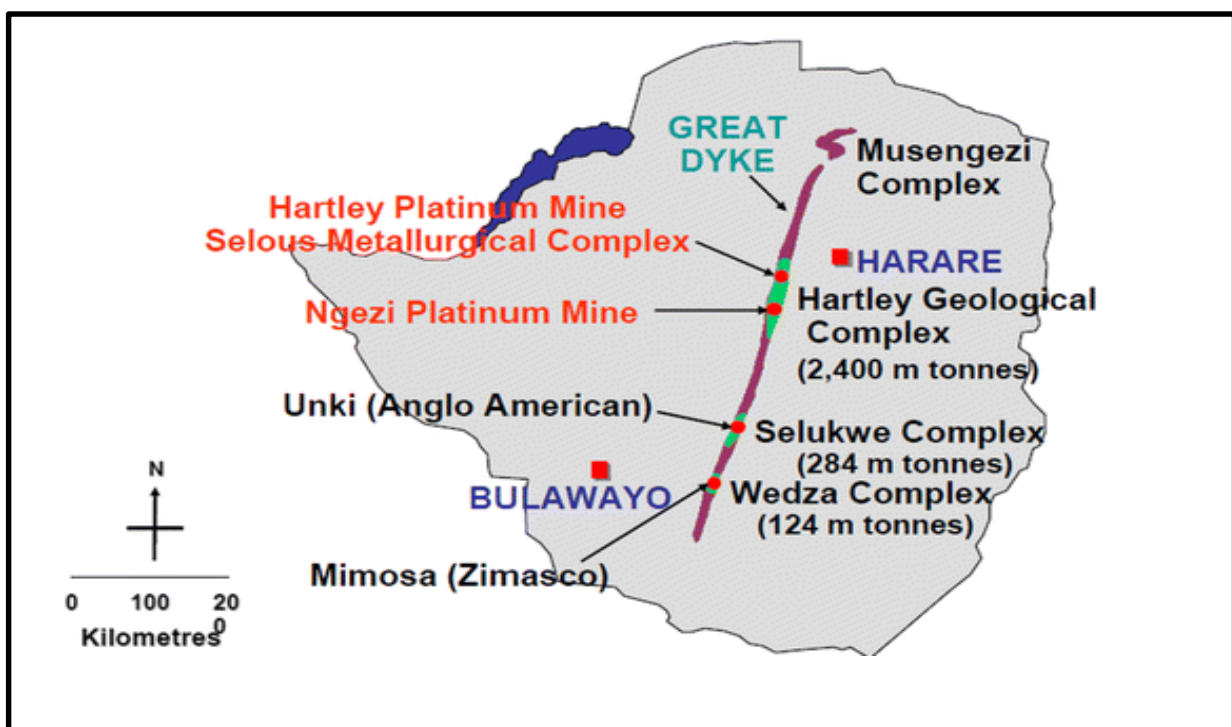


Figure 2.2: The Great Dyke Mineral Belt of Zimbabwe

Source: Makore and Zano (2012:3)

2.3.2 Post-Independence mining in Zimbabwe

After gaining independence in 1980, Zimbabwe's minerals sector has been a significant source of state revenue, source of employment and skills development. In addition, the mining sector has been a crucial target of foreign direct investment (FDI) and consequently becoming a reliable source of foreign exchange earnings and a provider of upstream inputs to the broader economy (Mapira, 2017:320; Maligana & Phiri, 2016:503; Saunders, 2017:1). As a result, mining's relative significance as a component of gross domestic product (GDP) and provider of foreign exchange has deepened over time. This is in the wake of the intermittent weakness of other sectors in the national economy, notably commercial agriculture, commerce and industry. The period 2000 to 2008 registered the highest average mineral annual export compared to the other periods. The same period registered the highest GDP growth rate of 5.6%, and again, the average share in total exports was 40.4%, showing the mining sector's dominance (Mahonye & Mandishara, 2015:82; Saunders. 2017:1).

After reviewing its contributions and involvement in social development, mining's contribution to the economy became more visible at the turn of the millennium. A small number of the players in the sector were involved in the debate over resource mobilisation policies and social outcomes in mining (Mapira, 2017:320; Malinga, 2018:75). Mining's potential for contributing to broader social development challenges was previously unnoticed, but the political and economic crisis of the 2000s made it more apparent (Saunders, 2017:1). This was evidenced by the emergence of robust small-scale miners, especially those engaged in gold. An increasingly important source of domestic engagement in the sector involved artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) (Chandiwana, 2016:2). This sub-sector flourished from the 1990s, accounting for substantial contributions to national gold output and most alluvial diamond production from 2006-2008. The ASM's unstable legal and regulatory status presented challenges for the state in managing and fiscally benefiting from small producers' productivity (Mawowa, 2013: 22; Saunders, 2017:4). Mineral visibility in terms of fiscal contribution and production during the period 2000 to 2008 increased phenomenally. Mining's share of total exports doubled between 2000 and 2008 from 27 percent to 53 percent (Hawkins 2009: 1).

While Zimbabwe was not previously known as a mineral-dependent economy, the rise in relative contributions from the sector drew more attention from the government, donors, and

businesses, especially in the wake of persistent budget deficits and foreign exchange shortages. This setting prepared for a fight between a range of interests, each with its own set of leverage points to back up its claims. The government had various economic and political motivations to intervene due to the foreign-dominated and comparatively concentrated character of large-scale mining. Mining would be the target of new regulatory measures to expand fiscal space and encourage higher value-addition through industrial beneficiation (Segula 2013:4; Saunders, 2017:5).

During the economic downturn, a slew of new governmental entities arose with competing claims to mining jurisdiction. The Ministry of Mines and Mining Development (MMD) and its parastatal entities, such as the Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC) and the Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ); the Presidency; the Ministries of Finance and Economic Development; Labour and Social Services; Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment (MIEE); Water Climate and Environment, and the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ), and the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) among them. These institutions expressed opposing and competing ideas of the sector's growth and development through policy inconsistencies and outcomes (Hawkins, 2009:25; Saunders, 2017:6).

For instance, in 2008, the RBZ gave quarterly monetary statements that suggested ways of overcoming the prevailing hyperinflationary environment and gave updates of performance by key economic sectors (Monetary Policy Statement 2008:21). Reserve Bank Act [Chapter 22:15] requires that monetary statements be issued bi-annually but were now being offered quarterly to deal with emerging challenges (Monetary Policy Statement, 2008:4). On the other hand, the Ministry of Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment insisted on gradually transferring the 51% of investments threshold by foreigners to indigenous people. At the same time, the ZMDC and MMCZ, together with the ministry of finance, were advocates of investments from external players. These successive periods of state restructuring would compound this problem, contributing to frequent shifts in the policy terrain and regulatory environment (Mawowa, 2013:5; Mlambo, 2016:8; Saunders, 2017:6).

Despite the awakening by the government to the cause of the people, the motion was viewed as a knee-jerk reaction that was meant to please the general populace, which was slowly losing confidence in the ruling party. Some of the pronouncements were done with very little consultation with the affected. The playing field was no longer even. The period in question had the MIEE calling for the ploughing back of proceeds of the mining sector (Mawowa

2013:5). The mining sector viewed this as extortion emerging at the back of the chaotic land reform (Mawowa, 2013:5; Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Report, 2017:13).

However, in terms of overall contribution to gross domestic product (GDP), exports, employment, fiscal revenue and investment levels, the mining sector remained the critical sector in the economy. For example, in 2015, the sector is estimated to have contributed 9% to GDP directly, 55% to all national exports, 35,000 formal direct jobs, 70,000 indirect jobs through upstream and downstream linkages, 11% of fiscal revenue, more than 50% of total fixed capital formation and in particular 65% of private sector investment. Apart from this vital contribution, mining is a source of inputs for various industries, for example, fertilisers, cement and power generation (Segula, 2013:3; Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Report, 2014:6; Malinga, 2018:79). Mining is also a market for many suppliers in the economy. This multiplier effect of the mining sector makes the mining sector more important than is usually considered (Mlambo, 2016:38).

A clear indication from the ‘mining boom’ during the period discussed reveals minimal effort to include or engage stakeholders, especially those who hosted mining companies. Mawowa (2013:22) noted that there is reluctance by mining companies to invest in socio-economic and ecological sustainability beyond the lifespan of the mine.

However, despite the confusion that was reigning, it has been noted that during mining, small towns emerged, serving surrounding communities. Amenities such as clinics, schools, roads, shops, water reservoirs, and recreation are immediate developments that indirectly benefit the surrounding communities (Dziro, 2014:61). Mining ventures like Unki Platinum Mine in Shurugwi exemplify how Shurugwi as a town has been rejuvenated.

2.3.3 The emergence of new minerals

The minerals sector also got some prominence through the emergence of new minerals that were not part of Zimbabwe's ‘traditional’ mineral ensemble. The new minerals are lithium, diamonds, and platinum. In 2008 diamonds were discovered in Chiadzwa Marange Communal Area in the Manicaland Province, east of Harare. The discovery of the mineral caused a rush by individuals and corporates. The government saw this as the solution to its fiscal problems. Several corporates were given licences to mine, including Mbada Diamonds and Anjin, among many others (Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Report, 2014:6).

Another mineral that came to prominence during this period was platinum mined by the Anglo-American giants in Mhondoro-Ngezi, Mimosa and Unki. The government bemoaned the extraction of the mineral and the ore for processing being done outside the country. Efforts are underway to have the processing done in Zimbabwe. Platinum and diamonds are still bound by the 51% shareholding requirements of the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act of 2007 Chapter 14:33 (Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Report, 2014:10).

Summarily, this section discussed the composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Two major categories constitute the major players: small-scale artisanal and large-scale miners. Emerging facts are that most small-scale miners use rudimentary tools while the large scale is highly mechanised and employs skilled manpower. The small-scale miners have made a mark on the economic front with their contribution to economic growth. The section also reflected on the historical background of the mining sector covering pre-and post-independence periods. It was established that the principal Act in the sector, the Mines and Mineral Act, was crafted in 1961, but it is still used today, having been reviewed on several occasions. The emergency of new minerals like diamonds and platinum was highlighted and the associated hype the minerals brought to the country.

2.4 MAJOR BODIES GOVERNING THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section focuses on the bodies that drive and regulate activities in the mining sector. The bodies are mandated to ensure compliance and encourage investment by indigenous people to harness mineral wealth to benefit local citizens.

2.4.1 Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC)

The Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC) was established through an Act of Parliament Number 31 of 1982 (Chapter 21:08). It was mandated to invest in the mining industry in Zimbabwe on behalf of the state. The parastatal, which falls under the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development, also administers and initiates the domestic mining establishments or ventures. This government body was created to encourage locals to embrace mining as business as this was a preserve of the former colonialists, who had the knowledge, technology and capital to take up such business ventures (Natural Resource Governance, 2014:10).

2.4.2 Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ)

The Minerals Marketing Corporation was established through an Act of Parliament (MMCZ Act Chapter 21:04) and began operations in March 1983. It is 100% wholly owned by the government of Zimbabwe and falls under the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development. It is an exclusive agent for marketing and selling all minerals produced in Zimbabwe except silver and gold. (Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe Annual Report, 2013:3)

The MMCZ was also set up to control stockpiling of minerals, minimize opportunities for underhand and dishonest dealings such as transfer pricing, under-invoicing and related problems. Furthermore, it coordinates all marketing intelligence, monitors international mineral markets and trends and technological changes to the best advantage of the Government and protects the interests of the country, producers and the industry (Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe Annual Report, 2013:4).

This section outlined the mandates of the two central bodies that regulate mining operations in Zimbabwe. The salient features are that ZMDC is the government's investment arm, promoting domestic and foreign investment initiatives. On the other hand, MMCZ is the marketing arm of most minerals produced in the country. It also has the mandate to curtail underhand dealings. Both entities were created through acts of parliament.

2.5 THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section discusses the legal framework of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. In the Constitution of Zimbabwe, the supreme law spells out the rights and freedoms of the mineral wealth vested in the country's president (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013:41). The constitution influences the legal framework of the mining sector in Zimbabwe and is supported by several policy interventions drawn from various players in the sector. This section focuses its attention on the acts of parliament that form the legal framework of how mineral resources should be prospected, explored and extracted. Critical acts of parliament in the mineral sector in Zimbabwe are briefly discussed.

The Acts of Parliament outlined are; *Mines and Minerals Act Chapter 21:05 (MMA)*, *Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe Act Chapter 21:04 (MMCZA)*, *Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation Act Chapter 21:08 (ZMDCA)*, *Environmental Management Act Chapter 20:27 (EMA)*, *Precious Stones Trade Act Chapter 21:06 (PSTA)*, *Sovereign Wealth Fund Act (SWF)*, *Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act Chapter 14:33 (IEEA)* in

terms of their contribution to pertinent issues that affect the mining sector. Other supporting policies, such as the Diamond Policy, Zimbabwe Investment Policy, are briefly discussed to cross-examine how these legal instruments influence mining operations. The Ministry of Mines and Mining Development manages the mineral sector following the Mines and Minerals Act (chapter 21:05), the Mining (General) Regulations, of 1977 and related amended statutory instruments (Barry, 2017:48). Mining operations are regulated by numerous supporting acts, regulations, statutory instruments and general notices. The MMA Part 1(2) alludes to the fact that the president oversees the exploration and extraction of all minerals (Ministry of Mines and Mining Development Act Chapter 21.05, 1996:2; Chamber of Mines of Zimbabwe, 2017:6).

After the attainment of independence, large-scale mining has been dominated by a handful of multinational mining companies. This has been attributed to the absence of capital and technical expertise, which prohibited many domestic participations. In the 1980s, the government deliberately established state mining and marketing agencies to counterbalance the influence and dominance of foreign-owned firms. As a result, the main feature of the mining sector in post-independence Zimbabwe has been the direct investment by the government to rectify this imbalance (Chandiwana, 2016:18). In 1983 a state mining house, the Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC), was formed together with Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ), mainly due to the threatened closure of a group of low-grade copper mines. Following the Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe Act, of 1983 the state-owned Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ) officially marketed much of the mineral production of Zimbabwe (Chandiwana, 2016:18). However, with a few exceptions, large-scale operations remained under foreign control, while domestic firms were more significant in medium- and small-scale production (Hollaway, 1997:30; Saunders, 2017:4).

Zimbabwe, to date, does not have a minerals policy and has been regulated by various acts, the main one being the Mines and Minerals Act Chapter 21:05 (Hollaway, 1997:35). However, having an Act without a policy is like putting the cart before the horse since an Act is an implementation tool for a policy. One specific mineral sub-sector policy, the Diamond Policy, is now operational (Mlambo, 2016:22). The mineral policy framework, once adopted, will form the basis for revising mining-related regulations. It will guide interventions by various stakeholders, including government institutions. Its ultimate objective is the sustainable

management of the country's mineral resources, resulting in its sustainable development (Mlambo, 2016:23).

It must be borne in mind that mineral policies before independence to date have remained the same, with attempts being made now to amend the Mines and Minerals Act (MMA). The rejection of the amended Act by the current President of Zimbabwe might have been influenced by inadequacies to address the imbalances and access of the mining sector by the majority of Zimbabweans. Hollaway (1997:30) notes that many mining sector policies have remained largely unchanged since colonial times. Hollaway (1997:30) further notes that; the right of public access to the minerals in the ground has, until now, not been challenged in Zimbabwe.

In most African countries, governments prescribe where prospecting may be carried out and who can do it. On the contrary, Zimbabwe prescribes where prospecting may not be carried out, and there are no skills or financial requirements for a prospecting licence holder. This explains the absence of policy to deal with such loopholes in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. As a result, individual companies have the latitude in determining their operations (Hitch, Ravichandran & Mishra, 2014:45; Amos, 2018:1178). Expansive contestation about mining's potential for contributing to broader issues of social development and involving a wider range of social actors and constituencies was rare until the political and economic crisis of the 2000s and the government's renewed interest in pursuing populist-nationalist politics (Mawowa, 2013:924; Hitch *et al.*, 2014:46; Saunders, 2017:1). Hollaway (1997:31) observed that, before independence, there was no legal restriction on black Zimbabweans starting and owning mines, impediments to acquiring skills and finance and a traditional aversion to mining meant that a few took up this venture. The turn of the millennium changed this through the indigenisation drive.

2.5.1 Mines and Minerals Act (MMA) Chapter 21:05

Zimbabwe currently has no national minerals policy but draws its vision from African Mining Vision (AVM). The Mines and Minerals Act directs the minerals sector in Zimbabwe Chapter 21:05, crafted in 1961 and amended in 1996. The Act implemented through the Ministry of Mines and Minerals Development manages the processes of obtaining mining rights, prospecting and extraction of mineral resources, and the closure of mining works (Matsa & Masimbiti, 2014:151; Chandiwana, 2016:19). According to the Act, to prospect, explore and mine mineral resources in Zimbabwe, one needs to apply for a mining title or permit/licence to

operate. If correctly applied and monitored, good mineral governance would be achieved (Mlambo, 2016:27; Mines and Minerals Act: Government of Zimbabwe, 2001:3).

The Act stresses the regulatory aspects of how mining should be conducted in the country. There is no mention of how the extraction process benefits the communities that provide the physical environment for such ventures (Hitch *et al.*, 2014:45). Over the years, the focus has been on the welfare of shareholders disregarding this important stakeholder.

2.5.2 Precious Stones Trade Act (PSTA) Chapter 21:06

The Act was passed in 1978. It was passed to regulate the possession and dealing with precious stones. This now includes rough diamonds. The Act specifies and describes dealing as buying, selling, barter trading, pledging, exchanging gifts (given or received), and other related transactions. The Act further defines precious stones as rough or uncut diamonds or uncut emeralds or other stones declared as precious; this excludes polished diamonds. The government also passed the Precious Stones Trade Regulations in 1978, which have been amended several times through Statutory Instruments to comply with the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (Mlambo, 2016:33; Precious Stones Act: Government of Zimbabwe, 1978:3).

The Kimberly Process Certification Scheme promotes transparency and good governance among countries and individuals who trade in precious minerals, especially diamonds. Diamonds have been known to include underhand deals, especially in Africa, where mineral wars have been waged and infringed on human rights.

2.5.3 Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe Act (MMCZA) Chapter 21:04

The Act provides for the establishment of the Minerals Marketing Corporation of Zimbabwe (MMCZ). It further provides for the control and regulation of the export, sale and stockpiling of minerals. The Act forbids the sale of minerals by anyone else except the MMCZ and empowers MMCZ to levy a fixed commission which is a percentage (currently at 0.875%) of the price at which a mineral is sold. The entity negotiates, authorises and prepares relevant paperwork for the setting of the contract (Chandiwana, 2016:18; Government of Zimbabwe, 1983:4).

The Act's provisions allow the entity to collect revenue on behalf of the government on a fixed commission basis. The act further monitors any corrupt activities that may arise in the selling and buying of minerals.

2.5.4 Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation Act (ZMDCA) Chapter 21:08

This Act permits the setting up of the Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation (ZMDC), which is the government's investment arm in the mining sector. The ZMDC is another government arm meant to involve indigenous citizens in mainstream mining ventures. The Act enables ZMDC to find synergies with investors or go it alone to facilitate mining ventures. ZMDCA further provides ZMDC with the right to undertake prospecting, exploration, mining and mineral beneficiation independently or in joint ventures on behalf of the government (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982:3).

2.5.5 The Sovereign Wealth Fund Act (SWFA)

The Sovereign Wealth Fund Act (SWFA), which was passed in November 2014, seeks to establish a fund to be administered by a board whose objective is to secure investment to benefit future generations of Zimbabweans. The act is meant to support the objectives of the government, which include long-term economic and social development. It is also meant to support fiscal and macro-economic stabilisation and supplement national revenue. The fund is driven primarily by 25% of all royalties on mineral exports, which will be deposited, along with special dividends on the sales of diamonds, gas, granite and other minerals through the ZMDC. This development signifies a milestone towards ensuring that the benefits of the country's resource endowments go beyond the lifespan of the mineral resources (Mlambo, 2016:38; Government of Zimbabwe 2014:3).

The Act is a deliberate endeavour to empower locals to get into the mainstream mining sector. This sector is capital intensive, and this hindered the majority of local citizens from joining the sector.

2.5.6 Environment Management Act (EMA) Chapter 20:27

The Act provides for the establishment of the Environmental Management Agency and compels all extractive firms to submit environmental impact assessment and environmental management plans on every project to be undertaken (Pojasek, 2011:85). The environmental impact assessment report should be made public for community scrutiny, and the public can submit objections if they have any. If the final approved report could be complied with, then negative impacts of the extractive industry would be minimised. There are current proposals to make the closure plans and annual contributions towards a mandatory rehabilitation fund (EMA 20:27 Government of Zimbabwe, 2002:4).

The Act was enacted to protect the environment from excessive damage. Apart from environmental concerns, community involvement and participation are prioritised to ensure all stakeholders' input is considered.

2.5.7 Indigenisation And Economic Empowerment Act (IEEA) Chapter 14:33

The Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act (IEEA) was enacted in 2008. The Act, which seeks to address imbalances originating from the colonial era, provides that all mining companies and other businesses should have 51% local ownership, that is, by indigenous Zimbabweans. It makes mention of women, youth and disabled people (Sachs, 2007:10). In practice, this requirement essentially translated to Employee Share Ownership Trusts (ESOTs), Community Share Ownership Trusts (CSOTs) and government equity. The Act also provides for 50% local procurement. The Act seeks to empower the entire population of the nation to benefit from its mineral resources. Government participation is expected to result in increased revenue streams for the economy (Government of Zimbabwe, 2007:3).

The Act was repealed in 2018. All investors in mining now have 100% shareholding except for diamonds and platinum. The Act was promulgated during the economic meltdown, and some stakeholders think it was rushed through with minimal consultation.

This section discussed the bodies regulating the mining sector operations in Zimbabwe, namely MMCZ and ZMDC. Of importance to note is the emergency of new Acts crafted to advance the cause of previously marginalised indigenous citizens. To further understand this aspect, key legal Acts of parliament were outlined and their interventions.

2.6 THE IMPACT OF THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section discusses the impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. The exploitation of mineral wealth has impacted the socio-economic and political spheres in several ways, positively and negatively (Tyagi, Garg & Paudel, 2014:1492). To have a deeper understanding, the impact is examined economically, socially, politically and environmentally. Nevertheless, despite its importance to national and world economies, mining is inherently associated with both positive and negative socio-economic and ecological impacts explored here (Gambara & Mazvimavi, 2006:2).

2.6.1 Economic Contributions

Mining in Zimbabwe has, over the years, continued to make a remarkable economic impact. To realise this economic growth, Zimbabwe has exploited its mineral resources over the years,

which increased its GDP earnings and offered employment to many people (Mathe & Phiri, 2016:503).

The trend became evident at the advent of the new millennium. The downturn of agriculture from being the breadbasket of southern Africa to a ‘begging basket’ made the contributions of the mining sector outstanding. According to Mapira (2017:320), mining provides numerous benefits to the Zimbabwean economy: foreign currency, which contributes 5% and 23% to the country’s gross domestic product (GDP) and total exports, respectively.

In the same discourse, Mapira (2017:315) further asserts that metals such as gold have earned the country millions of dollars since the colonial era and created employment for thousands of people in the formal and informal sectors of the economy. For example, in 1986, about 55 100 were employed directly and a lot more indirectly through downstream linkages such as infrastructure development such as roads and rail (Mapira, 2017:319). Mines also supply industries with raw materials such as cement and fertiliser. Examples from yesteryears include Buchwa Mine in Mberengwa, which used to supply Zimbabwe Iron and Steel Company (ZISCO) with iron ore, while Hwange used to supply coal for the blast furnace (Mapira, 2017:320).

The mining sector also contributes to urbanisation and improvement to the quality of living through the provision of social amenities such as sports and recreation facilities, sanitation and health among a host of them. Most importantly, mining boasts international trade, consequently growing the Gross National Product (GNP).

Mahonye and Mandishara (2015:81) reiterate that these minerals present great potential for the economy to grow and foster economic development, leading to massive poverty reduction through employment creation. This is achieved through forwarding and backward linkages across the production sectors of the economy. Examples of this development are the platinum mines of Ngezi in Mhondoro, Unki in Shurugwi, Mimosa in Zvishavane and Murowa Diamond, among others. A host of local people have been employed among many from other areas and countries.

To buttress the critical contribution of mining to the economy, the Reserve Bank Monetary Policy Statement presented in the first quarter of 2018 noted that nickel (mattes, ores & concentrates), ferrochrome and diamonds dominated the country’s exports, contributing about 80% of total export earnings. The country’s exports were mainly destined for the SADC region, with South Africa and Mozambique absorbing 62.8% and 10.5%, respectively. The country’s

major exports to South Africa include the platinum group of metals (PGMs), gold and nickel (Reserve Bank Monetary Policy Statement, 2018:24).

On the contrary, a boom in mineral production has its fair of problems which usually lead to corruption, tax evasion, non-disclosure of profits and disregard of the rule of law. The mineral development is also referred to as ‘point resources’, which usually lead to appropriation and self-aggrandizement. Generally, abundant point resources are coupled with a higher risk of conflict (Mahonye & Mandishara, 2015:83). Examples of such governance loopholes occurred during the first phase of diamond mining in Manicaland. Most companies involved in mining lacked accountability and transparency.

However, despite these numerous grand benefits of the mining industry, the general populations who play host to these mining ventures have not been updated on production trends and financial performance. Nothing tangible can be attributed to these massive investments. All there is to see is the massive environmental degradation and poverty amongst the people. Parsons, Lacey and Moffat (2014:84) note that most mining companies operate without a social licence (SO). The social licence legitimises the organisation to be part of the community. The trio further advises that acting ‘responsibly’ endows the organisation with perceived legitimacy among external observers who may otherwise constrain or frustrate organisational activities (Parsons *et al.*, 2014:84).

The lessons drawn from economic contribution are that mining ventures bring development for communities and the country at large. However, the contribution comes with some negative factors like resource depletion, land degradation, and lack of secondary investment for local development. These development strategies are meant to sustain communities when the mining ventures close.

2.6.2 Social impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe

Mining impacts peoples’ lives positively and negatively. The positive impact has to do with all the benefits realised from the venture. Some of the people from the locality and beyond can get employed by the mining firms. Host communities can get an infrastructure facelift. This can be through road construction, clinics, provision of clean water, schools and other social amenities. Mabhena and Moyo (2014:3) concur and say mining is a global industry that can create jobs, spur innovation, investment and infrastructure development over a long time and remains one of the major contributors of economic growth and social development. In this regard, mining ventures in any part of the world have direct and indirect benefits to

communities that play host to them. MNCs should act as vehicles of development and thereby provide social services, such as roads, education, electricity, health care, among a host of other amenities (Idemudia, 2011:7; Amos, 2018:1178).

This usually led to poverty reduction by creating employment pushed by backward and forward linkages of the production value chain with other sectors of the economy (Mahonye & Mandishara, 2015:81; Mathe & Phiri, 2016:503). Examples of positive developments in Zimbabwe include those brought by the platinum mines in Ngezi in Mhondoro, Unki in Shurugwi and Mimosa in Zvishavane. The road network has greatly improved, making accessibility of the surrounding areas easy. The mines have also invested in soccer, which has allowed young people to expose talent at the national level. Teams from these mines are currently playing in the premier league of Zimbabwe.

The European Bank of Reconstruction and Development (2017:3) advises that if the mining industry is not managed correctly, it creates many challenges that include environmental degradation, displaced populations, inequality and conflicts. Tyagi *et al.* (2014:1493) assert that these consequences include increased poverty, overcrowding, famine, weather extremes, species loss and human rights abuses. These are usually the inherent problems that come as mismanaged mining investments (Lindahl, 2014:6).

The experience of the Chiadzwa diamond rush is an excellent example of what happens when mining ventures are not properly managed. The rush had people in conflict with each other and the state organs as the scramble intensified. The scramble had turned ethnic. People from outside the province of Manicaland Zimbabwe had running battles with those from within. Apart from this, some villagers were moved to other areas to pave the way for formal mining. Some of the promises made to the displaced people were not fulfilled.

The sudden rush resulted in an influx of people who encountered inadequate social amenities such as clean water, toilets and accommodation to match the growing number of people. Furthermore, people engaged in conflicts as ethnicity became the screening criteria for the 'foreign invaders' from outside Manicaland Province (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146). Katsaura (2010:102) concurs, pointing out that such rapid inward migration causes extreme pressure on civic functions like drinking water and sanitation provisions and creates a terrain of conflicts, struggles, and contestations.

The CRD Annual Report (2014:37) noted that mining companies in Marange abandoned relocated families from Chiadzwa to Arda Transau without fulfilling commitments made to

more than 1 500 families. The commitments included food handouts after three months, employment of young people into the diamond mines, compensation for loss of property, clean water and one-hectare pieces of land. Against a backdrop, the government had acted as a guarantor to all the promises (Lindahl, 2014:8; Kondo, 2011:14; Madebwe, Madebwe & Mavusa, 2011:293; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:147). The situation made the people join gold/diamond panning, which exposed the victims to conflict with the security teams of the mining companies (CRD Report, 2014:38). The growth of the mining sector between 2006 and 2007 is presented in Figure 2.2

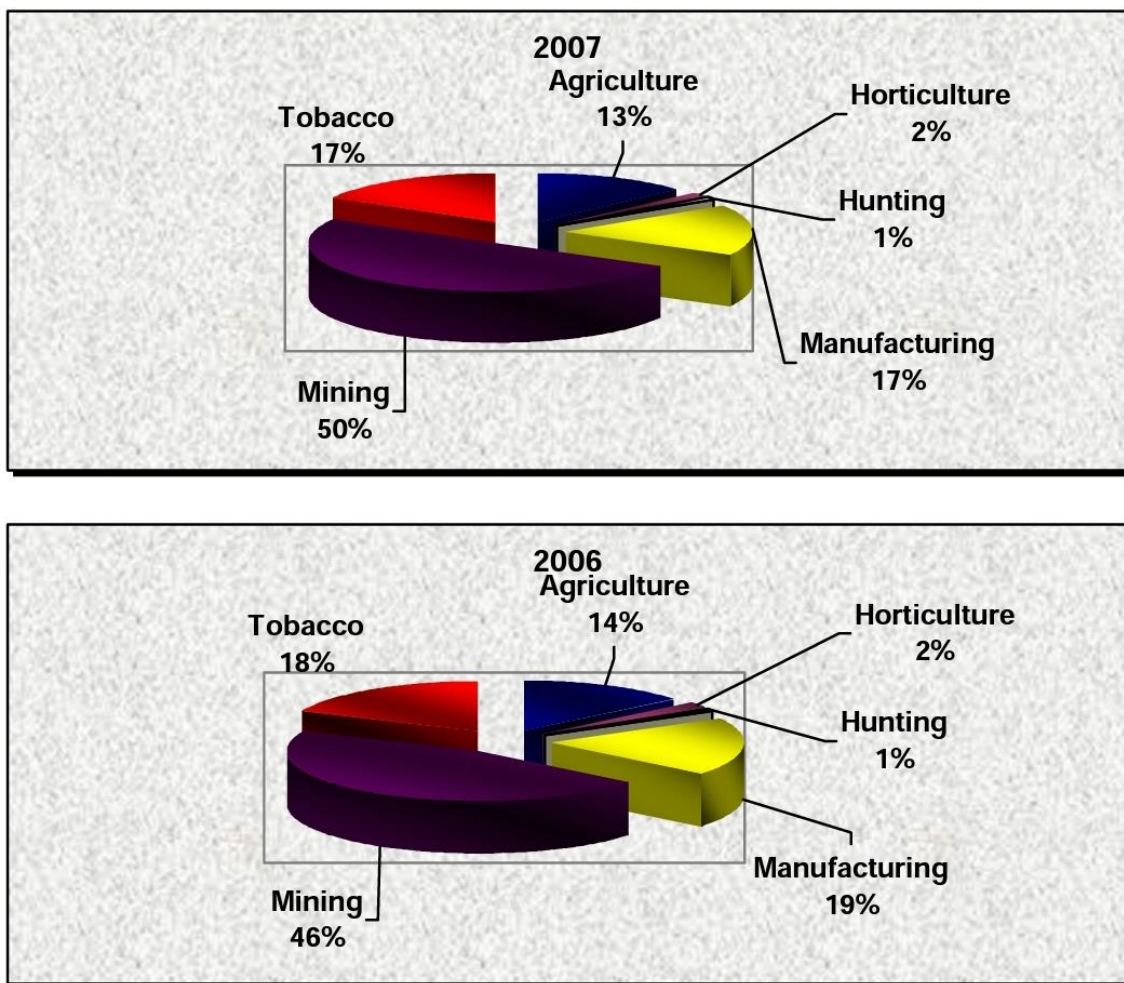


Figure 2.3: Sector Contributions to Shipments
Source: RBZ Monetary Policy Statement (2008:78)

The growth of the mining sector in 2006 and 2007 was on a steady increase. The increase moved from 46% to 50% within a year. The trend has continued over the recent years, and the sector has been the most thriving pillar of the economy.

In 2018, gold deliveries to Fidelity Printers and Refiners reached 33.2 tonnes, a record high for the country, which also surpassed the year's target of 30 tonnes. This represents a 33.9% increase from 24.8 tonnes delivered in 2017. Notably, despite facing a plethora of challenges, small-scale producers continued to dominate the country's gold deliveries, accounting for 65.3% of the total deliveries, with the primary producers contributing the remainder. Deliveries of gold by small-scale producers increased by 64.5%, from 13.2 tonnes in 2017 to 21.7 tonnes in 2018 Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2019:23).

The remarkable contribution of the mining sector, especially as a foreign currency earner, led to economic growth and sustained the lives of ordinary people who engaged in gold panning. However, this is not the trend with most communities affected by mining ventures as they still live-in abject poverty (Mahonye & Mandishara, 2015:81).

2.6.3 The political impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe

Politics is central to the establishment, survival and running of any business concern in any country (Chamber of Mines of Zimbabwe, 2017:6). Aristotle, in ancient Greek, defined politics as the exercise of power through making collective decisions and allocation of resources. Seward (2010:45) concurs and says politics is power and the distribution of resources. Politics in this discussion is viewed as the power or authority held by those ruling on resources distribution. These resources include natural land, minerals, animals, water found in the environment. In this regard, politics is central and key to any business venture.

Companies engaged in mining are subject to political risk, including corruption, civil unrest, regulatory uncertainty and political instability. This scenario was visible during the advent of indigenisation and empowerment in Zimbabwe when companies began conversing with the government. Corruption came about when some companies sought 'protection' from seemingly unfavourable government policies. Interference from stakeholders, government agencies, non-governmental agencies and bureaucratic hurdles can stall or even thwart granting exploration licence (O'Callaghan & Spagnolletti, 2017:3; Detomasi, 2008:807). In some instances, shortcuts can also speed up the processes, impacting the outcomes negatively.

The Zimbabwean Constitution states that the president is the Head of State and Government and Commander-In-Chief of the Defence Forces. The president has the power to direct the state's political affairs (Zimbabwe Constitution, 2013:42). The Mines and Mineral Act Chapter 21.05 clearly states that, the dominium in and the right of searching and mining for and disposing of all minerals, mineral oils and natural gas, notwithstanding the dominium or right

which any person may possess in and to the soil on or under which such minerals, mineral oils and natural gases are found or situated, is vested in the President (Mines and Minerals Act Part 2(1)).

The brief background puts the central government at the fore of setting the operational modalities through state organs where the power to govern reside. A typical example is that of the Indigenisation and Empowerment Act (IEEA), Chapter 14:33 of 2007, which introduced the 51% shareholding by indigenous citizens into every mining investment by foreigners, 10% of this was to be disposed to local communities through Community Share Ownership Trusts (CSOT) (Matsa & Masimbiti, 2014:151; Chiunya, Dube & Mhembwe, 2017:1). A further 10% was to be availed to employees through Employee Share Ownership Scheme/Trust (ESOS/T). The act became very unpopular with both local and foreign investors. In its annual report of 2014, the chamber of mines remarked that indigenisation regulations continued to weigh down on the effort to mobilise external capital into the mining sector (Mawowa, 2013:22; The Zimbabwe Chamber of Mines Report of 2014:5).

The same act also brought about the concept of the community share ownership trusts schemes (CSOTS), which were viewed indifferently by all concerned parties as these benefitted a few who were connected to the programme handlers who in most cases got bribes from the mining concerns (Phiri, Mantzari & Gleadle, 2018:3). The initiative was viewed as a political gimmick and a contest of power (Mawowa, 2013:23). However, despite the irregularities in the implementation of the empowerment programmes, the real shortcomings manifested in the disregard or dislodging of the intended beneficiaries, i.e. the poor and downtrodden. This position stems from the fact that these programmes were mooted to alleviate poverty among the general population that co-exists with the mining establishments.

To this end, arguments have been advanced that the schemes were a knee-jerk reaction to the economic embargo that had been slapped on the country by the western countries. The view was that foreign multinational companies from the West benefitted without ploughing back to communities that host them. It can be deduced that despite the leading role of the mining sector in the economy of Zimbabwe, the sector has failed to develop the communities that host them in terms of employment, poverty eradication, sustainable development and general uplifting of standards of living.

On the contrary, Ofori and Hinson (2007:179) refute that companies should be compelled to invest in arguing that the strategic aim is to earn a return on capital and if, in any particular

case, the return, in the long run, is not satisfactory. The deficiency should be corrected or the particular activity abandoned for a more favourable one.

This probably explains what transpired in Marange, Manicaland, during the Chiadzwa diamond rush. The companies' focus was mainly on profit maximisation for shareholders as the overriding goal of business (Chidyausiku & Muzingili, 2017:60). Frankental (2001:19) agrees to the fore-going assertion that corporate governance principles stress accountability to shareholders emphasising that accountability to many is accountability to none. Frankental suggests the formulation of a different legal company framework to incorporate a socially responsible company.

Other companies are subtle to getting involved in policy pronouncements that may give them a competitive advantage through lawmakers' political support. En Hood, Rehbein, Bakker and Lankveld (2014:796) came up with a concept termed corporate political activity (CPA). The concept's primary objective is to sell the firm's policies, processes and practices 'intended to influence governmental policy or process'. The advocates of this political tact believe that different activities can convey policy preferences to policymakers: information provision, financial contributions, and constituency building. Firms may choose to get involved in political processes for defensive reasons, for example, when they interpret pending governmental decisions as a threat to their competitiveness (Getz, 1997:206). Alternatively, they may view their political environment as offering opportunities to influence the outcomes of electoral, legislative, or regulatory processes to reflect the organisation's internal goals. Oliver and Holzinger (2008:496) argue that effective political strategies focusing on compliance can result in higher efficiency and legitimacy for firms and that firms that can anticipate and implement governmental policies are likely to develop good relationships with key stakeholders such as the government, media, and public interest groups (En Hood *et al.*, 2014:797). On the other hand, political contributions are usually not disclosed to the board or shareholders, nor are political expenditures subject to oversight as part of a firm's internal controls. This makes the company links to political corridors challenging to trace and subsequently affects the conduct of government leaders who have had underhand deals with heads of influential business organisations.

On the positive front, En Hood *et al.* (2014:800) advise that politically connected companies with good CSR reputations benefit legislators and regulators in several ways. Politicians desire to be associated with individuals, companies, and issues that are well received within their state

or district. High reputation firms may therefore have less of a need to use financial instruments to gain access to and attention of politicians. This, in turn, reduces a firms' cost of interaction with regulators and firms that recognize this weakened position of governments seek to benefit by demanding 'regulatory relief in direct exchange for greater efforts in CSR' (Gjøølberg, 2011: 5).

2.6.4 Environmental impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe

The environment plays host to the mining ventures, which result in land degradation, which refers to any change or disturbance perceived to be deleterious or undesirable, that is, the reduction of the environment's capacity to meet social and ecological objectives and needs. The primary cause of environmental degradation is human disturbance (Tyagi, Garg & Paudel, 2014:1491; Obydenkova, Rodrigues Vieira & Tosun, 2021:1). In the same vein, environmental degradation is also viewed as the deterioration of the environment through depletion of resources such as air, water and soil, leading to any change or disturbance perceived to be deleterious or undesirable (Samimi, Ahmadpour & Ghaderi, 2012:503; Obydenkova, Rodrigues Vieira & Tosun, 2021:2). In the mining sector in Zimbabwe, environmental impact is viewed as the changes to the environment encompassing the land, plants, water bodies, livestock, living organisms (ecological system) habitats, and the naturally endowed resources in communities. Tyagi *et al.* (2014: 1491; Obydenkova, Rodrigues Vieira & Tosun, 2021:6) assert that mining is one human activity that is a destructive development where ecology suffers at the altar of economic prosperity.

Zimbabwe has not been spared of this devastating phenomenon by mining activities. The environment has been disfigured whenever the development process of a mine begins. The land is cleared for roads and infrastructure development. This is inclusive of prospecting, exploration, development, extraction and reclamation (Pojasek, 2011:86). The latter is usually not done as mines ignore mine closure procedures. The development of mines has led on many occasions to people and animals being moved to other places to make way for such establishments. Consequences of such disturbances include increased poverty, overcrowding, famine, weather extremes, species loss, acute and chronic medical illnesses, war and human rights abuses, global abuses, global warming and ultimately an unstable global situation (Pojasek, 2011:90; Tyagi *et al.*, 2014:1492).

One striking example for Zimbabwe is what happened in Manicaland Province, where alluvial diamond and gold mining activities in such areas as Chimanimani, Marange, Chiadzwa and

Penhalonga exposed these communities to environmental degradation, water pollution and disruption of the eco-system (CRD Annual Report, 2014:5; Ncube-Phiri, Mucherera & Ncube, 2015:5). In Zimbabwe, Part XI (99) (d) of the Environmental Management Act (Chapter 20:27), which became obligatory in 2003, requires project proponents with development projects likely to adversely impact the environment to specify measures proposed for eliminating, reducing, or mitigating any anticipated adverse effects the project may have on the environment, identifying ways of monitoring and managing the environmental effects of the project (Government of Zimbabwe (GOZ) 2003: 391). Implementation and adherence to the rules and regulations remain a major challenge in the sector. Land degradation caused by artisanal mining is presented in Figure 2.4



Figure 2.4: Land Degradation Caused by Artisanal Mining

Source: Ncube-Phiri *et al.*, (2015:25).

It is in such instances that people fail to live and benefit from the natural environment. Usually, the consequences are dire as such developments lead to the alienation of people from cultural heritage. People are usually located in other areas leaving behind graves of forefathers and other ancestral artifacts. Such unplanned movements bring about untold suffering as most of the promises go unfulfilled. The sad part is that the government will have blessed such developments, and there is no law to help seek recourse. The affected people usually do not sign contractual obligations on the part of the project owners. The current situation shows a

failure by the mining sector to support communities in their socio-economic lives in fighting poverty and advancing development.

The section discussed the impact of mining in the sector in Zimbabwe. The literature on the impact of the mining sector was analysed economically, socially, politically and environmentally. The outcome shows that mining impacts positively and negatively in the four examined areas. Positively, mining contributes to the economic growth of individuals, households, communities and the entire nation. Negatively mining contributes to environmental degradation, pollution and general lifestyles owing to resettlements. Overall, mining remains a pillar of the socio-economic development of Zimbabwe. What remains is to ensure that sustainable development measures and regulations are observed. The following section looks at the challenges faced by the mining sector in Zimbabwe.

2.7 CHALLENGES FACING THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section focuses its attention on the challenges faced by the mining sector in Zimbabwe. The challenges are mainly administrative, legal and operational. These challenges prohibit the smooth flow of operations, in the end hindering production.

The mining industry in Zimbabwe faces a myriad of challenges, some of which are operational and administrative. The challenges in some instances make it difficult for mining establishments to connect with key stakeholders especially the local communities (Chidyausiku & Muzingili, 2017:61). Legal and access to capital remain as the main challenges which hinder meaningful CSR interaction with stakeholders (Mutero, 2016:51)

From the onset, it must be pointed that the sector has remained remarkably resilient despite the turbulent waves in the local economy, characterised by liquidity challenges, economic uncertainty, policy inconsistency, rising inflation and lack of investment.

Another challenge is speculation by potential investors about the operating environment. Investors become risk-averse, leading to a lack of commitment to the planned programmes (Mutero, 2016:51).

2.7.1 Legal challenges

The mining sector operates under various legal parameters, as earlier highlighted under 2:5. These legal issues have associated fees that must be adhered to and complied with; for example, the 49/51% shareholding structure between the indigenous and foreign investors was repealed and culminated in the exemption of all minerals back to 100% shareholding by investors. Only

two minerals are still affected by this clause, namely platinum and diamonds (Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Annual Report, 2017:4). Other issues, which still require attention and remain concern issues, include high ground rental fees, Rural District Councils (RDC) levies, high Environment Management Agency (EMA) charges, among other tax expenses (Chamber of Mines Annual Report, 2017:12).

2.7.2 Access to capital

The Chamber of Mines of Zimbabwe, in its 2017 Report, pointed out that the mining industry continues to be undermined by systematic challenges that include capital shortages, inadequate foreign exchange allocations, high energy tariffs, suboptimal fiscal framework and increased labour costs (Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Report, 2017:4). The report and preceding years referred to high ground rental fees, Rural District Councils (RDC) levies, high Environmental Management Agency (EMA) charge, high tax regimes and suboptimal royalties. These issues affect the already burdened mining industry (Chamber of Mines Zimbabwe Annual Report, 2014:5). The Reserve Bank Monetary Policy Statement issued in February 2019 noted that short term money supply does not auger well for investment, as it falls short of the medium to long term credit requirements of most industries, which need re-tooling, refurbishment and new capital investments (Reserve Bank Monetary Policy Statement, 2019:35).

The reports remarked that mining industry players continue to decrease due to demanding operating conditions and cash flow problems, leading to falling production levels and fewer sales. Mapira (2017:322) concurs and adds that the lack of liquidity in the financial sector is another challenge that makes it difficult to raise long-term capital investment. Mapira (2017:322) reiterates that this is compounded by the fact that Zimbabwe's relations with western donor countries such as Britain and the United States of America have remained poor for several decades with the passing of economic sanctions. The country remains an unattractive destination for most foreign investors.

2.8 PREVIOUS MANAGEMENT-BASED RESEARCH WORK IN THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

This section looks at previous management-based research work in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This is intended to give a broad and deeper understanding of the sector. It is envisaged that views drawn from the research work give a clear picture of the sector's position.

In this view, several research articles have been undertaken on the mining industry in Zimbabwe. Most of these research articles have attempted to examine how mining companies have incorporated aspects that have been discussed in this chapter.

Mahonye and Mandishara (2015:81) researched the mechanism between the mining sector and economic growth in Zimbabwe. The study investigated the role of mineral resources in economic development and how the extractive sector impacts the overall performance of the economy of a country endowed with a diverse mineral. The authors analysed the economic growth model using human capital, population growth, property rights, and political rights, the share of mineral exports to total exports, real growth of mining and growth in foreign direct investments for the period 1970-2008. The observed results presented that real manufacturing growth, real mining growth, the share of mineral exports to total exports, property rights and political rights are important determinants of economic growth.

Of interest are the emerging facts that the researchers advance, that of the resource curse myth. According to this myth, a resource curse occurs when a country like Zimbabwe endowed with mineral wealth fails to utilise the mineral resources for economic growth. The blame has been attributed to the institutions that handle transactions from agreements to revenue collected. Most African countries are believed to suffer from the mismanagement paradox. Mlambo (2016:40) asserts that there is serious corruption in the issuance of mining rights, the revenue is not broadly distributed (some sections of the community are excluded from the benefits), and there is generally lack of transparency in how the revenue is used (consumption or capital development).

Mathe and Phiri (2016:503) carried anthropogenic research on the impact of mining on the environment in Gwanda District Zimbabwe, using a case study of Blanket Mine. The research was set to investigate the anthropogenic causes of air pollution, land pollution, and land degradation at Blanket Mine in Gwanda. The results of the research showed that mining activities altered the ecosystem both in physical and chemical ways.

The research exposed the negative impact of mining on human and animal life. For example, water pollution through chemical waste, land decimation because of mounds of the mine tailings. It was also established that the health of people living in and around Blanket Mine was compromised because some people suffered from respiratory infections. Of interest were the interventions by the mine, which were considered not convincing to put a stop to the scourge.

Dziro (2014:61) researched the relevance of community development and corporate social responsibility in the wake of indigenisation empowerment programmes in Zimbabwe. The study was carried in two districts where mining companies operate, namely, Zvishavane and Mutoko Districts of Zimbabwe. The research established that CSR is influenced by the desire to make profits rather than the philanthropic urge to assist communities in economic, social, and environmental development.

The research noted the need for the government to develop a mechanism that assists mining companies in using profits realised to improve communities in a transparent and accountable manner. This should be done regardless of individuals' political affiliation. Strategies suggested include the employment of locals and procuring mine requirements locally. The other proffered mechanism is to adhere to the dictates of the Indigenisation and Empowerment Act Chapter 14:33 of 2007 with amendments to accommodate all stakeholders.

The research further suggests programmes in the mold of community share ownership trust schemes (CSOTS) (Mawowa, 2013:22) should be maintained, but with consultation and involvement of all members of the community regardless of political affiliation (Dziro, 2014:61). Another possible plan would be to affect a rebate system that benefits companies that would have engaged in CSR activities meant to alleviate poverty in host communities and the nation at large.

Related to the latter is another research carried out by Mawowa (2013), focusing on community share ownership trusts (CSOTS) in Zimbabwe's mining sector. The research objective was to establish how CSOTS could ease the poverty experienced by communities that host mining entities. Again, the research sought to develop empowerment arrangements of local communities that develop empowerment arrangements of local communities endowed with mineral wealth (Mawowa, 2013:22).

The CSOTS came about because of the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act (IEEA) Chapter 14:33 of 2007. The policy required at least 51% of shares in every mining company to be owned by indigenous Zimbabweans by 2015. (This has since been repealed to 100% shareholding by any investor in January 2018 except for platinum and diamonds). Of the 51% shares, 10% was to be disposed to local communities through a community share ownership trust (CSOT). The researchers noted that the initiative was of good intent but was largely paternalistic and had a top-down approach with zero community involvement and consultation. The researcher concluded that this approach was more a transfer of ownership

and inclined to a political gimmick. This was paralleled with the takeover of land previously owned by white commercial farmers.

However, despite what appears to be the glaring shortcomings of the initiative, at a conceptual level, the emphasis on the local community benefiting from its natural resources presents an opportunity of sharing stakes between mining companies, local communities and citizens at large (Mandina, Maravire & Masere, 2014:166).

Another study by Dziro (2014:61) in recent times focuses on the effectiveness of corporate social responsibility in enhancing company image using Unki Mine as a case study. The research revealed that the company's CSR did not amuse the local community as it felt there was an imbalance in terms of benefits drawn from the venture. Most workers required are highly technical, with most locals not qualified to take up the jobs. Those who have been employed are contract workers hired for casual jobs. Locals still feel that qualified locals working else way should be encouraged to return to home grounds to take up skilled and specialised jobs. The other way is that of coming up with scholarships that aim to develop locals acquire high-level skills.

Of interest is that CSR has become a legal issue through the IEEA because platinum was excluded from the 100% shareholding clause. Unki Mine, as a platinum mine, is required to cede 51% to local investors; 10% of this is given to the community through the CSOT scheme (IEEA Chapter 14:33 of 2007:3).

This section focussed its attention on previous management-based research work done on the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Emerging facts are that mining is a pillar of economic growth in Zimbabwe. The other important fact raised is that the generality of the people should benefit from the sector economically and socially. The other issue raised is the resource curse myth pinned on the lack of transparency by people in institutions that drive the mining sector. The question being raised is; how can a country endowed with rich mineral resources not benefit from them? Corruption and lack of accountability are cited as the causes of lack of development. A good example is discovering diamonds in Manicaland Province, Marange, where more than ten (10) mining companies mined diamonds but never yielded anything. The estimated loss through corruption is said to have been around 15 billion dollars.

2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter was established through a review of local and international literature, several issues in the Zimbabwean mining sector. The review is anchored on stakeholder and social exchange theories. The main thrust of the theories is premised on the notion that mining companies must grow the industry and satisfy the needs of their stakeholders. Furthermore, it is believed that this relationship is symbiotic as each party thrives on the goodwill of the other.

Against this background, the chapter addressed the following aspects; composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe; the sector's historical background focusing on the pre-and post-independence mining. This was followed by a look at the bodies that regulate the mining sector in the country. The legal framework was examined through a brief outline of key Acts of Parliament that relate to mining in Zimbabwe. Attention then shifted to the impact of the sector socially, politically, economically and environmentally. The chapter then winds up with challenges the sector faces in its operations and citations of related management-based research work done in Zimbabwe over the years.

The chapter uncovered the composition of the mining sector. The mining sector composition in Zimbabwe is determined by the size of the mining concession, capitalisation and mechanisation, which is made up of small- and large-scale miners. The small to medium mines are composed of artisanal miners, co-operatives and large-scale multinational conglomerates (MNCs).

The historical background of the mining sector gives a clear picture of how the sector has developed from the pre-independence and post-independence periods. The Great Dyke is the primary source of mineral wealth in Zimbabwe, a belt stretching over 500 kilometres. Post-independence mining became very crucial and central to the development of the country. Mining became the evident and prominent beginning of the new millennium. The small-scale artisanal miners also impacted, especially their output, which made a significant contribution to the economy, especially after the demise of the agricultural sector.

The legal framework about the mining sector was outlined, with the Mines and Minerals Act Chapter 21:05 being the principal piece of legislation guiding operations. Supporting legislation included Zimbabwe Mines Development Corporation Act Chapter 21:08, Mines Minerals Corporation of Zimbabwe Act 21:04, Precious Stones Trade Act Chapter 21:06; Environmental Management Agency Act Chapter 20:27 and Indigenisation and Economic

Empowerment Act Chapter 14:33. Zimbabwe currently has no mineral policy, but this is a work in progress; but the diamond policy was operationalised in 2008.

The sector faces legal and access to capital challenges for further investment and procurement of special equipment required by the sector. The chapter ends with a citation of management-related research work conducted in the sector. The next chapter looks at CSR.

CHAPTER 3

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explored the development of mining in Zimbabwe. This chapter provides an overview of the origin of CSR and its practices to unpack the CSR concept and its developmental stages. It is against this background that discussions in this chapter are centred on the following; conceptualisation of CSR, determinants of CSR, the importance of CSR, benefits of CSR, measurement of CSR, characteristics of CSR, dimensions of CSR and related management research work on CSR in Zimbabwe.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF CSR

This section discusses CSR from the time of manifestation and its developmental trends spanning over different periods. This calls for the cross-examination of the CSR concept from its inception right through its development process. Hence, this section focuses its discourse on CSR manifestation during the early years of industrialisation of Europe and the United States of America up to the present day.

During the early years of industrialisation, the call for CSR increased through concerns raised by workers for recognition for their effort. This was achieved through concerted efforts outside business establishments in the form of unions and pressure groups. These groups advocated for the adoption of CSR into commercial enterprises (Rahman, 2011:166). As a result, CSR as a concept flourished in practice and acceptance in this setting, mainly in Western countries (Sahoo, 2011:3; Srinaruewan, Higgins & Binney, 2014:160). Consequently, throughout the early twentieth century, CSR's present concept and form emerged (Hoffman, 2007:55; Carroll & Shabana, 2010:28). In this regard, the labour unions and pressure groups served as a conduit for grievances from employees and residents living around the firms (Hoffman, 2007:57; Carroll, 2008:21).

Business organisations of this period were paying increased attention to the concerns of society, such as the welfare of employees and society in general (Kaur, 2012:48). This came about through the emergence of labour movements and the spreading of shantytowns caused by the industrial revolution (Kaur, 2012:50; Srinaruewan, Higgins & Binney, 2014:162). This state of affairs led businesses to provide social welfare on a limited scale, including the construction of hospitals, bathhouses and provision of food coupons (Jhavar & Gupta, 2017:105). This

initiative was led by business organisations that had made significant successes. Literature has it that, during this period, prominent business people, like John D. Rockefeller and Cornelius Vanderbilt, became popular in the United States (Carroll, 2008:22; Jhawar & Gupta, 2017:106). It was during this period that CSR prominence increased, particularly during the industrial revolution. However, the relevance of CSR to organisations and societies remained philanthropic through pressures exerted by unions and labour movements. This is in contrast to recent opinions that suggest CSR should be included in the mainstream organisational strategic plans that uplift the lives of the underprivileged and the organisation's performance (Galbreath, 2009:109; Carroll, 2008:22; Sahoo, 2011:4).

These arguments undermined the legitimacy of CSR, as benefits offered by industrial philanthropists were only recognised by local communities and various social groups (Wang & Gao, 2016:1). However, the Great Depression of 1929 in the United States of America further strengthened the CSR concept by introducing public trusteeship management, which worked alongside the traditional profit-maximising management (Servaes & Tamayo, 2013:1047). This was an effort to include works of charity into the mainstream organisational programmes. Carroll (2016:5) highlights that business philanthropy spearheaded the development of the CSR concept during this period, although the concept was later viewed as a post-World War II phenomenon that became visible in the 1950s and beyond (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85; Wang & Gao, 2016:2). Thus, initially, CSR was in the form of philanthropy by the corporates, but after the 1950s, the concept experienced a significant change (Jhawar & Gupta, 2017:106; Maj, 2017:128). This change benefited the organisations as calls for the inclusion of CSR became louder as more organisations became more inclined to organisations that had CSR as part of their strategic plans (Galbreath, 2009:110).

More formal writings on the CSR concept became prevalent during the twentieth century (Akin & Yilmaz, 2016:4; Carroll, 2016:6; Geethamani, 2017:372). As a result, this saw most writings emerging from the United States where a sizable body of literature had accrued (Rahman, 2011:167; Wang & Gao, 2016:3; Jhawar & Gupta, 2017:106). The concept also spread across Europe as the concept gained popularity through scholars and practitioners who were warming up to the concept. There was considerable evidence that Europe was taking this social concern seriously. This manifested in the form of formal writings, research, conferences, and consultancies. In recent years, the trend was to manifest in countries in Asia (India, China and Malaysia) where scholars and researchers have begun to increase their attention to CSR policies and practices (Carroll, 2008:20; Tilt, 2016:2). The concept of CSR has been developing in

thought and practice in several countries at different times, especially in Asia and Africa (Carroll, 2008:22; Maj, 2017:130). Table 3.1 shows the historical developments of each epoch.

Table 3.1: Historical Progression of CSR development

CSR Progression eras	Characteristics of CSR progression eras
The modern era of CSR:1950s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Period of the beginning of the modern era of CSR. • Corporate managers and board directors started feeling that they exist as a society and have some obligation towards society. • Bowen 1953 and Heald 1957 are key proponents of CSR during this period.
CSR broadens:1960s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moral issues in business were raised on a record level. • During this time, many businesses were selling unsafe products harmful to the environment. • Society was not succeeding in helping economically deprived citizens. • Bribery was common, and morality suffered to money and power. • Broadened literature on CSR.
CSR growth: 1970s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business people during this period were significantly engaged with corporate philanthropy and community relations. • The period stressed the inclusion of stakeholders to match public expectation and utilisation of CSR for long-term benefits of the society. • Four facets of social performance became well known during this period: social responsibility, social accounting, social indicators, and the social audit.
CSR further growth:1980s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • During this period, Freeman presented the grand Stakeholders Theory, which expresses the involvement of stakeholders in promoting CSR (Freeman 1984). • The definitions during this period also contributed to identifying the relationship between CSR and profitability. • It is assumed that CSR activities increase the reputations of corporations. • CSR reputation increases the confidence of the consumers in the products and services of those companies. • CSR increases profitability.

<p>CSR revealed:1990s</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The triple-bottom-line concept was introduced in this decade, which has been widely accepted in the corporate world. • The business case for CSR has been gaining a solid foundation surrounding the idea of People, Planet and Profit, which means what is good for the environment and society is also good for the business's financial performance. • Finally, Carroll's Evolution of a Definitional Construct has given a new height in the relevant works of literature in this decade and is appreciated.
<p>CSR 21st Century</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The 21st Century is the era of the emerging CSR industry. • Large corporations have fully-flagged CSR departments and hiring CSR Managers and CSR consultants. • Law and accounting firms are emerging to tackle CSR issues in their relevant fields. • Universities are holding CSR conferences, and researchers are contributing to the new literature in the CSR field with great momentum. • Publishers are printing CSR-related books and journals; journalists are reporting on CSR issues in the newspapers.

Source: Rahman (2011:167)

Table 3.1 shows the development trend of CSR from the 1950s to the present day. Of interest is the notion that CSR emerged as a gesture of goodwill by business organisations that wanted to assist the underprivileged and improve the welfare of workers. This was done as a gesture of charity. As the concept warmed up to many business organisations, it became a phenomenon that uplifted people's lives in communities, and it had to be included in the mainstream strategic action plans.

Renowned researcher and author of CSR Carroll (2008:24) observed that the 1950s was referred to as the '*philanthropic*' era because business organisations then donated goods and services to assist the needy. This was interpreted as a goodwill gesture intended to thank mostly workers who worked in the organisations. However, the interpretation of CSR was to change during the 1960s period as this became known as the '*awareness*' era. This shift of mindset was because CSR received more recognition and attention as stakeholders became more aware

of the overall responsibility of business and its involvement in community affairs (Rahman, 2011:167; Carroll, 2016:4; Tilt, 2016:3; Wang & Gao, 2016:10).

The CSR development trend saw the 1970s termed the 'issue' era in which business organisations began focusing on specific issues that affected various stakeholders. These issues included urban decay, racial discrimination and pollution problems, among a host of issues. Finally, the 1980s period and beyond became known as the '*responsiveness*' era. This was because business organisations began taking serious management and organisational actions to address these CSR issues. These actions would see the alteration of management strategies. This included corporate governance issues such as changing boards of directors, examining corporate ethics and using social performance disclosures (Carroll, 2008:25; Rahman, 2011:168; Geethamani, 2017:373).

This section discussed the origins of CSR and its development up to the present day. The concept began in the United States of America, slowly spreading into the rest of Europe. Of interest is that the concept started as a result of lobbying from pressure groups and labour unions. This gradually developed into philanthropic gestures of charity and benevolence by business people as a response to the poor lifestyles that people who lived around the business entities experienced. The gesture would later include the welfare of workers as workers' unions were demanding better working conditions. The trend continued until the 50s when modern CSR began to take shape appreciation levels grew. As a result, the 1950s became the official period of CSR recognition. From then on, each decade onwards had specific developments linked to CSR. Emerging issues are that CSR remains a voluntary business strategy that began through organisations that had posted a remarkable return on investment (ROI). Furthermore, business organisations that employ this strategy are deemed to post profits, as modern business organisations are keen to invest in socially responsible establishments. More so, corporate social reporting has also taken centre stage globally.

3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF CSR

This section focuses attention on the major characteristics of CSR to get a more insightful comprehension of the concept. It is these characteristics that constitute CSR values and principles. CSR characteristics discussed include; voluntarism, managing externalities or internalising perceived issues, orienting multiple stakeholder interests, alignment of social and economic responsibilities, practices and values and philanthropy.

According to the above, various researchers have provided numerous views to describe CSR. For example, literature views CSR as a corporate attitude and reaction to social and environmental issues that exceed the economic and legal requirements (Carroll, 2008:23; Tilt, 2016:4; Geethamani, 2017:374; Książak, 2016:54). Other scholars argue that CSR simply manages and balances the different stakeholder interests (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:97). Nevertheless, numerous scholars agree that business organisations' responsibility encompasses more than making economic gains and obeying laws (Benabou & Tirole, 2010:15).

It is, therefore, inadequate to only consider the business organisations' commitment to laws laid down by legal and social institutions. Hence, it is indispensable to consider informal actions of the business organisation which involve moral principles such as augmenting the welfare of employees and other members of the society (Alhammedi, 2018:4). In this regard, Crane, Matten and Spence (2014:112) identified six core characteristics of the CSR concept, which arguably represent the main thrust of CSR discourse. Alhammedi (2018:5) emphasises that most CSR definitions are anchored on these characteristics, which are core to CSR and often tend to be reproduced in some way in academic or practitioner definitions of CSR.

3.3.1 Voluntarism

Many definitions of CSR focus on volunteer efforts that go above and beyond what is required by law (Crane *et al.*, 2014:5). CSR is characterised by its voluntary nature, and according to Alhammedi (2018:6), it "*begins where the law ends.*" In this context, these activities and initiatives that occur beyond the legal framework of the business organisation could be considered CSR practices in this sense. This trait acknowledges management's discretionary power to engage in and promote CSR activities and policies voluntarily. As a result, phrases like "responsible enterprises" or "citizens" have been coined to convey the voluntary nature of the practice. However, it must be considered that today's business world has fully embraced this concept as budgets and strategies exist for this cause.

This characteristic strongly aligns itself to ethical behaviour, which stresses doing what is right when duty calls. This notion brings out the argument that CSR is viewed differently in developed and developing countries. The developed world perspective makes it mandatory for business organisations to show off CSR activities schedule for possible engagement in business transactions or deals (Jo & Harjoti, 2011:351). This has seen critics of CSR downplaying the

element of voluntarism as CSR's major flaw. These argue that legally mandated accountability should be the focal area as CSR reporting is gaining prominence (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:89).

3.3.2 Managing externalities or internalising

The second attribute is managing externalities, which refers to the effects of company activities on society, particularly those that affect pollution, human rights, waste management, and gas emissions. In this perspective, CSR is viewed as a means for businesses to manage the external environment or internalize the effects of their operations by reducing negative impacts or enhancing good impacts through development programmes such as investing in clean technologies (Alhammedi, 2018:5). CSR operations are considered as trade-offs+ between the business organisation and the community in this environment. For example, when diamonds were discovered in Manicaland, Zimbabwe, companies that got licences to mine diamonds embarked on constructing houses for affected families by way of compensation. This empathetic gesture was meant to minimise discomfort for host communities. However, some of the companies did not meet part of the promises they had initially made.

3.3.3 Multiple stakeholder orientation

The third trait is multiple stakeholder orientation, which emphasises addressing the interests of various stakeholders, including shareholders. A socially responsible corporation, according to Alhammedi (2018:5), balances a variety of stakeholder interests. This is in contrast to the traditional practice of focusing solely on increasing profits for stockholders. The idea is that the legal framework of corporate governance places a premium on shareholder accountability over that of other stakeholders (Ofori & Hinson, 2007:179).

In this context, responsible businesses should interface with all important stakeholders such as employees, suppliers, dealers, and local communities to contribute to the nation's good at large. While it is certain that businesses should produce profits for their shareholders, organisations rely on various other constituencies to live and grow, including consumers, employers, suppliers, and local communities (Crane *et al.*, 2014:6; Lee, Chang & Lee, 2017:355).

3.3.4 Alignment of social and economic responsibilities

The fourth characteristic is the social and economic alignment of set goals through balancing the multiplicity of stakeholders' interests. The alignment should not conflict with the business profitability (Crane *et al.*, 2014:7; Lee, Chang & Lee, 2017:355). The idea here is "doing well

by doing good”, which indicates that CSR firms that engage in good social practices are more likely to enhance their firms’ performance simultaneously (Falck & Heblich, 2007:234; Lee, Chang & Lee, 2017:355). This characteristic is closely linked to the enlightened self-interest notion mentioned earlier, in that considering the social and environmental issues in the decision-making process would best serve the long-run objective of firms’ performance.

Contemporary CSR points to the notion that business organisations that engage in CSR activities improve their image, identity and reputation (Hasan & Yun, 2017:54). It is believed that an organisation that does good is instantly given a social licence to operate. All activities done by the organisation become part of the broader stakeholder network. In most cases, there is a great deal of customer loyalty to the products produced by the business organisation.

3.3.5 Practices and values

The fifth characteristic is related to practices and values that are upheld by society (Crane *et al.*, 2014:8). The CSR concept has an underlying philosophy that underpins these practices. This underlying philosophy refers to the set of values, ethics and moral principles that shape the members of society (Crane *et al.*, 2014:9). This necessitated the attention given to business organisations’ impact, practices, and strategies as a response mechanism to social and environmental issues that affect people's livelihoods. This asserts that the core of CSR is based on the ethical consequences of one’s behaviour to others (Amakobe, 2016:7; Lee, Chang & Lee, 2017:355).

3.3.6 Beyond philanthropy

The sixth characteristic is beyond philanthropy. Although philanthropy and community giving could be part of CSR initiatives (Benabou & Tirole, 2010:3), current arguments on CSR claim that CSR is more than just philanthropy based on community projects towards the less fortunate, but about the entire operations of the firm (Jo & Harjoto, 2011:351). These operations include production, marketing, procurement, human resource management, logistics, and finance (Khan, 2011:2). This view makes CSR a broader concept that includes other players, hence the need to have it integrated into the core business functions (Soroka & Mazurek-Kusiak, 2014:117). This compels that business management finds genuine social and environmental causes to contribute to the society within which these operate (Soroka & Mazurek-Kusiak, 2014:120). Therefore, there is a need for a paradigm shift that requires CSR to be mainstreamed into standard business practice rather than being left to the discretion of management.

This section discussed the six core characteristics of CSR, which capture the main thrust of CSR. Some scholars view CSR as a voluntary concept, but modern CSR trends point in a different direction. The concept calls for economic and social issues that are mostly aligned to stakeholders, while the former focuses on stockholders. This makes the concept broader than just philanthropic and voluntary. However, the meaning and relevance of CSR vary according to the organisational and national context. It must be borne in mind that despite the various perceptions about CSR, the modern view sees the CSR concept as no longer a case of benevolence that comes at the mercy of management but a concept mainstreamed into the core functions of any business organisation.

3.4 DEVELOPMENTAL DEFINITIONS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

This section discusses the definitions of CSR as it developed over the years. The development trend is tracked to the present day. This culminates in the function definition as perceived in the 21st Century.

The subject of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and sustainable development has received widespread attention, particularly in the media and academia. To gain a thorough knowledge of the concept, it is necessary to follow it from its inception during the industrial revolution following the First and Second World Wars (Carroll, 2008:21; Hoffman, 2007:55). Originally, the concept was conceived as a form of corporate philanthropy or charity aimed at assisting employees. This would be carried on through 'unionism,' which pushed for the abolition of child labour and improved working conditions. Bowen (1953:16), one of the earliest and most well-known proponents of CSR principles, defined it as businessmen's responsibility to comply with social and environmental laws that are in line with societal values.

The 1950s marked the start of the contemporary age of CSR when corporate expectations shifted away from producing and maximising profits towards being socially responsible to society (Maj, 2017:128). This is because business organisations do not exist in a vacuum as they are part of a society, and as such, they must contribute positively to the development of the society in which they operate (Odetayo, Adeyemi & Sajuyigbe, 2014:253).

Another distinguished author of the concept in the 1960s, Walton (1967:18), defined CSR as recognising the intimacy of the relationships between the corporation and society, which top managers must keep in mind as the corporation and the related groups pursue their respective goals. However, Friedman (1970:32) assert that there is one and only one social responsibility

of business which is to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits so long as it stays within the rules of the game, which is to say, engages in open and free competition without deception or fraud. As indicated in earlier discussions, the definitions were opined in the 80s and 90s until the beginning of the 21st Century. This array of definitions was influenced by calls for the incorporation of the concept in the management of companies. Rahman, (2011:172) agrees that the 21st Century is the era of the emerging CSR industry. Large corporations have fully-flagged CSR departments and hiring CSR Managers and CSR consultants. Figure 3.1 summarises the perceptions of CSR over the years as business organisations and individuals grappled with understanding the concept. As a result, CSR has been defined in many ways depending on the period.

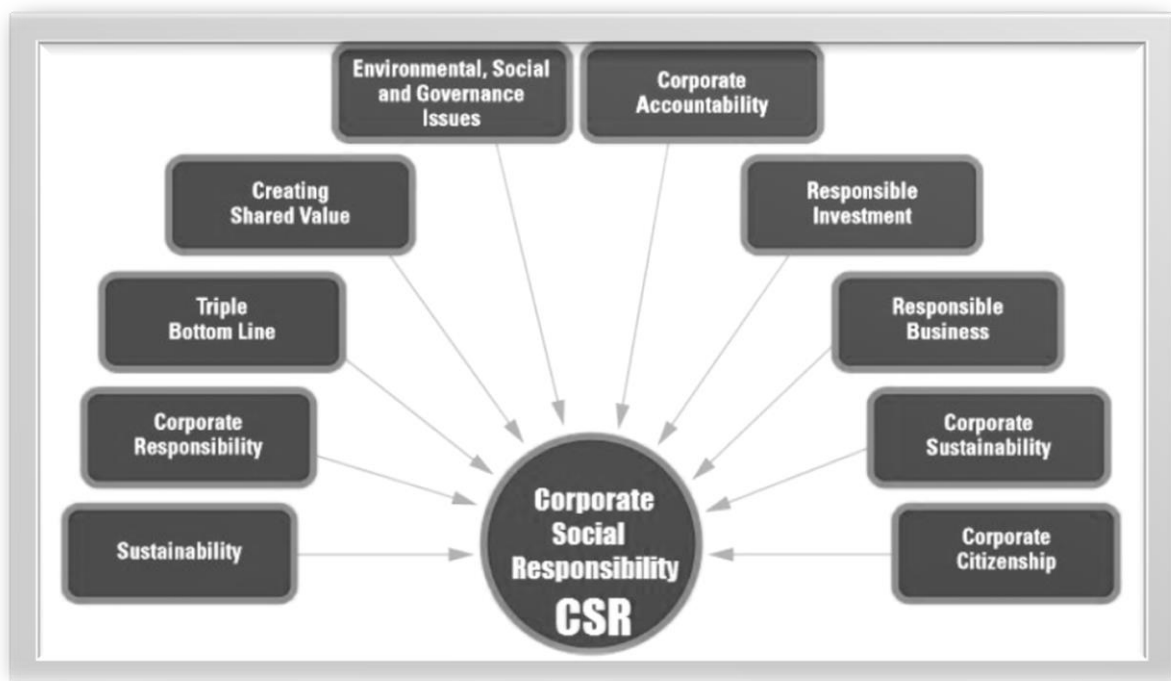


Figure 3.1: Definition of CSR in the 21st Century

Source: Alhammandi (2018:2)

The definitions of CSR have evolved with time to include all the variables shown in the illustration above. This stems from the views of the concept during the industrial revolution in western countries. During the time, organisational interfaces with society were philanthropically meant to address workers' welfare. It later turned to corporate citizenship based on ethics, progressing to incorporate the triple bottom line, which rolled in the environment. This saw the birth of sustainable development, which focuses on the past, present and future utilisation of resources. Apart from the latter, issues to do with human rights and

consumer handling have become paramount. Presently CSR is a management strategy that spurs business profitability and image. All this put together is what has been termed the 21st Century of CSR.

However, CSR as a concept has no consensus definition. Various writers (Carroll, 2008:20; Rahman, 2011:167; Maj, 2017:128) defined it based on their background, interest, exposure, and values embodied in the writer's frame of reference. Corporate social responsibility, also called corporate conscience or corporate social performance, is duties performed by organisations to the society in which they operate, such as protecting the environment, providing social amenities, health and safety (Odetayo *et al.*, 2014:253).

Emerging facts are that CSR, also known as corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, responsible business, sustainable, responsible business, or corporate social performance, is a form of corporate self-regulation integrated into a business model. CSR policy functions as a built-in, self-regulating mechanism whereby a business monitors and ensures adherence to the law, ethical standards, and international norms. The business embraces responsibility for the impact of its activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities, stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere (Kaur, 2012:48).

From the ensuing discussions, CSR is thus viewed as the overall relationship of the corporation with all of its stakeholders. These include customers, employees, communities, owners/investors, government, suppliers and competitors (Gorski, Fuciu, & Croitor, 2014:226). Through effective CSR practices, organizations will: achieve a balance between economic, environmental and social imperatives; address stakeholders' expectations, demands and influences; sustain shareholder value (Gorski *et al.*, 2014:226). CSR must be considered a core value of the company that considers the expectations of all the company's key stakeholders when making business decisions. It also requires a mindset that is in tune with the society and community where a company lives and makes its living.

While it was not feasible in this limited space to include all the definitions of CSR cast-off in the last decades, most of the major definitions have been included for this study. From the various views presented on the concept of CSR, it can thus be established that CSR agenda involves a move by companies towards creating more inclusive businesses, with innovative management strategies for economic and social development that includes underprivileged groups in the value chain of corporations (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85). In light of this, many business organisations seek to develop inclusive business approaches to link community

investment and poverty alleviation strategies. This includes reclamation strategies for the environment through sustainable development. The latter is the strategy that looks at the present and the future in terms of resource utilisation.

3.5 DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

This section discusses the drivers of corporate social responsibility. The CSR drivers or determinants play a pivotal role in influencing organisations' magnitude of engagement with stakeholders.

Over the years, shareholders have been central to business; however, there has been a shift from Friedman's popularised view of the 70s that the only social responsibility of a company is to maximise profits for the shareholders. The new thrust is inclusive as it takes the interests of other stakeholders and society at large. This has seen management strategies and objectives encompassing the interests of both the shareholders and stakeholders. This background provides the basis of analysis of the push factors of organisations to engage in CSR activities.

There are several drivers, or determinants of CSR, also known as corporate social disclosures, and these are influenced by several factors such as company size, ownership, profitability, industry sector, firm age, and corporate governance mechanisms predominantly appear to drive the CSR reporting agenda (Akin & Yilmaz, 2016:3; Ali, Frynas & Mahmood, 2017:325). Furthermore, political, social and cultural factors also influence the CSR disclosure agenda, prompting an insightful analysis of the latter.

In pursuing the characteristics that drive CSR within a company, each factor is looked at in detail. It, however, remains undoubted that CSR is a secondary intervention after the stockholder's or owners' interests have been addressed. For any effective deployment of any CSR strategy, it is imperative and a pre-requisite for management to be aware of CSR's content and potential contributory value to the company (Agudo-Valiente, Garcés-Ayerbe & Salvador-Figuera, 2017:1). This provides the basis of motivations leading to the adoption of CSR activities, as CSR is now considered a competitive driver that requires appropriate resources (Haigh & Jones, 2006:245; Akin & Yilmaz, 2016:5).

However, for business managers, the driving motivation is 'business comes first' while social considerations come second and providing only that such considerations would not open an exploitable weakness. Possible challenges here usually include the intersection of CSR with managers' values attached to remuneration packages based solely on economic performance.

The agents' problem surfaces here, as some CSR actions may result in the reduction of managers' benefits because of the economic impact of a proposed CSR strategy even in the absence of clear and transparent metrics, resources, capabilities and leadership to fund and administer CSR strategies (Haigh & Jones, 2006:245; Akin & Yilmaz, 2016:3; Ali, Frynas & Mahmood, 2017:325)

The inclusion of personal interests by managers in addressing CSR agenda in a company has given rise to two perspectives that drive CSR. Agudo-Valiente, Garcés-Ayerbe & Salvador-Figueras, (2017:2) distinguish two types of factors that affect CSR, namely the moral driven (holistic interpretation) and the profit driven (instrumental interpretation). In this discussion, both perspectives offer a classification of factors that determine CSR adoption in organisations. Agudo-Valiente *et al.* (2017:3) use the subjective or objective qualifiers to distinguish between drivers or barriers that may be conditioned by the moral beliefs of management and the drivers or barriers whose recognition is not conditioned by such beliefs. On the other hand, the subjective perspective views CSR as an umbrella term that summarises how business should relate to society.

In this context, the subjective perception focuses on the management's view of CSR drivers or barriers, considering ethical, moral, or philanthropic issues. On the other hand, the objective perspective represents a mechanism with which management responds to the institutional pressures of securing long-term benefits and competitive advantages that result in supernormal profit, among other aspects for their companies (Agudo-Valiente *et al.*, 2017:4; Chernev & Blair, 2015:1412).

Two questions come to the fore that direct the determinants of CSR; firstly, from a subjective perspective, how does managers' subjective interpretation of what CSR means affect the degree of CSR development in firms? Secondly, from an objective perspective, the following question arises: How do managers' perceptions of the benefits (objective drivers) and costs (objective barriers) of CSR affect the degree of CSR development in firms? A response to these questions is made concurrently with an analysis of each CSR driver.

3.5.1 Company size

The size of an organisation influences the implementation of CSR programmes. In the formative years of a business organisation, all resources are channelled towards development and penetrating the market. The managers of highly profitable and large firms may allocate resources towards disseminating CSR activities since such investments might be beneficial in

generating profits in the long run (Pradhan & Nibedita, 2019:4). A firm can be responsive towards one stakeholder group and simultaneously exploitative of another, making somewhat of a mockery of the ethical lineage of the CSR concept (Haigh & Jones, 2015:245). It is in such instances where managers become subjective in their perception of CSR activities. As a result, CSR activities are usually relegated to the human resources department instead of accounting (Pradhan & Nibedita, 2019:5). However, as the organisation grows in terms of its resource base, other stakeholders are taken on board to improve perception by other stakeholders (Zeng, 2016:2)

3.5.2 Profitability

This aspect has a parallel relationship with the fore-going on company size. Firms with a high profit-ability ratio are better performers and maintain their reputations since they scrutinise their creditors and investors. Therefore, we expect a positive relationship between CSR and ROA (Pradhan & Nibedita, 2019:4; Jasson & Govender, 2017:3).

To begin with, investor appreciation of an organisation's business strength is usually measured through its profit margins and postings on stock exchange platforms. For example, in Zimbabwe, this information is accessed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange. The information posted on such platforms includes shares floated for possible purchases by potential investors. Aptly put, the Stock Exchange (SE) produces the SE index series, which allows investors to invest in companies meeting globally recognised corporate social responsibility standards (Awan & Akhtar, 2014:25).

An organisation with healthy financial performance is bound to include CSR activities in its planning; even managers adopt an objective perception of its inclusion (Mahood, Qadeer, Saleem, Han, Ariza-Montes, 2021: 2447; Zeng, 2016:3). Realisation by management of the positive contribution of CSR to an organisation's value creation makes them plan and measure its impact on return on investment (ROI) (Jasson & Govender, 2017:3; Mahood, Qadeer, Saleem, Han, Ariza-Montes, 2021: 2447). To this effect, several studies suggest that investment in CSR activities can increase product and company credibility, improve employee retention and attraction and help cultivate customer relationships (Zeng, 2016:4).

Thus, it should be borne in mind that some managers may want to evade CSR activities by understating an organisation's income to paint a gloomy picture to the outside world. Unfortunately, all this calls for transparency and complete disclosure or reporting. The absence of this vital aspect results in corruption and scandals.

3.5.3 Industry sector

The industry sector of an organisation has a significant effect on CSR activities. For example, some business enterprises depend on natural resources while others do not and only require space to develop infrastructure. The mining and retail sector are good examples of how the sector determines CSR activities. For instance, mining carries out many land excavations when mining begins, regardless of surface or underground mining. Mining resources deplete and do not accrue over time (Alkayed, 2018:30). It takes much consultation from the national levels to the communities that play host to the mining establishments. On the other hand, retailing requires land to build on, and all the people around benefit the instance the retail starts offering services.

Alkayed (2018:31) aptly concludes that the industry type has a big role in determining CSR adoption and implementation. For instance, industries that have a big effect on the environment, like chemical industries, tend to have more environmental issues, unlike consumer-oriented industries that offer services. These prefer to disclose more about their social CSR activities to improve the company's image among competitors. Likewise, labour-intensive industries are more likely to disclose information on their employees. Therefore, industry type has a major influence on CSR practices.

3.5.4 Ownership

Business ownership also determines CSR activities to a great extent. The ownership structure includes government ownership, family ownership, foreigner ownership and director's ownership. Commonly, voluntary disclosures are provided to fulfil the requirements of different stakeholders; hence, if the ownership is concentrated in one group of owners, this group might ask for less information since they get internal information instead (Alkayed, 2018:60).

A business run by the owners has leverage in taking decisions instead of one run by a management team, which acts as agencies of the owners or shareholders. When owners of an organisation hire agents to manage the organisation on their behalf, the agency problem usually props up, as, in most cases, management that acts on behalf of the owners is obsessed with self-interests. The management team shows a great deal of self-aggrandizement, usually compromising organisational goals and objectives. To this effect, most organisations use the Anglo-Saxon corporate governance model, which allows each member to execute their roles

independently and transparently. Thus, organisations must adopt a corporate governance framework that casts away any forms of conflict.

3.5.5 Governance mechanism

The governance system of an organisation tends to influence the CSR activities pursued by an organisation. The organisational structure should allow for different players to execute roles with minimum interference from others (Shleifer, & Vishny, 1997: 737; Velnampy, 2013:228). The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2010:65) concurs and notes that corporate governance is how business corporations are directed and controlled. It further asserts that the corporate governance structure specifies the distribution of rights and responsibilities among different participants in the corporation, such as the board, managers, shareholders and other stakeholders. It spells out rules and procedures for making decisions on corporate affairs. This provides the structure through which the company objectives are set and attaining those objectives and monitoring performance.

Alkayed (2018:41) opines that effective corporate management captures its importance in managing the needs of not just shareholders but a broad range of stakeholders as well, as ignoring the expectations of stakeholders may be an obstacle to achieving the company's goals (Velnampy, 2013:229). OECD sums up corporate governance, indicating it is about responsibility, accountability, transparency and power distribution within an organization. Fisher (2011:96) in the agreement says corporate governance is a set of processes, customs, policies, laws and institutions affecting the way a company is directed, administered, or controlled.

Thus, as a result, CSR is becoming more integrated with corporate governance where the social perspective is taken into the decision-making process, taking into account the interest of clients, employees and society in the same vein as shareholders. In such instances, organisations can only engage in CSR activities if the governance system takes care of all stakeholders and allows the whole organisation to play its part.

3.5.6 Age of an organisation

The age of an organisation has a bearing to engage in CSR activities. The first stages of a firm establishment are filled with expenses, usually with market penetration and share. In such instances, an organisation might not have made a name to engage stakeholders as it will be formative times (Maj, 2018:130).

This section discussed the determinants of CSR. Among the factors that determine the adoption and implementation of CSR is the company's age that is the life span of an organisation while operating. Closely related is the company's size in terms of its capacity and resultant outputs such as return on investments (ROI). This also leads to an assessment of profitability levels as income has a direct effect on expenditure. The governance mechanism employed by management is also vital as it affects resource utilisation which includes CSR activities. Ownership influences the determination of CSR as decisions are easily made if owners run a business organisation. The sector of the industry influences determination of CSR. For example, some industries may change the face of the environment, such as mining.

3.6 IMPORTANCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

This section discusses the importance of CSR in its various facets. It is a phenomenon that has taken the business world by storm. This has made the concept inevitable as its contributions to the well-being of business organisations have changed the minds of many business owners and managers.

The importance of CSR has been on the increase over the years, making it a must for companies to have CSR activities to sustain their business (Secchi, 2007:347; Benabou & Tirole 2010:5). In this vein, CSR can be of strategic importance as well, as a company can use CSR as a strategy to shape its brand image, raising its profile in the minds of its stakeholders (Khan, 2011:7; Soroka, & Mazurek-Kusiak, 2014:117). In pursuant of the importance of CSR, Benabou and Tirole (2010:6) came up with ways that demonstrate the contributions of CSR to the survival of business organisations as follows;

- *CSR as an ethical and responsible attitude to business conduct:* The business organisation has a duty and commitment to take a transparent, accountable and ethical standpoint in its relations with its stakeholders (government, customers, suppliers, community).
- *CSR as a strategic business approach:* The pursuit of social responsibility is perceived as a social action strategy that creates a positive return on investment to the business entity. For instance, the performance results of the business organisation are measured by revenue, sales and market share.
- *CSR as a relationship strategy:* This is when the business organisation aims to improve the quality of the relationship with its various stakeholders. In this instance, CSR is

used as a relationship marketing strategy, particularly with customers, suppliers and distributors.

- *CSR as a strategy of appreciation of the company stock (aggregate of value):* A survey by the Dow Chemical organization found that 70% of the market value of a company depends on its financial results. The other 30% depend on their reputation in the market.
- *CSR as a human resources strategy:* These are business organisations actions focused on employees and their dependents to satisfy them and retain top talent increasing productivity.
- *CSR as a strategy for community development:* This is when CSR is used as a strategy for community development and takes over the role of an agent of local development, along with other non-governmental organisations and government agents.
- *CSR as a strategy in ecological consciousness:* This is when the business organisations are seen as environmental advocacy agents. For example, the business organisation can invest in education and environmental preservation. Organisations become aware agents of values and environmental practices (Secchi, 2007:348; Benabou & Tirole, 2010:5).

The marketing gurus Porter and Kramer (2006:79) concur that business organisations can use social initiatives to improve competitive advantage in this context. From their point of view, the pursuit of social and philanthropic initiatives allows the acquisition and improvement of capabilities in cooperating with the society more coherently and effectively, thus gaining recognition and support. Therefore, the duo concludes that CSR can be a source of opportunity, innovation, and competitive advantage and not a mere cost or a barrier, or a philanthropic action.

Another CSR legend Carroll, (2016:2), came up with a model that illustrated the importance of CSR in improving the business organisations performance. The author proposed a structure that incorporates four categories: social responsibilities, economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary. The model given as a pyramid takes into account all the arguments raised by most scholars about CSR. Figure 3.1 illustrates the demands of each of these levels.

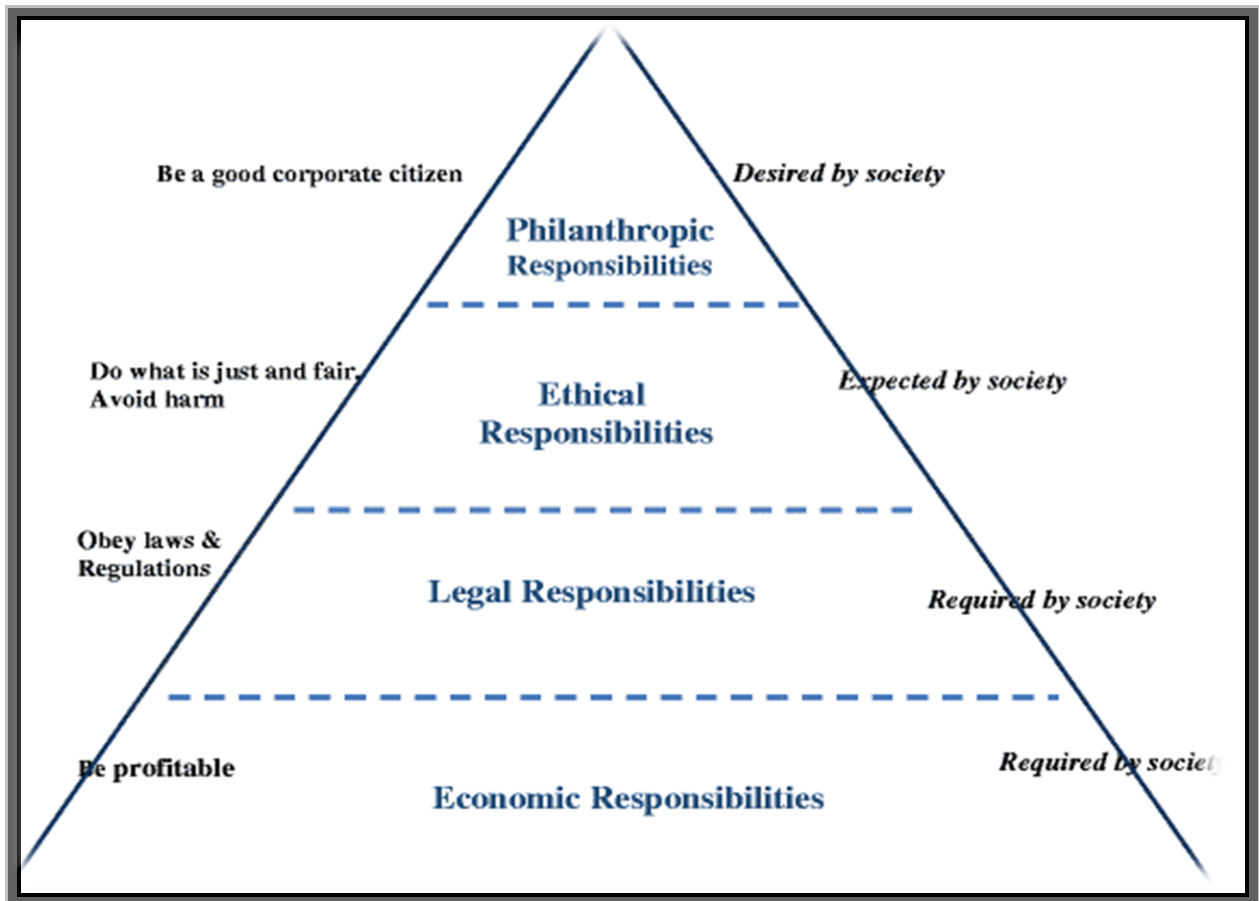


Figure 3.1 Organizational Performance Pyramid

Source: Carroll (2016:5)

The pyramid above is a structure that incorporates four categories of CSR, namely: economic, legal, ethical and discretionary, or philanthropic. Each category is explained in some detail below.

3.6.1 Economic responsibilities

Because businesses must create commodities and services that society requires, business organisations bear economic responsibilities. These products and services are profitable to sell. Carroll (2016:3) believes profits are required to reward investors or owners and promote corporate expansion when gains are re-invested.

3.6.2 Legal responsibilities

Business organisations are expected to conduct their economic activities following the legal requirements provided by society's legal system. As a result, it is required that the business organisation follows all applicable rules and regulations to ensure that the products and services

it provides meet security requirements that are compliant with current environmental legislation. According to Carroll (2016:3), business organisations, in particular, should be aware of the following factors:

- performing in a manner consistent with expectations of government and law
- complying with various federal, state, and local regulations
- conducting themselves as law-abiding corporate citizens
- fulfilling all their legal obligations to societal stakeholders
- providing goods and services that at least meet minimal legal requirements

3.6.3 Ethical responsibilities

Most societies demand that commercial organisations understand moral rights and wrongs, as regulations alone are insufficient. Apart from what is mandated by laws and regulations, society expects businesses to run and conduct their operations ethically (Carroll, 2016:3). Taking on ethical duties requires businesses to adopt activities, norms, standards, and practices that are not defined in law but are expected to be followed in the “spirit” of the law rather than just the letter of the law. This leads to firms operating fairly and objectively even when the law does not provide direction. As a result, ethical duties encompass all behaviours, standards, rules, and practices that society expects or prohibits, even if they are not established in law. The following factors have been identified as the most important that organisation should observe;

- performing in a manner consistent with expectations of societal mores and ethical norms
- recognising and respecting new or evolving ethical/ moral norms adopted by society
- being good corporate citizens by doing what is expected morally or ethically
- recognising that business integrity and ethical behaviour goes beyond mere compliance with laws and regulations
- preventing ethical norms from being compromised to achieve business goals (Carroll, 2016:4)

3.6.4 Philanthropic responsibilities

Corporate philanthropy includes all forms of business giving. It embraces a business’s voluntary or discretionary activities. To fulfil its perceived philanthropic responsibilities, business organisations engage in various forms of giving, for example, this can be gifts of monetary resources, product or service donations, volunteerism by employees and management, employee training, an extension of benefits to employees' families, community

development and any other discretionary contributions to the community or stakeholder groups that make up the community (Carroll, 2016:4). Given the nature of this characteristic, it remains questionable whether this is applicable in business organisations' management strategies.

This section focused its discussion on the importance of CSR, citing the following aspects; firstly, CSR can be used as a strategy in business, which assists in formulating business relationships with stakeholders. Secondly, the discussion showed that CSR could be used as a tool for appreciating organisational stock. Furthermore, CSR is used in harnessing talent and expertise through attracting quality employees. Most importantly, the discussion aptly reveals that CSR is seen as a means of gaining a competitive advantage and developing communities around business organisations and the nation on a bigger scale. Carroll (2016:23) caps it up by coming up with a model that reveals that effective CSR should embrace economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities that align and manage the interests of all stakeholders.

3.7 BENEFITS OF CSR

This section focuses discussion on the benefits of CSR. Particular attention is given to the organisation as the source of CSR and society. Society in this context refers to the communities around the organisation who are the prime beneficiaries of CSR programmes. Focus is then shifted to other stakeholders and how these fit in the benefits matrix. To begin with, an analysis of CSR benefits to the firm is outlined, followed by each of the stakeholders like communities, employees, suppliers, customers, among others.

3.7.1 CSR benefits for the organisation

Most organisations have adopted CSR as a management strategy to link them to several key stakeholders. This is deemed as an interface platform for the corporation to address the needs of its external and internal stakeholders through strengthening relationships (Książak, 2016:53; Jo & Harjoto, 2011:351). It is further stressed that CSR inspires society's trust towards the organisation, creating an open relationship as an ethical enterprise. In support, Kaufmann and Olaru (2012:2) note that CSR creates an organisation's positive image to outsiders, resulting in employee and customer satisfaction.

The organisational-stakeholder relationship spurs consumers to engage in transactions with organisations with a CSR record of showing commitment to the community and environment (Palmer, 2012:10; Kaufmann & Olaru, 2012:3). The benefits of enhanced reputation include less scrutiny from society, an increase in customer and investor loyalty, and an increase in

intangible assets, all of which lead to more robust financial performance in the long run (Palmer, 2012:20).

Księżak (2016:56) reiterates the benefits of CSR to organisations, emphasising that there are more positive gains than losses through the adoption and implementation of this policy. CSR programmes are also deemed to have competitive advantages for organisations because they improve corporate reputation (Palmer, 2012:2; Księżak, 2016:60; Wang & Gao 2016:3). For example, an organisation can show the importance of stakeholders' needs by increasing disclosures about how business contracts are awarded. Furthermore, environmental programmes can be crafted and implemented through broad consultations with stakeholders. This increases participation and ownership of programmes put in place by the organisation. Respect for human rights is also vital, for example, the employment of children and adherence to gazetted remuneration (Wang & Gao, 2016:4).

Apart from employee motivation and loyalty, existing and potential consumers tend to choose brands from companies known for social responsibility, even if they have to pay higher prices for ecologically and socially friendly products (Awan & Akhtar, 2014:75).

Examples of organisations that have achieved consumer loyalty through CSR include Econet Zimbabwe and Delta Beverages. Through the CSR 'plough back' policies, these organisations create a feel-good spirit of satisfaction guided by organisational ethics (Awan & Akhtar, 2014:76; Księżak; 2016:60). In addition, such organisations have slim chances of litigation cases as these are usually known for doing well to the community. In most cases, such companies are not under scrutiny from regulators because of the good image they possess. Another tangible benefit is attracting talent as potential employees want to be associated with companies that have a good social responsibility record (Asemah, Okpanachi & Edegoh, 2013:45). This trend usually leads to employee retention, which gradually leads to a cut on training programmes. Eventually, these cuts in expenses generate more savings which transform into profits. Figure 3.2 presents the benefits of CSR to the organisation.



Figure 3.2 CSR benefits to the organisation

Source: Książak (2016:55)

The illustration shows how CSR programmes benefit the organisation as it interfaces with society.

3.7.2 CSR benefits the society

The previous section centred on exploring CSR benefits to the organisation. The current discourse focuses on CSR benefits to society, and in this discussion, society refers to the immediate surrounding areas that co-exist with an organisation. In light of this, various researchers vouch that CSR brings a wide range of benefits to society to upgrade and develop immediate communities that co-exist with organisations (Asemah *et al.*, 2013:46; Yau & Choi, 2014:226; Awan & Akhtar, 2014:77). Drawing from this assertion, corporate involvement in the local community's problems creates a better ambience in its surroundings. Undoubtedly, people whom an organisation's CSR activities have helped are happier because of the benefits drawn from the higher standard of living; for example, these activities could come in the form of infrastructure development.

In such instances, CSR activities can be in the form of road construction or rehabilitation (Barthorpe, 2010:4). In other instances, assistance can be aligned to health care issues such as providing clean water and sanitary facilities. In this regard, some communities have had schools and clinics built for them (Barthorpe, 2010:5; Asemah *et al.*, 2013:47; Yau & Choi, 2014:226). Such CSR developments raise the standard of living for all the people in

communities. For example, organisations in Zimbabwe like Econet Zimbabwe are involved in educating the less privileged through programmes such as the Joshua Mdabuko Nkomo Scholarship, Higher Life and the Capernaum Trust that caters to students from disadvantaged families.

Thus, such reciprocal relationships promote confidence between the organisation and society. This symbiotic relationship can be likened to that of fish and water, where the former can only survive with the availability of the latter. The organisation can only thrive in a responsive society. Das (2017:1) asserts that a business organisation is a social unit that depends on society for its effective economic performance. Furthermore, society provides the infrastructure and human resources that allow effective working for the organisation (Barthorpe, 2010:6). Therefore, it is only prudent that surrounding communities benefit from organisations operating within vicinities as their economic activities are sources of depraved effects on the people, environment, society and the locality where the organisation is established.

In addition, the realisation by the community that corporations care for them makes everyone feel safer and part of the organisation. This significantly decreases mistrust and corruption within the society culminating in the organisation's CSR activities generating benefits for the least advantaged and the general populace (Książak, 2016:60). Usually, this forms the basis of the issuance of the social licence as the community feels indebted to the organisation. Society also benefits from quality products, environmental rehabilitation programmes that promote sustainable development.

Moreover, other direct benefits to society include employment opportunities from organisations implementing CSR programmes as the workforce is drawn from surrounding areas. Such developments lead to acceptance of the organisation by the people. Environmental protection through decreasing its damage is a direct benefit for all, as 'every green' action to save the planet is an equal effort to save all living beings. This includes reducing carbon emissions and wastes disposal mechanisms that support the environment (Das, 2017:2). Figure 3.3 presents the benefits of CSR to society.

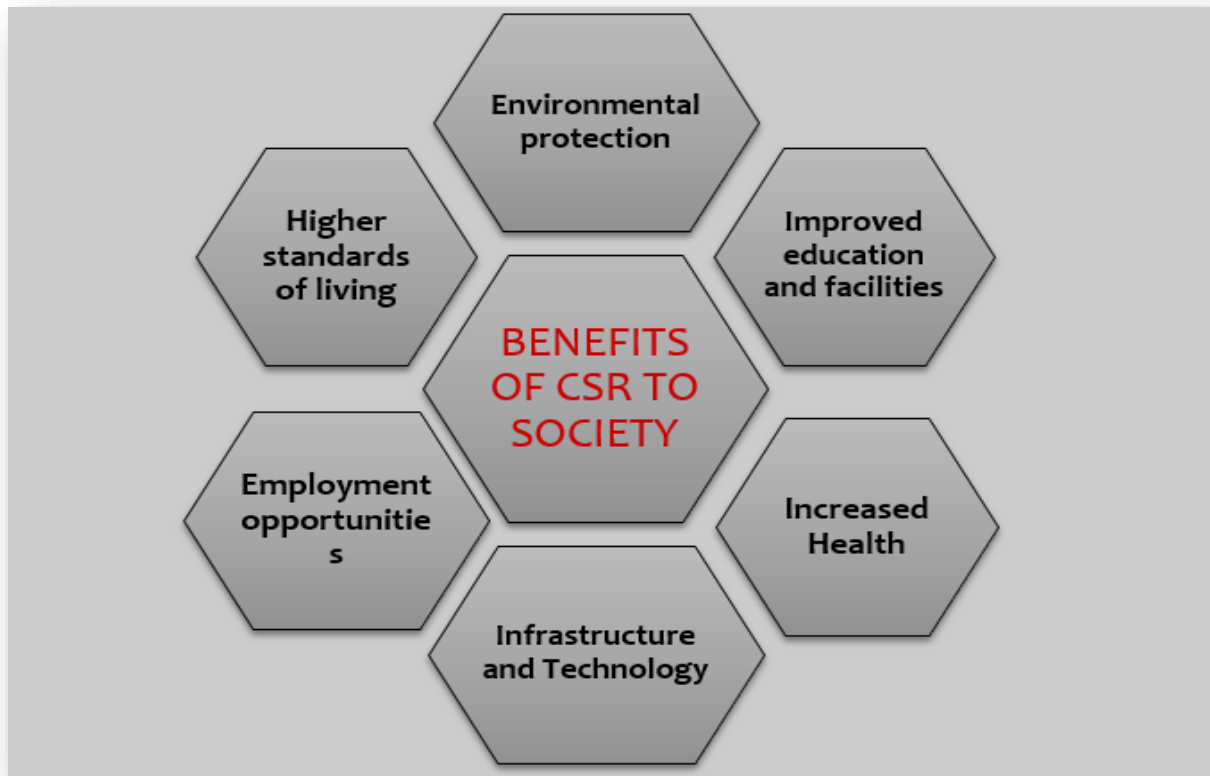


Figure 3.3 Benefits of CSR to society

Source: Książak (2016:61)

The illustration shows the benefits of CSR to society due to the interface between the organisation and society. All benefits point to a high standard of life for communities around the organisation and the nation at large.

3.8 MEASUREMENT OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

This section discusses the measurement of CSR in a business organisation. Business organisations are increasingly investing in CSR, and it has become prudent to accurately examine the effects of these endeavours. In particular, business leaders should be able to rely on a coherent set of metrics to assess and prioritise the goals of different stakeholders who are the ultimate beneficiaries of CSR programmes. This has to be regularly evaluated as the company makes progress in pursuing set goals. The latter forms the basis of discussion in this section, focusing on how to measure the efficient and effective use of corporate resources allocated to CSR activities. The discussion takes a stakeholder-based approach to measuring the effectiveness of CSR activities.

Business organisations in both developed and developing countries use CSR initiatives to build and strengthen relationships with multiple stakeholder groups (Lemon, Roberts, Rughubir, &

Winer, 2011:1). The groups may extend beyond the ‘traditional’ ones like customers, suppliers and competitors, to include investors, employees, board of directors, local communities, regulators, media and financial markets. CSR activities are known to affect stakeholders in various ways who have potentially conflicting interests and goals (Lemon et al., 2011:1). This scenario presents the complexity of how to prioritise CSR activities. In such contexts, corporations need to bank on a set of metrics to compare, integrate, and reconcile what may be incongruent with CSR objectives (Lemon *et al.*, 2011:1).

The use of metrics enables organisations to create a functional balance sheet that considers the needs and aspirations of most stakeholders. This mechanism is used as a tool to inform shareholders, employees, partners and the public on what the company intends to achieve in its mission or strategic plan goals of economic stability, social welfare and environmental sustainability as part of company obligations (Hrebeshkova, 2016:20). This mechanism tries to ensure that the primary objective of setting a business is kept afloat to ensure profit maximisation for shareholders. Friedman (1970) argued that the one and only one social responsibility of business is “to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits so long as it stays within the rules of the game, which is to say, engages in open and free competition without deception or fraud.”

3.8.1 The importance of metrics as a tool of measuring CSR

CSR-related metrics are critical for the diffusion of CSR activities across corporations. The method allows for the goals of different stakeholders to be assessed and prioritised accordingly in a coherent manner (Lemon *et al.*, 2011:1; Hrebeshkova, 2016:20). Over the years, it has been debated that CSR is an unnecessary expense for corporations, whose primary social responsibility, according to Friedman, is solely to make profits for shareholders. However, the advent of CSR during the industrial revolution and its progression to the present day has seen companies embracing this phenomenon into mainstream management strategies.

Sudha (2015:58) views Friedman’s position as myopic and lacking inclusion of the wider spectrum of the stakeholders, adding that this approach to business performance assessment has lost its relevance today. Instead, stakeholders of corporate entities today expect companies to be ‘responsible’ corporate citizens and not mere profit-making entities. In light of this development, strategic resource allocation decisions are becoming more complex due to the need for companies to satisfy various stakeholder expectations (Sudha, 2015:59; Alves, Reficco & Arroyo, 2014:53).

In this context, metrics became a critical tool for aligning decisions to resources at the corporation's disposal. Therefore, integrating CSR strategies in the corporate decision-making process and its subsequent impact on corporate financial performance (CFP) acquire paramount importance (Sudha, 2015:60). Metrics come in handy to align the usually inverse relationship between economic and ethical components of a firm's performance.

Lemon *et al.* (2011:1) explain that the primary function of metrics is to calibrate, evaluate, and justify decisions that have been made in the past (i.e., performance measurement) and/or are being considered for the future (i.e., planning and option evaluation). In this sense, metrics are both backward and forward-looking. Each of the functions is explained in detail as given below.

3.8.2 Calibration

The calibration function of metrics involves converting decision alternatives that *prima facie* appears incomparable into a set of consequences scaled on desirability. This conversion process enables the company to make business decisions that are sound, informed, and justifiable.

3.8.3 Evaluation

The evaluation function of metrics involves measuring the performance of different options given certainly required inputs (i.e., resources) and external benchmarks (including future goals, past performance, comparison to other organizations, and the status quo). This function enables prioritisation of those decision alternatives that are based on agreed organizational goals.

3.8.4 Justification

The justification function allows people in organizations with different points of view to argue a case for or against a course of action using a standard set of terms and definitions. This function of metrics is crucial when a course of action is relatively new or without precedent and when there are dissenting points of view since metrics provide a common currency (or language) for debate and evaluation.

Lemon *et al.* (2011:20) aptly sum up the overt benefits of metrics and opine that metrics increase the ease of observing and communicating the benefits of an idea, simplifying a complex decision-making process by using a measurable common denominator and ultimately legitimise a risk-undertaking course of action.

Most importantly, the quartet further notes that, without metrics to calibrate its effects, CSR may be adopted either as an act of faith or a form of charity, but with metrics, CSR can become an element of business strategy and survive organisational upheavals, economic downturns, and other adverse internal or external circumstances. Specific stakeholder metrics are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Examples of stakeholder metrics

Audience	Goal Hierarchy	Effectiveness Metrics
Society	Education, Health, Wealth, Happy, Stable, Cohesive Community.	Quality of life indicators: physiological (Health), economic, educational, social, psychological. Examples: Percentage of the population impacted; Life expectancy; literacy rates; income/nutrition; Disease Incidence rates; Birth/ Death rate by age.
Environment	Sustainable	Sustainability; improvement in indices; pollution and toxicity levels (water, air, other).
Regulators, Auditors, NGOs	Ensuring compliance with existing regulations; Identifying new regulations to keep consumer welfare interests in line with corporate profitability goals.	Credit from regulators; Inclusion in CSR indices.
Media	Providing accurate, timely, and newsworthy information to the public.	Quantity and quality press impact
Financial Markets	Stability, growth and profitability	Rates of return, volatility, turnover, and liquidity over time.
Economy	Stability, growth and profitability	GDP/ GNP, per capita and overall; debt ratios, foreign exchange reserves.

Source: Zeng (2016:2)

The table illustrates examples of how an organisation can measure its CSR stakeholder metrics and assess outcomes against set goals. Of interest is that measurements can be quantitative or qualitative, subjective and objective, depending on the criteria selected for measurement. The latter allows analysis and comparability of stakeholders' interests and helps in coming up with informed decisions.

Zeng further submits three models used to measure the impact of CSR variables to give an accurate value of each to the organisation. The Kanji-Chopra Model, Corporate Identity Management Model, and CSR demand-supply models are the best assessment models on the rate of investment (ROI) from CSR activities. The organisation here measures; the impact of CSR activities on the company's image, how the image enhances brand value perceptions among critical stakeholders and assesses whether the company image maximises shareholder value (Zeng, 2016:2). Zeng reiterates that accounting-based measures are subject to manipulation and tampering of information by management. Therefore, this is considered the most accurate cost-benefit analysis for calculating CSR activities.

Kanji and Chopra (2010:119) underscore that CSR) means operating a business in a socially responsible manner whereby the business;

- undertakes ethical practices in employment and labour by improving workplaces;
- is involved in building local communities and communicates with concerned communities regarding the consequences of its policies and products;
- invests in building social infrastructure;
- contributes to a cleaner environment, its protection and sustainability; and
- contributes by way of its corporate governance to economic development at large.

Given this CSR has become an integral part of modern-day business organisations, hence should measure these components to produce a positive and suitable impact for both society and the organisation (Kanji & Chopra, 2010:120). Figure 3.4 Shows an integral component of a business organisation's contributions to society.

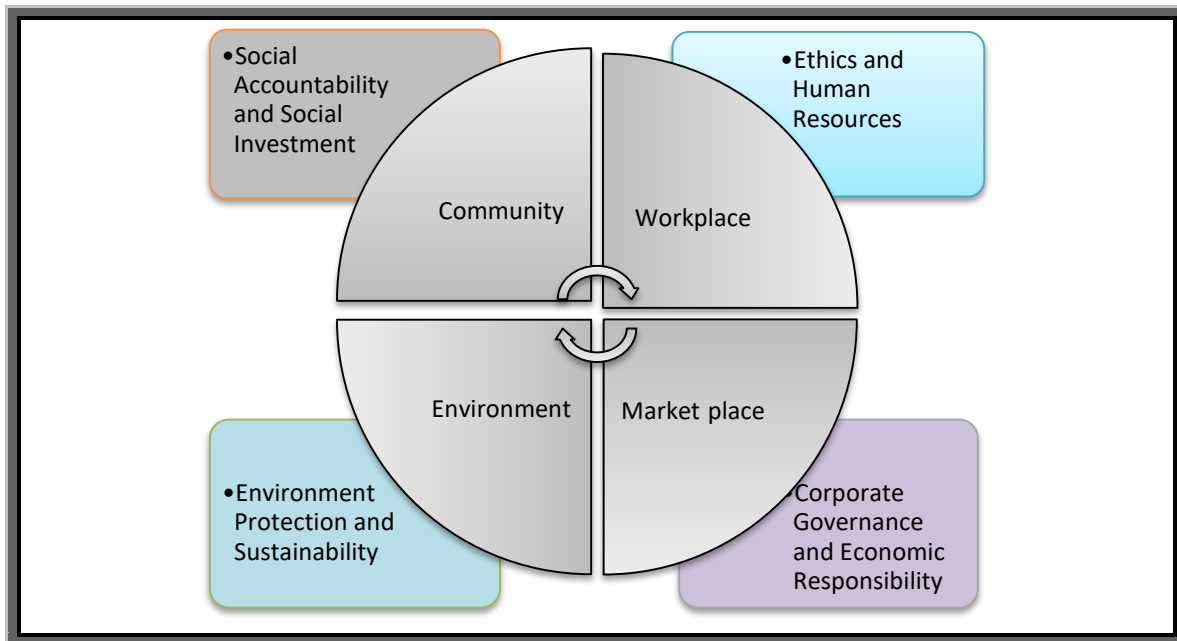


Figure 3.4: Organisational Obligations to Society: Cyclical Matrix of CSR

Source: Kanji and Chopra (2010:119).

CSR is seen here (Figure 3.2) as an implicit convention between business and community, where communities permit business organisations to operate in terms of economic, environmental, ethical and social investment. Part of social investment by business firms to the community involves employing locals and improving on social amenities. More so, the community is made a better place to live as business organisations contribute towards preserving the environment through sustainable development activities. A good corporate governance mechanism allows the business organisation to maximise its positive impact on society while at the same time maximising its returns. Consequently, measured CSR is all about a business organisation contributing positively and giving back to society while realising the targeted goals.

3.9 DIMENSIONS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

This section discusses the dimensions of CSR. The dimensions discussed include environmental, social, philanthropic, economic, ethical, legal, production, voluntariness and stakeholder. To get a good understanding of the dimensions, each is discussed with a view of how each is applied or impacts CSR growth.

The development of CSR over the years gave rise to dimensions influenced by the analysis of old and current definitions of CSR, which most scholars adopted (Arsic, Stojanovic &

Mihajlovic, 2017:439). The foremost important dimensions cited are environmental, social and economic (Awan & Akhtar, 2014:70).

Given the various definitions of CSR, the evolution of dimensions was akin to climbing a staircase, with the first three deemed the most significant, followed by volunteers and stakeholders (Gonzalez-Rodriguez, Diaz-Fernandez & Simonetti, 2015:867). However, subsequent research appears to have incorporated new dimensions, such as volunteerism, ethics, legal, human rights, transparency and accountability, and stakeholder factors (Rahman, 2011:173; Giannarakis, 2014:393). Numerous debates have arisen concerning these elements, including how key priorities are related to one another in terms of integration, communication, and synergy between the goals to be attained (Gonzalez-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2015:868). Today, the development and implementation of social responsibility are strategically necessary for the public good of a company (Giannarakis, 2014:393).

3.9.1 Environmental CSR

The environmental factor of corporate social responsibility is concerned with a company's environmental impact. There are two types of environmental aspects, namely internal and external. The internal environment is where the company operates, while the external environment is where the company is located. In this regard, a socially responsible company's purpose is to engage in environmentally friendly business operations. For example, the organisation may use recycled materials in packaging or incorporate renewable energy sources such as solar power to reduce emissions that impact global warming (Uvais & Cholasseri, 2013:30; Awan & Akhtar, 2014:71; Jitaree, 2016:246).

However, it should be borne in mind that the implementation of environmental CSR depends on different formal, legal, and administrative conditions set by host governments. For example, in Zimbabwe, the Environmental Management Agency (EMA) is mandated to monitor the utilisation of the environment sustainably. In several instances, organisations that are environmentally sensitive gain positive public opinion and support of society through resource efficiency, sustainable economy, the development of new processes and technologies, green technologies, reinforcing the competitive advantages of businesses, building consciousness among costumers about the value of resources and energy efficiency, pursuing the reduction of carbon emissions, preventing biodiversity harm and climate-resilient economy. However, despite all the positive gains, environmental CSR activities cause direct additional expenses

for companies, and financial benefits are not immediately visible and measurable (Arsic *et al.*, 2017:446).

3.9.2 Social CSR

The social dimension of CSR involves the relationship between business and society as a whole. When addressing the social dimension, the aim is to use business to benefit society. This dimension denotes a society's standard of living (Javed, Rashid & Hussain, 2017:1068). The social dimension of CSR is a key factor in setting up the relationships between the business and society (Ioan, 2011:778). This literary means being accountable for the social effects the company has on people directly and indirectly (Lauwo, Otusanya & Bakre, 2016:1038). The primary objective of the social dimension is that organisations should work for building up a better society as a whole and integrate social concerns in business operations and consider the full scope of their impacts on communities (Arsic, Stojanović & Mihajlović, 2017:442).

This could involve sourcing fair trade products, for example, agreeing to pay employees a liveable wage. It could also involve taking on endeavours that benefit society, for instance, using resources to organise charitable fundraisers such as income-generating projects for the underprivileged. Other related issues can be those to do with social amenities that affect people's lives. For example, this could be in providing clean water through borehole drilling or installing tap water. Another critical area is the provision of key social service areas such as health and educational facilities (Jucan & Jucan, 2010:238; Szczuka, 2015:480).

3.9.3 Philanthropic CSR

This dimension of CSR refers to business organisations' contribution to the local community or society. It offers four benefits to society. First, the philanthropic dimension improves the quality of life through donations to alleviate particular situations, for example, giving handouts to the elderly and orphans. It helps the community to make an area where customers want to do business because of the reputation. Secondly, there is reduced government involvement in offering help to people with legitimate needs. Thirdly, there is increased employee motivation to assist fellow country citizens. Fourthly, the philanthropic dimension builds a bond between the organisation and the people. Employees volunteer to have generally better opinions about themselves, their company and their community (Jucan & Jucan, 2010:238).

3.9.4 Economic CSR

The economic dimension refers to the effect that CSR has on the finances of the business organisation; hence the impact on the company's finances of CSR activities should strike a balance amongst all stakeholders. Companies under such circumstances should still be motivated by profit while putting the interests of the company's key stakeholders, such as consumers and investors, in the forefront (Arsić *et al.*, 2017:439). The trio further points out that, it is important to recognise the financial impact that these activities have and balance being a good corporate citizen with making a profit, as it is through this dimension that influences a great deal of involvement with society. When CSR programmes become a source of revenue for the organisation, there is a deliberate effort to have the programmes well-funded (Arsic *et al.*, 2017:440). It is in such instances that the economic value of an organisation assumes the responsibility of the company that it will strive for the long-term sustainability of the business, to respond to business risks adequately and to create the necessary security to its shareholders, investors and workers, and thus society in general (Lauwo, Otusanya & Bakre, 2016:1039).

3.9.5 Production CSR

Production is another vital dimension of CSR, which is core and central to the investment of a business project. Production levels determine the magnitude of the impact of the project on the environment. The production also has a bearing on the product output, which feeds to the income levels. To achieve this, business organisations should adhere to operating regulations that ensure sustainability, especially related to the future of the business and society. Measures of sustainability should consider the rate at which the organisation consumes resources about the rate at which resources can be regenerated (Crowther & Aras, 2008:14; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146).

3.9.6 Stakeholder CSR

The idea of stakeholders has its roots in the tradition that sees the business as an integral part of society and not just an isolated element for making profits for shareholders. Stakeholders are the key parts of the system that influence corporate decision-making to bring all sides of the business in balance through fulfilling everyone's needs without harm to other parts of the system. The stakeholders are all of the people affected by an organisation's actions. Mahoney (2012:125) underscores that stakeholders are those groups of people who contribute to the organisation's wealth-creating potential and are voluntarily or involuntarily exposed to

potential risk through the organisation's activities. These include employees, suppliers, shareholders, debt holders, regulatory authorities, government and local communities.

When considering the stakeholder dimension of CSR, the focus is on how business decisions affect each group. For example, an organisation may decide to increase output by having employees work more, but considering the impact of the long working hours on employees should be a priority, not just your bottom line. Closely related are the effects an organisation's work ethics have on the people who live close to it. For example, waste management is of paramount importance, affecting both livestock and human beings (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:15).

Despite all the dynamics above of dealing with this essential element of CSR, organisations should note that in many instances, it is almost impossible to manage stakeholder interests because there are many contraries in their needs and understanding of business purpose, so managers should perpetually seek for balances and trade-offs, to minimise conflicts between stakeholders. Management should also look out for the prevention of all unethical labour practices. These organisations should adopt different approaches of CSR practice because of different cultural elements in different countries, acceptable with different levels of socially accepted rules, business standards and policies. Modern CSR, especially in industrialised countries, is now a requirement for organisations to be competitive on the global market, and this is usually measured based on stakeholder treatment (Khoursed, 2012:147; Yau & Choi, 2014:41; Wang, 2015:8).

3.9.7 Voluntary CSR

Actions that fall into the voluntariness dimension are those that an organisation is not mandated to do by law. These actions are based on what an organisation believes is the correct thing to do. Such issues may be based on specific ethical values that your company holds. For example, you may believe that using organic products is the right thing to do even if you are not required to do so. Giving donations to assist communities around the organisation are not obligations that are mandatory but done because it is a belief held by the organisation to do good (Dziro, 2014:61), for example, during the Cyclone Idai that destroyed parts of Chimanimani and Chipinge in Manicaland Zimbabwe several organisations lined up to assist the affected communities in cash and kind. This dimension is the one that was used during the early days of the development of CSR because it is primarily based on philanthropic and ethical responsibilities.

Thus, voluntariness assumes discretionary decisions that are not imposed by the duty to fulfil certain conditions but are associated mainly with the proactivity that transcends the imposed standards and rules. This dimension means overcoming the minimum of prescribed standards, hence the difference between voluntariness and CSR. In Zimbabwe, this difference is yet to be made distinct and separated accordingly.

3.9.8 Legal CSR

The legal dimension relates to compliance with laws and regulations established by the authorities, which set standards for responsible behaviour, the codification of what society thinks is right or wrong. Legal regulation of businesses leadership is made because the society, including consumers, interest groups, competitors and legislators, cannot be confident that businesses do what is right in a particular field, such as consumer or environment protection. This lack of confidence is the strength of legal size. Many ethical and economic issues go to court or legislative debates. In other words, the laws set rules for responsible businesses activities. They can be divided into laws that regulate competition, consumer protection laws, environmental laws and laws that promote safety and fairness (Lee & Shin, 2010:3; Jucan & Jucan, 2010:238).

3.9.9 Ethics CSR

The ethical dimension refers to behaviours and activities that are permitted or prohibited by organisation members, community, society, even if they are not codified by law. In addition, these have to do with the welfare of workers, expansion of enterprise and production (Harrison & Wicks, 2013:101). In this regard, the basic mission of any business is to provide goods and services that are profit-making to the business to achieve its maximum contribution to society and be socially responsible. Issues considered under this dimension include child labour, remuneration of permanent and casual workers. However, this must be embedded in the organisation strategy to make ethics a central concern of the business strategy (Lee & Shin, 2010:3; Jucan & Jucan, 2010:239).

3.9.10 Political CSR

Politics occupy a very crucial space in the adoption and implementation of CSR policies, processes and activities. In business investments, politics is viewed as the power and authority possessed by people in power (Aristotle). The political component of CSR refers to the business environment presented by the host country. The Zimbabwean political environment for the past

20 years is a typical example of how political factors of a country can affect business activities (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:145; Shirodkar, Beddewela & Richter, 2018:684).

In light of this, politics provides the environment for business. However, at times business has connections with people who have the political influence to bypass some legal processes with some which have implications on the outcomes of business establishment. Gu, Ryan, Bin and Wei (2013:231) underscore that direct and indirect political connections have varying degrees of importance, particularly obtaining permissions to build, acquire land, and other business transactions. The quartet emphasises that such reciprocal relationships have an inherent danger of corruption and nepotism.

Despite the negative connotations of political connections, such relationships between business organisations and government departments have led to the positive adoption of CSR in some instances. Business organisations that are politically connected have an urge to adopt CSR policies and initiatives to earn a good name. Such organisations are usually used as examples by politicians during political platforms (Gu *et al.*, 2012:234). Thus, highly politically connected organisations score higher in adopting and implementing CSR policies than those which are medium and lowly connected. As mentioned earlier, some organisations take political connectedness as an escape route of non-conformity. This has been the trend, especially in developing countries. An example is when business organisations have to grapple with policy distortions and vices as corruption.

This section discussed the CSR multiple dimensions that affect business organisations activities. In a nutshell, the section revealed that environmental CSR is about the business impact on the environment, while social CSR is the relationship between the business organisations and society. Philanthropic CSR is given as business contributions to society on a free-will basis. On the other hand, economic CSR is the effects that CSR activities have on the finances of the business organisation. Closely related is production CSR, which focuses on income levels determined by production. Stakeholder CSR views society as an integral part of the business organisation, while voluntary CSR looks at issues not mandated by law. In contrast, legal CSR has to do with compliance with the law, and last but not least political CSR shows the environment presented to the business organisation by the host country.

3.10 PREVIOUS MANAGEMENT RESEARCH WORK ON CSR IN ZIMBABWE

This section looks at previous management-based research work in CSR in Zimbabwe in the recent past. This aims to establish the level of research work done in the area and give a broader understanding of the concept within Zimbabwe, where this study was focused. It is envisaged that views from the research work give a clear picture of the amount of attention the concept has drawn in the Zimbabwean context.

In this view, several research articles have been undertaken pursuant of CSR appreciation, adoption and interpretation within Zimbabwe. Most of these research articles attempt to expose how the concept of CSR has been taken on board by various business organisations. There is a bias towards the mining sector because it forms the epi-centre of the research being pursued.

Although a considerable CSR knowledge base exists in Zimbabwe, there is still much work to be done to get a deeper appreciation of the concept. Given this trend, Nhapi and Mathende (2017:145) explored the dominant narratives in CSR literature that have contributed to continuous debates in related academia, business organisations, civil society and the generality of people in Zimbabwe. The duo had a lens of analysis centred on Chiadzwa Communal Lands of Manicaland Province in Zimbabwe. This analysis hinged on the experiences of the Chiadzwa Community after the discovery of diamonds. The diamond rush resulted in several companies opening mining ventures and, in the process, committing to help families that had been relocated to pave the way for operations. The commitments made were unfortunately not honoured. It is a belief held by the residents of Chiadzwa that their area is endowed with diamonds which should help improve living standards. However, in sharp contrast, the majority of the population is still living in abject poverty. Like many Zimbabweans, many of these natives of Chiadzwa believe that the business organisations benefitting from these resources should finance social programs in the area and country at large. The research concludes that CSR is still lip-service as numerous factors work against its adoption and implementation complexities.

Mugova and Sachie (2019:1) examined the opportunities and pitfalls of CSR, specifically referring to the Marange Diamonds Mines in Chiadzwa Communal Area in Manicaland Province of Zimbabwe. CSR is explored from various perspectives and presented in a case study of the Marange mines to demonstrate the challenges of practising social responsibility to balance the needs of a developing business organisation and nation. Aspects of grappling

include environmental protection, community involvement and international business deals. Lessons learned from the case study help business leaders and strategists in developing countries and multinational corporations to better understand and employ CSR principles to enhance sustainability and social impact.

Mahonye and Mandishara (2015:81) researched the mechanism between the mining sector and economic growth in Zimbabwe. The study investigated the role of mineral resources in economic development and how the extractive sector impacts the overall performance of the economy of a country endowed with a diverse mineral. The authors analysed the economic growth model using human capital, population growth, property rights and political rights, the share of mineral exports to total exports, the real growth of mining and the increase in foreign direct investments for 1970-2008. The observed results presented that real manufacturing growth, real mining growth, the share of mineral exports to total exports, property rights and political rights are important determinants of economic growth.

Of interest are the emerging facts that the researchers advance, that of the resource curse myth. According to this myth, a resource curse occurs when a country like Zimbabwe endowed with mineral wealth fails to utilise the mineral resources for economic growth. The blame has been attributed to the institutions that handle transactions from agreements to revenue collected. Most African countries are believed to suffer from the mismanagement paradox. Mlambo (2016:40) asserts that there is serious corruption in the issuance of mining rights, the revenue is not broadly distributed (some sections of the community are excluded from the benefits through CSR activities), and there is a general lack of transparency in how the revenue is used (consumption or capital development).

Mathe and Phiri (2016:503) carried anthropogenic research on the impact of mining on the environment in Gwanda District Zimbabwe, using a case study of Blanket Mine. The research was set to investigate the anthropogenic causes of air pollution, land pollution, and the degradation of land at Blanket Mine in Gwanda. The results of the research showed that mining activities altered the ecosystem both in physical and chemical ways.

The research exposed the negative impact of mining on human and animal life and that there are no CSR activities that help reclaim the ecosystem. For example, water pollution through chemical waste, land decimation because of mounds of the mine tailings. It was also established that the health of people living in and around Blanket Mine was compromised because some people suffered from respiratory infections. Of interest were the interventions by the mine,

which were not as convincing to put a stop to the scourge. The mining firms had no CSR activities to help militate against human and environmental decay.

Dziro (2014:61) investigated community development through CSR programmes in Zimbabwe. The study was carried in two districts where mining companies operate, namely, Zvishavane and Mutoko Districts of Zimbabwe. The research established that CSR is influenced more by the desire to make profits and not by the philanthropic need to assist communities in economic, social, and environmental development. Even under these circumstances, there is no evidence of CSR activities in one of the two districts. Local community leaders have expressed disappointment at the continued extraction causing land degradation.

The researcher noted the need for the government to develop a mechanism that assists mining companies in using profits realised to improve communities in a transparent and accountable manner, thus advancing the spectrum of CSR activities in helping improve standards of living. This should be done regardless of individuals' political affiliation. Strategies suggested include the employment of locals and procuring mine requirements locally. The other proffered mechanism is to adhere to the dictates of the Indigenisation and Empowerment Act Chapter 14:33 of 2007 with amendments to accommodate all stakeholders.

Closely related to the latter is another research carried out by Mawowa, focusing on community share ownership trusts (CSOTS) in Zimbabwe's mining sector. The research objective was to establish how CSOTS could ease the poverty experienced by communities that host mining entities. Again, the research sought to develop empowerment arrangements of local communities endowed with mineral wealth (Mawowa, 2013:22).

The CSOTS came about because of the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act (IEEA) Chapter 14:33 of 2007. The policy required at least 51 per cent of shares in every mining company to be owned by indigenous Zimbabweans by 2015. (This has since been repealed to 100 per cent shareholding by any investor in January 2018 except for platinum and diamonds). Of the 51% shares, 10% were to be disposed to local communities through a community share ownership trust (CSOT). The researchers noted that the initiative was of good intent but was largely paternalistic and had a top-down approach with zero community involvement and consultation. The researcher concluded that this approach was more of a transfer of ownership and inclined to a political gimmick. This was paralleled with the takeover of land previously owned by white commercial farmers.

However, despite what appears to be the glaring shortcomings of the initiative, at a conceptual level, the emphasis on the local community benefiting from its natural resources presents an opportunity of sharing stakes between mining companies, local communities and citizens at large (Mandina, Maravire & Masere, 2014:169).

This section focussed on previous management-based CSR research work done in Zimbabwe. Emerging facts are that CSR is slowly gaining inroads, but the concept is getting setbacks owing to the current business environment obtaining in the country. CSR as a concept thrives on several factors, including a stable economic environment that raises investor confidence. This important factor is currently lacking in Zimbabwe.

Some of the factors causing slow appreciation and adoption of the concept include rampant corruption. This is coupled with a lack of accountability and transparency, which are fundamental values in business management. The other issues include the unstable economic environment resulting from sanctions imposed by the United States and the European Union countries, which constitute a huge portion of the trade partners with viable economies.

The other important fact raised is the unstable monetary regime which has seen inflation rising and hitting a huge blow on investor confidence. This has driven away potential investors killing foreign direct investment opportunities. The other issue is the resource curse myth pinned on the lack of transparency by people in institutions that drive the economy. The obtaining situation is a detriment to the virtues of CSR and its development.

3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter begins by establishing the origins of CSR. The concept started in the United States in the twentieth century, spreading slowly around Europe during the industrial revolution, then Asia, and manifesting in Africa in recent years. The concept gains prominence from the 1950s where it takes shape to become the modern era of the concept. The concept then takes a ten-year developmental process with each decade focusing on specific issues, like morality, philanthropy, stakeholder involvement, which led to the formulation of the stakeholder theory and CSR becoming a social contract with the acceptance of the triple bottom line by business organisations as a business strategy.

The chapter further proffers definitions of CSR. These are given as voluntary business activities, which include social and environmental concerns within communities. Various

scholars and researchers have come up with various perceptions and interpretations of the CSR concept as it evolved over the years. Business organisations practicing CSR have been given terms such as corporate citizen, responsible business, responsible investments, corporate accountability, triple bottom line, shared value, sustainability, among many other terms. All these views have become the 21st Century definitions of CSR. It is a concept that now addresses all the issues and concerns of stakeholders.

The chapter further on looks at the characteristics of CSR, which are given as follows: firstly, CSR is generally considered to be a voluntary act that surpasses prescriptions of the law; secondly, CSR is seen as a way of managing the impact of business activities on the external environment, thirdly CSR is perceived to be a mechanism of considering different stakeholder interests, fourthly it is viewed as a way of aligning social and economic stakeholder interests and reduce conflicts, fifthly CSR is based on ethics which focus on the consequences of one behaviour on others and last but not least CSR goes beyond philanthropy as it is now part of the main business practice.

The benefits of CSR are also discussed with specific reference to the organisation and the society in particular. To the business organisation, the concept brings a good reputation which spurs customer loyalty to products produced. This, in the long term, brings in profitability and a competitive advantage against competitors. To society, CSR uplifts the lives of the stakeholders through improvement in the standard of living.

The chapter also looks at the importance of CSR, drawing from its advantages and advantages. CSR is now considered a vibrant business strategy that strengthens business performance through attracting the best expertise and gaining popularity through ‘doing good.’

The chapter further discusses the determinants of CSR, including ownership, size of the organisation, industry sector, governance mechanism, age of the organisation and profitability. Focus is then shifted to the benefits drawn from CSR at the organisational level. This addressed issues to do with employee welfare and other key stakeholders that affect operations within and without the organisation. Benefits to society were also discussed with particular attention to communities that co-exist with business organisations.

This led to CSR measurement as a mechanism to assess resources utilisation from an informed position. In this regard, decisions on efficient and effective uses and allocation of resources, especially among stakeholders, take precedence. In instances where there is a conflict of interest among stakeholders’ decisions are revised and accordingly aligned. Dimensions of

CSR are also discussed with a view of how each variable influences CSR activities. Among those discussed include political, social, ethical, production, environmental and economic variables.

The chapter winds up by looking at previous management studies that focused on CSR in the Zimbabwean context. Nhapi and Mathende (2017:145) focused on the business and society, specifically, determinants and experiences of CSR Practices in Zimbabwean extractive industries. The research work based on literature from other similar work recommended that the companies benefitting from extractive resources and other business ventures should finance social programs in the country. Finally, the duo recommends pathways for sustainable CSR implantation.

Dziro (2014:61) studied the relevance of community development and corporate social responsibility in the advent of indigenisation and empowerment programmes in Zimbabwe. The study was carried out in two different Districts where mining companies operate. The outcomes showed that CSR programmes done by the business organisations were targeted at appeasing the local populace to get a social licence to operate. The recommendations of the research point to the need for Government to introduce mechanisms that help mining companies to use some of their profits to improve local communities in a transparent and accountable manner to ensure that all citizens. This could happen through the recruitment of locals with appropriate skills to avert the problems of unemployment and motivate companies to procure some items that can be found locally as part of promoting community development as this would assist locals to improve their lives.

The underlying factors point out that CSR development and adoption in Zimbabwe is still in infancy because of several factors. Among them is the economic environment presented to business organisations operating in Zimbabwe. The economy is operating at its worst firstly because the environment does not attract investment. This is so because of several challenges, including power cuts, high tariffs, corruption, and other underhand dealings that do not support economic growth. Business organisations are currently working to remain afloat and survive the economic tide, so CSR remains a pipe dream for it to be adopted and appreciated. The obtaining state of affairs is that business organisations that have attempted to integrate CSR activities are engaged in philanthropic work. Most of these activities lack disclosure and are done to justify existence.

CHAPTER 4

CORPORATE REPUTATION, PERFORMANCE AND HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses corporate reputation and corporate performance regarding specific operations of business organisations. This discussion is achieved through analysing local and international literature with a bias on establishing how the two concepts impact business operations. As the chapter unfolds, attention shifts to formulating hypotheses based on the conceptual framework and the theories cited in this study. The two concepts share a symbiotic relationship with CSR, which is inherent and a central concept of this study. Various scholars have established that corporate performance and corporate reputation are influenced to a large extent by well-managed and implemented CSR programmes initiated by business organisations. In light of this, it is prudent to have an in-depth analysis of the two to get a deeper understanding of the concepts about organisational core business and outcomes. The intertwined relationship that exists between the concepts makes them vital components of business operations. In this context, the chapter opens up with an overview of corporate reputation and then shifts to the definitions of corporate reputation as espoused by various scholars, followed by the determinants of corporate reputation; focus turns to the importance and benefits of corporate reputation and discussion winds with a look at the measurement of corporate reputation.

Focus shifts to the corporate performance beginning with an overview, followed by the various definitions of corporate performance as viewed from various perspectives, then attention shifts to determinants of corporate performance; furthermore, the importance and benefits of corporate performance are analysed; this is followed by an analysis of performance management frameworks, together with the components of corporate performance. The chapter winds up by focusing on the formulation of hypotheses derived from theories and constructs of the study.

4.2 UNDERSTANDING CORPORATE REPUTATION

This section discusses corporate reputation focusing attention on its relevance and implications on organisational development towards achieving its goals or objectives, mission and vision. To achieve this, the discourse begins with an overview of corporate reputation and its impact on the business organisation, paying particular attention to how it contributes to the success or failure of organisational set goals. The concept has become an essential strategic asset of business organisations, although it does not appear on the balance sheet as it is intangible (Pires & Trez, 2018:48). It has, however, a myriad of implications on issues that affect the overall organisational image. For example, reputation impacts recruitment, as prospective employees are attracted to organisations known for prestige and high regard for the welfare of employees. In Zimbabwe, some companies have earned themselves positive reputations, such as the mobile giant Econet and the beverage giant Delta. Although the concept is an intangible asset for organisations, it has a huge impact on the organisation as it contributes to its overall performance. Ganiyu and Adeosun (2013:220) agree with the assertion, arguing that corporate reputation is neither a new-born issue in the academic world nor practice. The term has evolved to become a strategic and intangible corporate asset, and it has been used in daily life, business and politics, for a very long time. Furthermore, the duo stresses that reputation explains the difference between success and failure and why customers opt for some organisations' products against others (Helm, 2014:22).

Good business reputation is thought to be founded on how organisations treat their stakeholders. Even though reputation is an intangible asset, research has consistently shown that a positive corporate reputation can provide a long-term competitive advantage and raise a company's value (Lee & Shin, 2010:193; Ganiyu & Adeosun, 2013:221; Helm, 2014:23). In this regard, a firm can achieve its objectives more easily and efficiently than other rivals in the same industry by having a good corporate reputation among its important stakeholders, such as suppliers, customers, and/or opinion leaders in the business community (Lee & Shin, 2010:193; Hasan & Yun, 2017:52).

This section gave a brief outline of corporate reputation and how it fits in the organisational management strategy. Emerging issues on the concept reveal that corporate reputation has a niche in the operations of a business entity as this intangible asset influences attitudes of various stakeholders such as suppliers, customers, employees, government, among a host of them.

4.3 DEFINING CORPORATE REPUTATION

This section specifically looks at the various definitions of corporate reputation drawn from various scholars. Corporate reputation has had its fair share of scrutiny regarding how it is perceived. Most of this has resulted from an interpretation based on various contexts and perceptions (Vitezić, 2011:86). It is against this background that this section seeks to define corporate reputation in the context of a business organisation. Corporate reputation has been viewed from complementary perspectives by economists, strategists, marketers and organisation theorists (Hsu, 2012:189). From the economic perspective, corporate reputation is considered a vigorous construct based on a series of sequential strategic choices made by firms which work as signals to observers (Taghian, D'Souza & Polonsky, 2015:340), who use these signals to form impressions about the firms (Jeng, 2011:852). In another perspective, Helm (2013:402) defines corporate reputation as stakeholders' overall evaluation of an organisation over time, further adding that these are shared impressions, consensus about how a firm will behave in any given situation (Taghian, D'Souza & Polonsky, 2015:342). In this regard, it is noted that corporate reputation has to do with impressions and evaluations by people from within and without the organisation

Marketers see reputation as the result of companies' efforts to induce purchases and create loyalty (Feldman, Bahamonde & Bellido, 2014:53). Marketers often treat reputation as synonymous with a brand image or brand equity, and the focus is on building this image through the use of various marketing tools (Feldman *et al.*, 2014:53). Furthermore, the aspect of building an image through impressions and evaluation is manifesting, showing the emerging importance of corporate reputation. Organisational-study theories, such as institutional and stakeholder theories, view reputation as being focused on the process of gaining legitimacy with actors in institutional environments (Lange, Lee & Dai, 2011:154). In this view, organisations have to gain legitimacy and cultural support in their institutional contexts to build reputations. Stakeholder theory shows that a good reputation with key stakeholders is necessary to guarantee support from these constituencies, which are essential for long-term success (Feldman *et al.*, 2014:54; Taghian, D'Souza & Polonsky, 2015:344).

Hasan and Yun (2017:54) view corporate reputation as an overall rating that indicates people's impression of the business of a particular organisation. The duo further stresses that corporate reputation concerns the organisation's perceptual representation of the past, present and prospects that define the general appeal of the organisation to the stakeholders.

Yasin (2012:1) views corporate reputation as a collective impression about an organisation derived from multiple stakeholders, based on a long-lasting, cumulative assessment of the business organisation over a long period. In another perspective, corporate reputation is considered a phenomenon representing the collective agreement regarding a public organisation (Shamma & Hassan, 2009:326; Lee & Shin, 2010:194). The emphasis here is that reputation is demonstrated as a motivation that can attract consumers, influence the buying-selling process, and the corporate associations that individuals establish with the organisation's name.

Mukasa, Kim and Lim (2015:383) stated that one of the foundations of reputation are the perceptions of the stakeholders about the corporation, further suggesting that these are constructed by corporates' collective presentation of past and present results of actions that describe the organisation's ability to deliver to various stakeholders. Corporate reputation determines the relative position of the corporation both externally with its stakeholders and internally with its employees within its competitive and industrial environments. Hsu points out that good reputation is a key element of differentiation, as an organisation that pursues this kind of strategy needs the public to know what makes its offer better than others in the market (Hsu, 2012:180).

Pires and Trez (2018:59) conclude that corporate reputation entails the collective judgment of an organisation by both internal and external observers, based on financial, social and environmental assessments made over time. This implies that corporate reputation is longitudinal as a direct result of observations and assessments by customers, investors, employees and the general public concerning organisational performance through products and services offered.

From the various perspectives on corporate reputation, this discussion proposes an integrative functional definition of corporate reputation as; those cumulative perceptions by stakeholders arising from past, present, and future impressions and evaluations of a business organisation's prospects and capabilities in meeting stakeholders' needs to a reasonable degree of satisfaction.

Summarily, this section, in conclusion, discussed the various perceptions of corporate reputation given by different scholars. In this regard, emerging facts are that corporate reputation has to do with impressions created by people about the firm's behaviour and interactions with stakeholders. These impressions lead to evaluations which ultimately put an identification tag on particular firms. These become shared beliefs among stakeholders about

firms' ability to meet their interests. It is now a key concept that differentiates firms in terms of perceptions and business promotion.

4.4 DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE REPUTATION

This section focuses on factors that determine corporate reputation measurement systems that attract customers' attention, ultimately leading to branding the organisation as good, fair, or bad (Esen, 2013:134). The determinants of corporate reputation include; ethics, employee management, financial performance, leadership, management styles, social responsibility, customer focus or handling, quality, reliability and emotional appeal. Each of the factors is discussed briefly with a view of unbundling how this influences corporate reputation.

4.4.1 Ethical corporate reputation

In general, ethics is an embodiment of what is considered right or wrong in any context. In business, ethics refers to the standard of behaviour that guides one's conduct concerning the rights of those who become subjects of your business or are affected in one way or the other by the activities of an organisation (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016:239). This means business firms have moral obligations to the people that are affected by business operations. In this regard, business firms are expected to plough back to the communities around them through participating in sustainable community development programmes. To achieve this, transparency and accountability should be upheld to get buy-in from various stakeholders for the various actions taken during transactions. Organisations that behave ethically are admirable, worthy of respect and trustworthy. Balmer and Bratt (2016:5) concur, noting that the inculcation of ethics into corporate identity, image, brand and reputation in today's environment where ethical breaches seem to be growing in number and magnitude signals the importance of ethics, labelling it a "golden thread" to be woven across business activities.

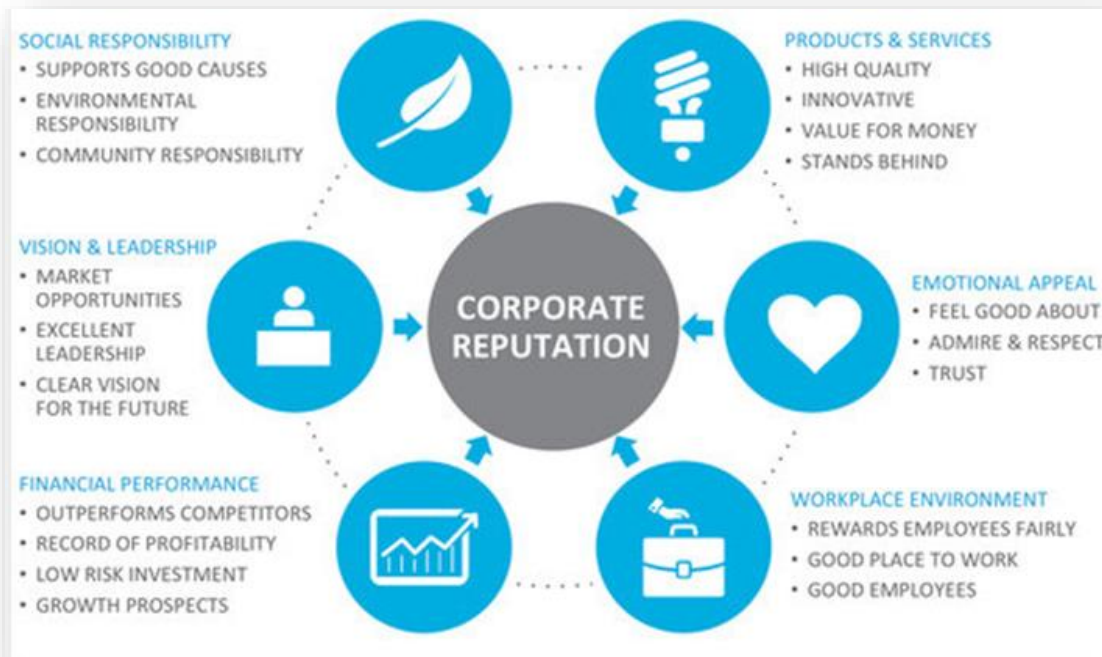


Figure 4.1: The determinants of corporate reputation within a firm

Source: Morsing and Schultz (2008:100)

4.4.2 Employees/workplace

Employees are part of the internal stakeholder group that has been overlooked in the CSR framework. Balmer and Bratt (2016:4) highlight that CSR initiatives can stimulate employees to develop a sense of obligation and engagement in work conditions to enhance employees' organisational commitment and job satisfaction. This inclusion and recognition of this stakeholder constituency lead to loyalty and duty execution effectively and efficiently. As a result, employees need to be given incentives to remain loyal to the organisation, which is usually achieved through attractive remuneration packages. For example, employees can be given housing, car and educational loans. Such packages attract and help organisations retain qualified personnel workforce. Thus, the workplace becomes home to employees. For example, in Zimbabwe, mining firms such as Ngezi Platinum Mine, Mimososa and Unki command a reputation of remunerating employees favourably. Such a working environment also allows individual growth through internal staff development programmes and training (Meadows & Meadows, 2016:346).

4.4.3 Financial performance

An organisation's finances play a critical role in lubricating all of its activities. For example, if a company is financially strong, it indicates it can be profitable and grow. For the public's benefit, such businesses publish their financial statements in the public domain. Despite some shortcomings that may be overshadowed by disclosures, this type of practice promotes public confidence in the organisation and the possibility of influencing investment (Madapusi & D'Souza, 2012:26).

4.4.4 Management

The management of an organisation is critical to maintaining a positive corporate image. The management team must be well-informed on the organisation's goals. A well-managed organisation ensures high-quality management based on a clear vision for the future (Khoursed, 2012:148). The management team must understand how to communicate with the many stakeholders, resulting in favourable or negative feedback (Ganiyu & Adeosun, 2013:225).

4.4.5 Social responsibility

One of the key facets of a positive corporate reputation for organisations is engaging social responsibilities within communities that host them. For example, business organisations can be involved in health and educational programmes. Alternatively, an organisation can support good causes like environmental care like land reclamation and tree planting. In Zimbabwe, tree planting is observed every first Saturday of December every year. Most business organisations have taken advantage of such government programmes to showcase their worth by financially supporting and participating (Alhammadi, 2018:10). Such programmes improve the organisational image and eventually a positive reputation from stakeholders.

4.4.6 Customer focus

Customers are a key component of any business entity. For example, good customer service earns a good reputation. People are generally happy when they are pampered with respect and courtesy when transacting with business organisations. For instance, after-sales services such as free installations and deliveries may bring about good relations with customers. Furthermore, regular customers may be informed of new products. In return, the organisation is known for exceptional customer care and a good reputation (Ali, Alvi & Ali, 2012:104).

4.4.7 Quality

Quality provides goods fit for the intended purpose; hence, it becomes imperative that business organisations provide value for money quality goods and services. Business organisations that offer high-quality products and services are bound to make remarkable customers inflows since their main priority is quality. This, in return, earns the organisation a positive reputation and profits (Ali, Alvi & Ali, 2012:101).

4.4.8 Reliability

Another integral factor of reputation is reliability. This factor is essential when the organisation stands behind its products and services, as it brings about customer confidence. If businesses provide consistent service and never fall short of supply, customers are always guaranteed service availability. This, in turn, earns the entity a good reputation since it will be known for the constant provision of products and services (Esen, 2013:135).

4.4.9 Emotional appeal

Organisations are known for supplying high-quality goods, reliable services and good customer care develop an emotional relationship with their customers. Such customers feel wanted and part of the organisation because of how they are treated. Ultimately, they feel good about these kinds of gestures and enjoy doing business with such organisations. The result is customer and brand loyalty. Such relations lead to customers becoming blind to prices, and transactions become fun (Esen, 2013:136).

Since reputation is intangible, many companies find it challenging to manage their reputation, and it tends to go by the wayside in situations that may force organisations to divert from the expected. For example, organisations may compromise on waste management and end up contaminating the environment and wildlife.

4.5 IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF CORPORATE REPUTATION

This section focuses on the importance and benefits drawn from corporate reputation by business organisations as this has arguably become a very important strategic asset. Although intangible, corporate reputation has positioned itself at the epi-centre of business organisations as stakeholders evaluate business operations with a view of growing or severing their interests and opting for new partners.

Corporate reputation is viewed as the overall valuation of an organisation's behaviour by its internal and external stakeholders based on its past and present actions with a probability of foretelling its future (Pérez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2014:223). Although most organisations relegated this phenomenon to less important issues, it has become inherently important, as it has dawned on many companies that corporate reputation has a huge return on investment implications (Pérez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2014:224; Abdullahi, Aminu & Mustapha, 2014:71). Research universally shows that, although corporate reputation is an intangible concept, a good reputation has demonstrated that it increases corporate worthiness and provides sustained competitive advantage (Helm, 2013:403; Pérez, & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2014:223). To this end, a business can achieve its objectives more easily if it has a good reputation among its stakeholders, especially the key stakeholders such as its customers, suppliers, opinion leaders in the business community, government, current and potential employees (Pérez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2014:225).

Therefore, it is envisaged that if a business has a good corporate reputation, customers will prefer to deal with it instead of other similar businesses; thus, a good corporate reputation will influence customers to be more trusting and loyal to the business entity. Also, a good business corporate reputation is advantageous for employee recruitment, employee development, and employee retention (Abdullahi *et al.*, 2014:72).

4.6 MEASUREMENTS OF CORPORATE REPUTATION

This section focuses on how corporate reputation is measured in organisations that engage in any business venture. As earlier indicated, corporate reputation is a complex phenomenon due to its multidisciplinary nature; hence it is difficult to quantify given its intangibility nature. Trotta and Cavallaro (2012:21) opine that corporate reputation is a concept of extraordinary multidisciplinary richness, and it is complex to define and quantify. The pair further adds that the concept is a critical intangible asset for organisations. This is because it reflects differently on the various stakeholders such as suppliers, employees, investors and the public at large. These reflections are based on the organisation's characteristics, qualities, and behaviour based on personal experiences or hearsay (Trotta & Cavallaro, 2012:22).

The corporate reputation measurement systems discussed here are classified into two groups, namely qualitative and quantitative. The qualitative system focuses on assessing corporate reputation and is used to minimise the causes of reputational risk. The qualitative systems include; innovation, quality of management, long-term investment value, social responsibility,

people management (ability to attract, develop and keep talented people), quality of products, financial soundness, corporate assets and global competitiveness (Trotta & Cavallaro, 2012:23). Inversely, the quantitative system measures the risk and effects of reputation losses.

4.7 UNDERSTANDING CORPORATE PERFORMANCE

This section focuses on corporate performance, which has become an important element in the corporate affairs matrix. In pursuant of unlocking this matrix, this section discusses corporate performance, beginning with definitions advanced by various scholars leading to its conceptualisation. Recent researches point to a shift from the traditional perception of corporate performance. The concept is here discussed through the stakeholder and social exchange perspectives as a lens of analysis of its impact on CSR activities.

Corporate performance has undergone a rebirth in meaning over the years, especially with the advent of CSR in corporate affairs. Corporate performance has been measured quantitatively by management of multinationals and views this as a function of return on capital used, return on equity, profitability, liquidity, turnover and many more other variables (Adeneye, 2015:151; Ferrero-Ferrero, Fernández-Izquierdo & Muñoz-Torres, 2016:1005). The focus during this period was mainly to do with profit and optimal returns for shareholders. However, there has been a shift from quantitative performance, which focused on profit maximisation, to qualitative performance, which embraced other facets of a corporation that support an organisation's goals; these include customers, suppliers, and society (Khoursed, 2012:147; Adeneye & Ahamed, 2015:152).

Corporate performance refers to a composite evaluation of how well a corporate executes on its important parameters: information about the state of the firm, its success, development, and future outlook (Olaru, Stoleriu, Pirnea, Kaufmann, & Angheluta, 2012:2). The parameters for corporate performance include; social performance, economic performance and operational performance. Furthermore, corporate performance is an indicator of the organisation's health status, which has been traditionally measured in terms of financial performance (Galant & Cadez, 2017:686; Ferrero-Ferrero, Fernández-Izquierdo & Muñoz-Torres, 2016:1006). The three variables mentioned will be discussed in some relative depth as these are key in this study.

4.8 CORPORATE PERFORMANCE DEFINED

Business organisations or corporates are set up with clear objectives of becoming competitive and generating good returns on investment (ROI). This has made the term 'corporate performance' evolve in meaning and contexts. Jenatabadi (2015:2) opines that it can be claimed

that there is a close relationship between the organisational objective and the concept of organisational performance. In light of this, it is prudent that corporate performance is viewed from various periods of its development. The concept has developed to become a strategic asset of modern organisations. Taouab and Issor (2019:94) underscore that firm performance has become a relevant concept in strategic management research and is frequently used as a dependent variable. In light of this, the duo came up with how corporate performance was viewed from the 1950s up to the present day (21st Century), the period CSR gained prominence. Table 4.1 below summarises the definitions of corporate performance since the 50s to date.

Table 4.1: Developmental definitions of corporate performance

PERIOD	DEFINITIONS
1950	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Corporate performance was considered the equivalent of organisational efficiency, representing the degree to which an organisation, as a social system with some limited resources and means, achieves its goals without excessive effort from its members. The criteria used for assessing performance are productivity, flexibility, and inter-organisational tensions
1960	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Corporate performance was defined as an organisation's ability to exploit its environment for accessing and using the limited resources
1970	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Corporate performance was viewed as synonymous with organisational effectiveness based on productivity, flexibility, conformity and adaptability. • Organisational performance is when the productivity rate, levels of motivation and satisfaction of its members are high, while rates of turnover, costs, labour unrest are low or absent. • Corporate performance can be assessed by maximizing the entire returns of all kinds.
1980	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Corporate performance was viewed as the organisation's ability to create value for its clients. • The extent to which an organisation, as a social system, could consider both its means and ends. • Considered performance as a concept of success or effectiveness in performing effectively to achieve its goals successfully.
1990	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational performance is deeply dependent on the employees' performance quality. • Regular exposure of the workers to new and up-to-date knowledge and skills, which would, in turn, help them keep up with the new

	changes happening in the market and, ultimately, increase the quality of organisational performance.
2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective organisation with a high standard of performance level is the one that keeps the demands of its stakeholders satisfied.
21st Century	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the first decade of the twenty-first century, the definition of corporate performance focused on the capability and ability of an organisation to efficiently exploit the available resources to achieve accomplishments consistent with the set objectives of the company, as well as considering their relevance to its users.

Source: Taouab and Issor (2019:94).

The table gave the different perceptions of corporate performance from the 1950s to date, given as the 21st Century. The emerging trend reflects that corporate performance is now part of organisational strategy that helps achieve set objectives and the interests of stakeholders. The integrative definition takes cognizance of non-financial indicators that offer information on the accomplishment of objectives and results (Taouab & Issor, 2019:96). In agreement, Jenatabadi (2015:4) provides a functional definition of corporate performance as the capability and ability of an organisation to efficiently exploit the existing resources to achieve organisational activities consistent with the company's set objectives, as well as considering their relevance to its users. Three general elements in this definition of corporate performance, surface vis-à-vis efficiency, effectiveness and relevancy. *Efficiency* refers to utilising organisational resources sparingly, effectiveness being the connection between performance and goals, and *relevancy* as stakeholders' satisfaction.

4.9 DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE PERFORMANCE.

This section discusses the determinants or dimensions of corporate performance. Business organisations need to verify performance levels in line with the set objectives. Today's performance has become inclusive, moving away from the traditional financial position determinant. In this discussion, the following determinants are analysed in-depth vis-à-vis profitability performance, growth performance, market value performance of the firm, customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction, environmental audit performance, corporate governance performance and social performance.

4.9.1 Profitability performance

Profitability is the ability of a business organisation to earn a profit. Selvam, Gayathri, Vasanth and Lingaraja (2015:203) highlight that a profit is the remainder of a business's revenue after paying all expenses. The quartet opines that the firm's objective is to maximise the wealth of

the existing shareholders, adding that superior financial performance is a way to satisfy investors.

4.9.2 Growth performance

Growth performance by business organisations refers to a positive change in size and maturation, usually over some time (Selvam *et al.*, 2016:94). This organisational growth occurs typically at a maturation stage and demonstrates a firm's ability to increase its size. The growth in size usually increases profit levels and cash generation. Large business organisations may bring economies of scale and market power, leading to enhanced future profitability (Lingara, Selvam & Vasanth, 2015:203).

4.9.3 Market value performance of the firm

Market value is considered a possible variable, and it represents the external assessment and expectation of the future performance of firms. It should have a link with the historical profitability and growth levels of firms. Furthermore, it should also incorporate future expectations of market changes and competitive moves. The diversification strategy provides effective risk minimisation and returns maximisation (Selvam *et al.*, 2016:95). The market value of a firm is thus a key concern as it is the ability to forecast stock trends based on publicly disclosed information. Information relevant to stock returns is important for both general investors and stakeholders of publicly listed organisations. Market anomalies help the investors to gain from market movements. Maximization of stakeholder and investors value through the better performance of the business operation is revealed on the stock market by the indices of the financial report and other required information on the stock market.

4.9.4 Customer satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is paramount as it forms the basis of further business interaction between customers and the organisation. Most of the time, customer satisfaction comes with product quality and good customer handling (Esen, 2013:136).

4.9.5 Employee satisfaction

Employee satisfaction is achieved through managing employees' interests and ambitions. Employees' satisfaction comes about through confidence in their roles and responsibilities, the work environment and their experiences with management. It is necessary to determine what benefits matter most to them and what skills they wish to acquire as they develop their careers.

Such a state of affairs instils confidence in employees and boosts their morale (Selvam *et al.*, 2016:96).

4.9.6 Environmental audit performance

Environmental audit is one aspect among the several approaches to the environmental management system of a business organisation. This is mainly because it helps to reduce the impact of business activities on the environment. As part of efforts to manage the environment, organisations can be involved in community-based environmental awareness campaigns, such as avoiding wanton cutting down trees and land degradation (Mgbame & Ilabaya, 2013:447).

4.9.7 Corporate governance performance

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) defined corporate governance (CG) as rules and practices that govern the relationship between managers, shareholders and stakeholders of corporations who contribute to the growth and financial stability of the organisation. Agyenmang and Castellini (2015:52) described CG as the structure, processes, and mechanisms of firms directed and managed to strengthen long-term shareholder value, hence improving firm performance. Walker (2013:16) provided a comprehensive description of CG, suggesting that the concept encompasses every force that bears on the decision-making of the firm. The forces consist of control rights of the stockholders, contractual agreements and insolvency powers of debt holders, and commitments with employees, customers, suppliers, and regulations authorized by governmental agencies.

Jovanovic-Zattila (2016:189) opine that corporate governance comprises two mechanisms, namely, internal and external. In this regard, internal corporate governance prioritises shareholders' interests through the support of the board of directors in monitoring top management. On the other hand, external corporate governance monitors and controls managers' behaviour through external regulations and force. This involves interactions with many interested parties, such as suppliers, debtors, accountants, lawyers, providers of credit ratings and investment banks, among other stakeholders.

4.9.8 Social performance

Social Performance has provided a variety of perspectives on the social roles and responsibilities of business. Friedman (1970) contended that the social responsibility of business is to make a profit. Like many neoclassical economists, Friedman (1970) separates business from society and declares the concepts of social responsibility as a fundamentally

subversive doctrine. An extended concept of corporate social performance describes the contribution of business to society. Accordingly, profitable firms are more likely to disclose more social and environmental information than companies with lower-level profitability (Santos & Brito, 2012:95).

4.9.9 The importance of corporate performance

This section focuses on the different views of corporate performance given by researchers and industrialists alike in the recent past. The main aim is to bring a deeper understanding of corporate performance with views expressed over time, especially with the advent of CSR. The analysis attempted to bring out the 21st Century views anchored on the stakeholder theory.

Corporate performance has been viewed in various contexts, but the traditional view was that of an organisation that achieves financial returns for its shareholders. This comes in the form of profits or dividends on investments. This view sees other stakeholders as residual claimants who have no specifiable contracts with the organisation (Selvam *et al.*, 2016:93; Blowfield & Murray, 2014:220).

The traditional perception of stock investors in a business organisation has been solely to make an optimal profit. Over the years, the prime motivation being to exclusively earn the highest level of future cash flow for a given amount of risk. This view is anchored on the notion that investors were risk-averse and were often unwilling to pay a premium for CSR behaviour (Alhammedi, 2018:7). However, this neo-classical view has been gradually changing with the advent of the stakeholder theory advocates. The view takes a different approach, which often conflicts with the former (Kuntluru, 2019:2). Stakeholder theory is inclusive, and instead of benefiting shareholders only, business entities still have obligations to a broader group of stakeholders and that resources should be used in a way that benefits other players (Blowfield & Murray, 2014:230; Alhammedi, 2018:8).

This has led to the modern view of corporate performance as it has become part of other aspects of an organisation. Instead, several studies have found a positive relationship between different types of CSR activities and corporate performance. It has been suggested that there is no conflict between the two approaches as long as outlays on CSR activities have a positive influence or no influence at all on the market valuation of a company (Kuntluru, 2019:3). From the traditional views of corporate performance with other corporate affairs, various research studies find a positive correlation between CSR activities and corporate performance. These

argue that there is an indication that firms investing in CSR perform at least as well as other firms.

The relationship between corporate performance and CSR variables have a great potential for diversity. This implies that the market rewards companies for engaging in diversity matters. In addition, there is evidence that companies that are associated with significant investments in a wide range of CSR activities are rewarded in the marketplace, which implies that there are reputational benefits to gain from engaging in CSR activities other than those that one might consider being related directly to the CSR activities. Simply put, socially aware and concerned managers pursue activities that generate higher profitability, thus making their company a better investment (Alhammedi, 2018:8).

The diversity of corporate performance has led to some researchers confusing productivity and performance. To this end, Umoh, Amah and Wokocha, (2013:121) propound a definition of organizational performance, which is described as the extent to which the organisation can meet the needs of its stakeholders and its own survival needs.

The trio further suggested that in addition to using financial indicators, the focus should also be on other operational indicators when measuring organisational performance. The operational indicators may include new product introduction, product quality, manufacturing value-added and marketing effectiveness. These operational measures could reflect the firm's competitive position in its industry space and might lead to financial performance. Hence, using a multiple indicator approach to operationalize a firm's performance would be superior to using only a single indicator (Umoh *et al.*, 2013:122).

The modern perception of corporate performance has put increasing pressure on organizations to satisfy the multiple stakeholder groups; hence there is a need for more complex measures of organizational effectiveness in which overly simplistic single variable models are inadequate expressions of the real world, of multi-goal existence of organisations. Most practitioners seemed to use the term performance to describe a range of measurements, including input efficiency, output efficiency and in some cases, transactional efficiency. Amoh *et al.* (2013:124) aptly say, there is no single measure or best measure of organisational performance as there are other different objectives and measurements for organisational performance.

However, despite all these assertions, some researchers still argue that profitability remains the most common measurement tool used for organisational performance in business

organisations. The argument pursued in this regard is that the organisation's financial position is key for any other investments that may be undertaken.

Gavrea *et al.* (2011:287) reiterate that it is through corporate performance that organisations can grow and progress. The trio notes that corporate performance remains an area that is defined differently depending on the setup. The trio further reckons that in the 1950s, corporate performance was defined as a social system to which organisations fulfilled their objectives. Evaluation in this regard was on work, people and organisational structure. The perception of performance changed in the 1960s and 70s when corporate performance was viewed as the organisation's ability to exploit its environment for accessing and using limited resources. This period saw the emergence and popularisation of the words 'efficiency' and 'effective'. The 1980 and 90s saw the re-orientation of performance where corporate objectives perception was revisited. Corporate performance in this context meant the achievement of corporate objectives. An organisation was considered successful when it achieved its goals (effectiveness) using minimum resources (efficiency). Thus, profit margins posted by an organisation became part of performance indicators (Jenatabadi, 2015:2).

The benefits drawn from corporate performance include; a focus and assessment of CSR programmes, corporate reputation, innovation, employee morale and productivity (Galant & Cadez, 2017:690). The traditional key performance indicators (KPI) such as revenue, return on investment (ROI), overheads, and operational costs are no longer the only indicators (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:14). There is now a paradigm shift that focuses on nonfinancial areas like strategic planning, process efficiencies, brand equity, risk management and human resource management. Gavrea, Ilies and Stegorean (2011:71) sum it up by saying corporate performance is viewed as a set of financial and non-financial indicators which offer information on the degree of achievement of objectives and results. Corporate performance has in this regard gone a gear up and expanded beyond forecasting, budgeting and planning (Tyagi, 2012:1).

Thus, like the concept of business sustainability, corporate performance, also known as 'corporate health', is now considered to involve not only financial considerations but also other factors including social responsibility and reputation, innovation, employee morale and productivity. In this instance, the concept is now complementary to other aspects traditionally considered not important. As such, performance is no longer measured only on key performance indicators (KPI) such as revenue, return on investment (ROI), overhead and operational costs. Performance results are now often shared publicly rather than only with

financial stakeholders and investors, as was formerly the case (Gavrea, Ilies & Stegorean 2011:72).

4.10 COMPONENTS OF CORPORATE PERFORMANCE

This section discusses the components or parts of corporate performance. Three components are dealt with here: operational performance, social performance, and economic performance, which are used in this study. Each of the components is defined, described and push drivers identified.

4.10.1 Operational performance

The effective operational performance forms the benchmark of profitability of any business organisation. Operational performance refers to the measurable aspects of the outcomes of an organisation's processes, such as reliability, production cycle time, and inventory turns (Azim, Ahmed & Khan, 2015:64). The operational precision of a business organisation influences the outcomes that ensure business growth through investments. Such activities, if well maintained and managed, will earn the organisation profit.

The trio agrees that operational performance measures, such as operating cycle, fixed asset turnover, return on asset, and return on equity, give a clear picture of organisational performance. This measures how different aspects of a company's finances are performing. For example, the fixed-asset turnover ratio, operating cycle ratio, and revenue per employee ratio provide a different look into how a company spends and brings in revenue. In such instances, management is well informed of whether the business utilises its assets and resources efficiently (Azim *et al.*, 2015:65).

As the nerve centre, any business organisation operational performance has standard operating procedures that align all business units to ensure all functions are synchronised to achieve core business goals (Slack, Chambers & Johnston, 2010:25; Kajanathan, 2012:16). Organisational operations are premised on five fundamental core values that measure operational performance. The first is; ensuring that customers are provided with error-free goods and services which are 'fit for their purpose' in terms of quality. Secondly, every job should be done on time, minimising the time lost unnecessarily between product delivery and the customer receiving goods or services. Thus, the organisation will be known for being timeous in availing goods and services with speed. Thirdly dependability through keeping delivery promises made. Fourthly, flexibility allows change to meet specific customer needs because of unforeseen

circumstances. Last but not least, the need to produce goods and services priced at a reasonable cost that is affordable for the market while still allowing for a return to the organisation (Slack, Brandon-Jones & Johnston, 2013:46).

4.10.2 Social performance

Social performance is referred to as; a construct that emphasises a company's responsibilities to multiple stakeholders, such as employees and the community at large, in addition to its traditional responsibilities to economic shareholders (Chen & Delmas, 2011:789). Social performance by business organisations is measured through the 'triple bottom line', which translates to the planet, people and profit. The planet is the environmental account measured by business organisations' contribution to the care of the environment. For example, organisations can be involved in environment awareness campaigns and land reclamation to reduce degradation. The people are the social account of how an organisation's operations affect the quality of life among the general populace within communities, while profit is an economic account measured by profit margins of the organisation (Slack, Brandon-Jones & Johnston, 2013:40).

Attention to these three core aspects of any business entity connects it to its performance through competitive advantage. For example, investors increasingly use socially responsible investing (SRI) screens to select or avoid investing in firms according to their environmental and social preferences (Chen & Delmas, 2011:789). Such actions do not only benefit society but also help business organisations to compete and remain economically viable in the long term. Similarly, a growing number of consumers purchase eco-labeled products that signal a lower environmental and social impact on corporate operations (Chen & Delmas, 2011:790). This positive effect of social performance by organisations being socially responsible and responding to different stakeholders' needs and expectations results in a competitive advantage, thus improving corporate performance (Godos-Díez, Cabeza-Garcia & Fernandez, 2018:57).

4.10.3 Economic performance

The economic performance of a business organisation is the economic value generated and distributed for sustenance. This enables the organisation to keep running and meet other business commitments. These commitments may include revenue generated which is distributed to pay off, operating costs, employee compensation, donations to assist in social issues affecting communities, investments, retained earnings, payments to capital providers

and other service providers in government (Initiative Global Reporting, 2006:4). The handling of these issues determines the comprehensive financial position of the organisation, which measures its performance.

4.11 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORKS

World over, business organisations thrive to remain afloat through gaining a competitive advantage over other competing business entities. One of the ways to achieve this is to innovate to sustain and maintain positive performance. This section discusses the performance measurement models that organisations can use to measure the innovation process. In this regard, four models will be discussed in detail vis-à-vis Balanced scorecard, Malcolm Baldrige, Performance Prism and European Foundation for Quality Management. Ivanov and Avasilcai (2014:397) opine that the main role of performance measurement is to assess the organisation's current position and assist management come up with better strategies.

The corporate performance of any organisation is critical as it is the basis of progress measurement. The improvement of the organisational processes is not possible without measuring the outcomes. Hence, organisational performance requires measurements to identify the level to which the use of organisational resources impact business performance (Al-Matari, Al-Swidi & Hanim Bt Fadzil, 2014:25; Giannarakis, 2016:39).

The firm's success is explained by its performance over a certain period, enabling the comparison of performances over different periods. The performance of a firm is significantly impacted by corporate governance, which spells out the direction an organisation takes through the functions of each party, and if the functions are appropriately established for the corporate governance system, it attracts investment. This helps maximise the company's funds and reinforce the company's pillars, resulting in the expected increase in corporate performance. In other words, effective corporate governance protects against potential financial challenges. This usually facilitates remarkable growth of the firm performance (Al-Matari *et al.*, 2014:26).

4.11.1 Balanced scorecard

Kaplan and Norton presented the balanced scorecard model in 1996 with the main aim of obtaining competitive advantage, and one way of achieving this is for management to understand organisational objectives and how to achieve them. In light of this balanced scorecard translates the mission and organisational strategy into a set of performance indicators that offer a mechanism for a performance measurement system (Ivanov & Avasilcai,

2014:397). The model assesses organisational performance based on four perspectives: financial, clients, learning and growth, and internal processes.

4.11.2 Customer perspective

Customers are the primary concern of any business organisation that needs to keep growing. Customers will buy anything as long as it is value for money. Customer satisfaction is based on quality, cost and reliable distribution. Therefore, organisations must maintain the tapped customer base by achieving set objectives and fulfilling hypotheses formulated on the customers (Ivanov & Avasilcai, 2014:397).

4.11.3 Financial perspective

Financial resources form the cog of business organisations. Management has to know how to mobilise financing and how to invest it. This includes projects that require financing, like corporate social responsibility, that bring stakeholders on board. Usually, such programmes attract the attention of would-be investors (Chen & Delmas, 2011:790; Waworuntu, Wantah & Rusmanto, 2014:493).

4.11.4 Learning and growth perspective

The learning and growth perspective is one of the most important for organisational measurement based on human capital development. This perspective influences all the other perspectives as it thrives on human capital development through training and duty execution (Ivanov & Avasilcai, 2014:397).

4.11.5 Malcolm Baldrige model

The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award has its origins in the USA, initiated by the Commerce Department. This was mainly introduced to encourage American businesses to control the quality of products and services efficiently. The model has a seven criteria base: leadership, strategic planning, customer focus, measurement, analysis and knowledge management, workforce focus, operations focus, and results. However, innovation performance is measured through leadership, strategic planning, operation focus, and workforce focus (Al-Matari *et al.*, 2014:27; Chen & Delmas, 2011:789;).

4.11.6 Performance prism

The performance prism is based on five interrelated aspects vis-à-vis stakeholder satisfaction, capabilities, processes, strategies and stakeholder contribution. Stakeholder satisfaction relates

to key stakeholders and their interests. Capabilities related to the competencies needed by the organisation to make processes work. Processes related to the strategies that need to be applied to keep the organisation afloat. Strategies relate to strategies that keep the organisation forging ahead, taking on board all stakeholders (Kajananthan, 2012:15). Lastly, stakeholder contribution relates to what the organisation requires from the stakeholders on a mutual basis. This model was primarily made to influence management thought processes than as a performance measurement. However, performance can still be measured through processes and capabilities (Al-Matari *et al.*, 2014:27).

4.11.7 European Foundation for quality management (EFQM)

The model is based on five criteria determinant factors; leadership, strategy, people, partnerships and resources and processes, products and services.

- Leadership: A high level of excellence in organisations run by leaders who build a great future by achieving objectives.
- Strategy: implementing strategies that recognise stakeholder interests
- People-working on improving employee morale through fairness and equity, which will lead to organisational growth
- Partnerships and resources: maintaining high-level relations with suppliers and internal resources to support strategy to enable processes to be more efficient.
- Processes, products and service-efficient processes lead to product quality to the satisfaction of customers.

EFQM and Balanced scorecard are deemed the most appropriate performance measurement tools because they are inclusive in all the facets of an organization (Al-Matari *et al.*, 2014:28).

4.12 HYPOTHESES FORMULATIONS

This section aims to formulate hypotheses derived from the theory and constructs of the study. The study forms the basis of the stated hypotheses, which suggest the causal relationships between the constructs. To capture the essence and significance of this section, the illustration of the conceptual framework of the study is given, which highlights the predicting constructs identified; PCSR, SCSR, PRCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR and SOCSR. Thereafter, attention is directed to the mediating construct, which is corporate reputation and the outcome variables of social performance, operational performance and economic performance. After that, the discussion focuses on developing hypotheses of possible relationships that exist between the

various constructs. The discussion concludes with an analysis of the relationship between CSR and corporate performance.

4.13 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This section presents the conceptual framework of the study. Figure 4. outlines the predictor constructs given as; PCSR, SCSR, PRCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR and SOCSR. This is followed by the mediating variable, which is corporate reputation leading to the outcome variables, namely social performance, operational performance and economic performance.

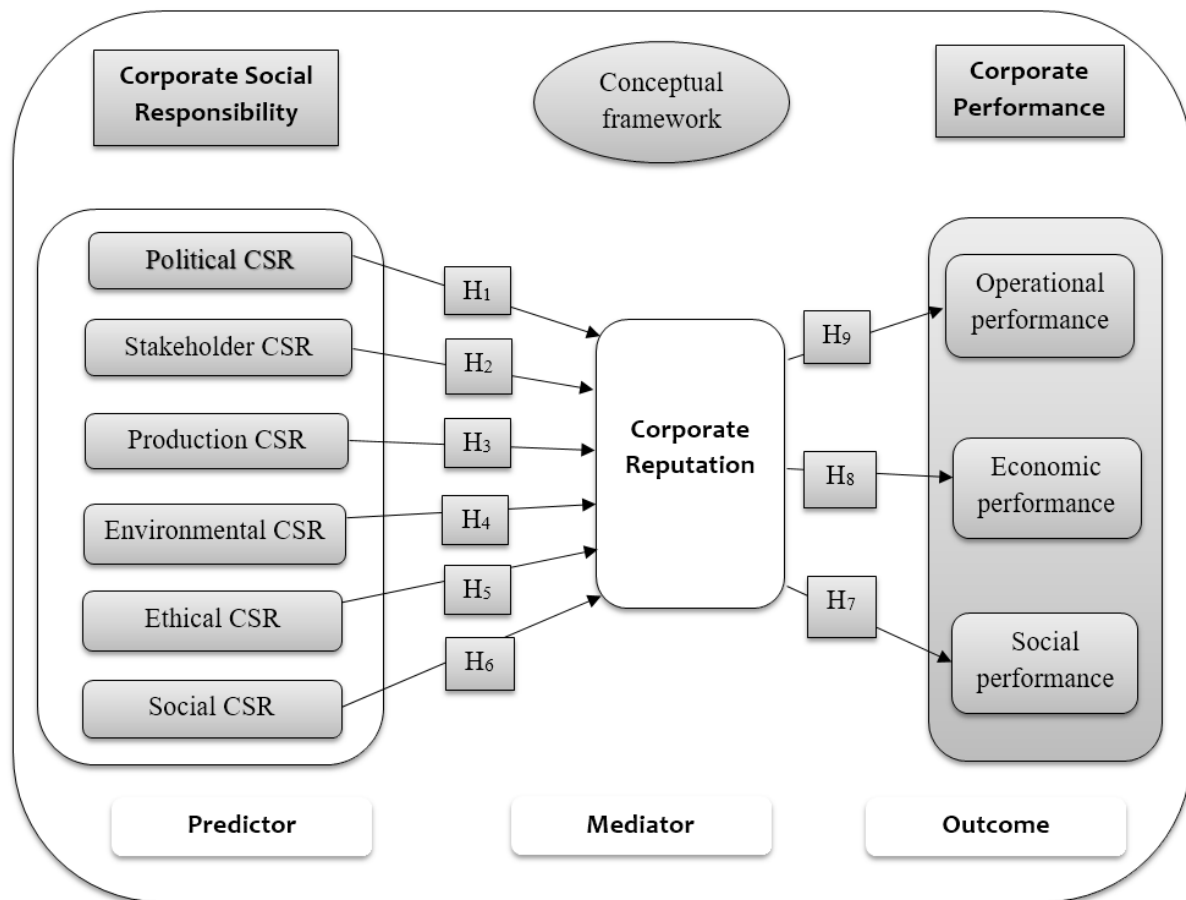


Figure 4.2: Conceptual framework on CSR, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe.

Source: Compiled by the Author

4.14 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The following section formulates both null and alternative hypotheses derived from the conceptual framework.

4.14.1 Political CSR and corporate reputation

The state is a crucial driver of corporate social responsibility across developed and developing countries. It is a conduit of how companies strategically manage the relationship with the state through CSR; secondly, how this strategy takes shape under the influence of political institutions. Considering these questions captures a convincing depiction of how a company applies CSR to interact with the state, particularly in countries where the state relationship is critical to the business operation (Zhao, 2012:435).

This makes PCSR of significant importance in influencing the identity and image of the corporate, as this points to how corporates treat people around the resources allocated to them by authorities with the power (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:145; Shirodkar, Beddewela & Richter, 2018:684). These authors further contend that politics influence the reputation of the corporates as it determines organisational operations and attitudes towards other stakeholders (Oladosu Omisore & Nweke, 2014:164). In line with this view, politics remains central to the establishment, survival and running of any business concern in any country (Chamber of Mines of Zimbabwe, 2017:6). Some scholars have emphasised that such use of CSR for gaining political leverage can ultimately reduce the risk of unfavourable regulation and improve the overall business climate (Shirodkar *et al.*, 2018:674).

Aristotle, in ancient Greek, defined politics as the exercise of power through making collective decisions and allocation of resources. Seward (2010:45) concurs and says politics is power and the distribution of resources. In this context, politics is viewed as the power or authority exercised by those ruling on resources distribution. These resources include natural land, minerals, animals, water found in the environment. In this regard, politics is central and key to any business venture.

Political risk, which includes corruption, civil unrest, regulatory ambiguity, and political instability, affects business operations. Corruption can arise, for example, when some businesses seek 'protection' against ostensibly unfavourable government policy. This, combined with involvement from stakeholders, government and non-government bodies, and even bureaucratic difficulties, can cause the awarding of enabling operating documents to be delayed or even prevented (O'Callaghan & Spagnolletti, 2017:3).

In some instances, such shortcuts can also speed up the processes, impacting the outcomes negatively. Other companies are subtle to the extent of getting involved in issues to do policy pronouncements that may give them a competitive advantage over others through political support from lawmakers. For example, some lawmakers in the Zimbabwean government were accused of asking for bribes from potential investors to access certain government officials and heads of state and government. El-Bassionuny and Letmathe (2019:745) highlight that, due to government monopolies or bureaucracy and, at times, overregulation, business entities in developing countries are usually restricted from providing basic infrastructure and social services. This is usually coupled with corrupt public political institutions whose influence may hinder business investments in CSR programmes. The duo further adds that such a non-enabling environment hinders the application of CSR programmes.

The term "corporate political activity" (CPA) was coined by En Hond, Rehbein, Bakker, and Lankveld (2014:796). The major goal of the CPA notion is to market the company's policies, methods, and practices that influence government policy or processes. According to proponents of this political strategy, information distribution, financial donations, and constituency building can all be utilised to communicate policy preferences to legislators. Firms may participate in political processes for defensive reasons, such as when they perceive pending government decisions as a danger to their competitiveness (Getz, 1997:206). Alternatively, they may view their political environment as offering opportunities for trying to influence the outcomes of electoral, legislative, or regulatory processes so that reflect the organisation's internal goals (Baines, 2010:259).

According to Oliver and Holzinger (2008:496), firms that can foresee and implement governmental policies are more likely to create excellent connections with essential stakeholders such as the government, media, and public interest groups. This relationship is deemed to create synergies that promote compliance with the laws of the country (Torres-Spelliscy, 2010:15; En Hood *et al.*, 2014:797). Fooks, Gilmore, Collin, Holden and Lee (2013:283) posit that some firms have also engaged in constructive dialogues with external constituents that reduced unfavourable opposition to their operations. In the same light by, adopting CSR activities that are better synchronized with the interests of political stakeholders, for instance, by exploiting government policy arrangements about social and economic development, MNCs in emerging economies can enhance their political legitimacy (Zhao 2012:439).

En Hond *et al.* (2014:800) argue that politically connected companies with good CSR reputations benefit from legislators and regulators in various ways. From the onset, politicians want to be associated with individuals and companies who have a good CSR reputation. In this context, high-profile companies may find it less necessary to employ financial instruments to acquire access to and attention from politicians, resulting in the reduction of expenses when dealing with regulators and/or politicians. As a result, businesses that recognise the government's weak position strive to benefit by requesting regulatory respite in exchange for increased efforts in CSR activities (Gjølberg, 2011: 5).

Several studies have accented the significance of politics to organisations' adoption and implementation of CSR programmes (Gu, Ryan, Bin & Wei, 2013:321; Huang & Zhao, 2016:9; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:145; Gorostidi-Martinez & Zhao, 2017:374; El-Bassiouny & Letmathe, 2019:745). Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₁: There is a significant positive relationship between PCSR and corporate reputation.

4.14.2 Stakeholder CSR and corporate reputation

The SCSR is a major variable that addresses the issues that affect all parties to a business organisation. This variable brings out the concerns of all stakeholders who have direct and indirect interests. Some of the issues that concern these stakeholders include social, environmental and sustainability management (Fe, Freeman & Schaltegger, 2014:329; Montiel & Delgado-Ceballos, 2014:113). Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar & De Colle, 2010:59) describe stakeholders as “those groups and individuals who can affect or be affected” by the actions connected to value creation and trade in the organisation. Through these stakeholders, the reputation of a business organisation is thought of, formulated, adopted, and spread at both primary and secondary levels (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:15).

Corporate reputation is thus viewed as a collective representation of multiple constituencies' images of a firm built over time (Argenti & Druckenmiller, 2004:369) as organisations generally engage in CSR activities to influence and improve stakeholders' perceptions of their image. Ganiyu and Adeosun (2013:220) emphasise that corporate reputation has evolved with time to become a strategic and intangible corporate asset, and it has been used in daily life, business and politics, among a host of other facets. This is why customers choose company 'A' products and services to 'B' mainly because of the reputational tag carried by business organisations even though the two offer the same products. This makes the difference between success and failure. Reputation may not be identified as an asset on the balance sheet, but it

affects investor confidence, staff recruitment, supplier attitudes and a myriad of other stakeholders in its capacity as relationship capital. Reputation represents a principal risk to any business and, as such, falls within the strategic issue that companies must give top priority (Ganiyu & Adeosun, 2013:222; Chernev & Blair, 2015:1414).

Thus, although corporate reputation has an intangible value that cannot be expressed financially, the possibility of this value being reduced represents a business risk. It remains an undoubted fact that most organisations are not aware of the drivers of corporate reputation and how these can be used to identify or protect the same against devaluation risk. Therefore, any incident that reduces trust among any single stakeholder group has the possibility of creating corporate reputation damage. The severity of this damage and the cost depends on the stakeholder group's influence and impact on the organisation. Several studies have confirmed this assertion (Phiri, Mantzari & Gleadle, 2018:26; Looser & Wehrmeyer, 2015:780; Ganiyu & Adeosun, 2013:222; Mishra & Suar, 2010:313). Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₂: There is a significant positive relationship between SCSR and corporate reputation.

4.14.3 Production CSR and corporate reputation

PRCSR is vital a component of every business organisation as this is core and central to the investment into the project. Production levels determine the magnitude and impact of the project on the return on investment (ROI). The production line of the organisation is the reason for the investment, and this also has an impact on the various stakeholders who, in most cases, want to be associated with successful corporates (Chen & Delmas, 2011:789; Waworuntu, Wantah & Rusmanto, 2014:493).

In line with this business, corporations should adhere to operating regulations that ensure sustainability, especially related to the future of the business and society. Measures of sustainability should consider the rate at which resources are consumed by the organisation and the rate at which resources can be regenerated (Crowther & Aras, 2008:14; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146). For example, the mining of diamonds in the Marange Communal Area of Manicaland had stakeholders expressing distrust in the operations of the mining companies and the management teams.

Reports estimate that more than 2 billion dollars realised out of Marange diamond sales between 2012 and 2013 disappeared amid outrageous salaries and benefits for executive

officers running diamond mining ventures. Reliable sources indicate that there was a massive accumulation of wealth by executives of these mining ventures, and some of them were suspected of having channelled huge financial resources realised from Marange diamond sales to multiple private business investments (Centre for Research and Development Report, 2014:4; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146). From the production trends, stakeholders are exposed to a myriad of issues upon which their reputations are built. This view of reputation is built as an aggregate concept (single reputation) or as a segregated concept (multiple reputations) stakeholder view of reputation, which suggests that a company's various stakeholder groups view issues in isolation and look at different signals likely to result in stakeholder specific reputations (Tuck, 2012:3). Several studies have indicated that reputation can influence production as investors are attracted to companies with a positive reputation (Soewarno & Maharan, 2018:11; Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146; Chen & Delmas, 2011:789; Mishra & Suar, 2010:582). Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₃: There is a significant positive relationship between PRCSSR and corporate reputation

4.14.4 Environment CSR and corporate reputation

The ENCSR is a key CSR component and is viewed as an important resource. It plays host to numerous business ventures (Jitaree, 2016:246). The business organisations' operations have effects on both the external and internal environment. In this case, it must be recognised that the internal environment is where the business entity operates, while the societal environment is where the organisation is located. Business operations bring about changes to the environment through land degradation, which is any change or disturbance perceived to be deleterious or undesirable; that is, the reduction of the capacity of the environment to meet social and ecological objectives and needs. The primary cause of environmental degradation is a human disturbance (Tyagi, Garg & Paudel, 2014:1491). In the same vein, environmental disturbances may be through depletion of resources such as air, water and soil, leading to any change or disturbance perceived to be deleterious or undesirable (Samimi, Ahmadpour & Ghaderi, 2012:503).

In this context, stakeholders expect the business organisations to plough back to the communities through sustainable programmes. These programmes are viewed as mitigating changes that affect the environment. This encompasses the land, plants, water bodies, livestock, living organisms (ecological system), habitats and the natural resources endowed in

communities. Tyagi *et al.*, 2014: 1491 assert that business ventures are one human activity that is a destructive development where ecology suffers at the altar of economic prosperity.

Thus, in line with this, stakeholders expect business organisations to be involved in the maintenance of the environment through land reclamation, awareness and sustainable programmes for the benefit of future generations. These expectations could have been built through aggregated or segregated reputations about the participation or non-participation of business organisations in environment sustenance programmes. As highlighted earlier, several studies have confirmed raised assertions (El-Mallah, el Hamid Aref & Sherif, 2019:23; Cronje Chenga & Reyneke, 2017:8; Kilian & Hennigs, 2014:79; Mgbame & Ilaboya, 2013:447) Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₄: There is a significant positive relationship between ENCSR and corporate reputation.

4.14.5 Ethical CSR and corporate reputation

ETCSR is another key component of business and focuses on consequences of actions measured against values such as happiness, welfare, high productivity and expansion (Harrison & Wicks, 2013:101). In line with this, ethics is viewed as the branch of philosophy that deals with values relating to human conduct, specifically that human conduct, dealing with the rightness and wrongness of specific actions and the goodness and badness of the motives and outcomes from such actions (Amakobe, 2016:5).

Business organisations are expected to act ethically when conducting business. This ethics perspective gives both the business organisation and stakeholders leverage to ascertain the wrongs and rights that management teams can commit. For example, capital-intensive projects like those in the mining sector deface the environment and cause such social ills as pollution. It is incumbent upon the business organisation to work towards alleviating such occurrences to do well for society. In agreement with this view, Salechi, Saeidinia and Aghaei (2012:2) assert that firms and corporations operate in a natural and social environment. By existing in this environment, business organisations are duty-bound to be accountable to the social and natural environment. Several studies have also confirmed this development (Sroka & Szántó, 2018:111; Saunders *et al.*, 2016:242; Tai & Chuang, 2014:117; Amakobe, 2016:5; Enderle, 2015:723; Harrison & Wicks, 2013:101; Trong, 2012:547; Moylan & Walker, 2012:1). Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₅: There is a significant positive relationship between ETCSR and corporate reputation.

4.14.6 Social CSR and corporate reputation

The SOCSR construct is of paramount importance because it denotes the living standards of society. SOCSR focuses on the socio-economic and political status of the people (Javed, Rashid & Hussain, 2017:1068). These are the people's relations with their past and present and the environment, including their cultural beliefs and religion. On this basis, business organisations that promote the social fabric of communities that host them emerge as beneficiaries of workers' loyalty and the general populace. Thus, CSR is synonymous with corporate conscience or responsible business promoting philanthropy for social development (Chernev & Blair, 2015:1413; Muhammad, 2018:23).

According to recent and past research, corporate reputation has a significant contribution to the long-term competitive advantages of business organisations as there are strategic success factors (Vitezić, 2012:87). These factors are built around the reputation of the organisation based on stakeholders' perceptions. Vitezić (2012:87) further reiterates that some of these perceptions are drawn from the organisation's disclosure of financial position, governance mechanism and contributions to the well-being of the environment and its inhabitants. Several other studies have acknowledged the foregoing (Muhammad, 2018:23; Phiri, Mantzari, & Gleadle, 2018:471; Javed, Rashid & Hussain, 2019:1068). Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₆: There is a significant positive relationship between SOCSR and corporate reputation

4.14.7 Corporate reputation and economic performance

Corporate reputation is argued to generate positive attention from stakeholders stemming from various strategic interactions. For example, a business organisation may engage the surrounding communities to improve health and educational facilities. Through such interventions, a business organisation charms up to stakeholders in the process of gaining a good reputation. Vitezić (2012:88) asserts that despite a good reputation, integrating financial, environmental and social performance into the "triple bottom line" reporting system helps them increase revenues and profitability. It is this aspect that spurs the organisation to attract investors, expansion and growth. When the organisation is treading on an economically sound turf, it follows that its reputation with stakeholders is anchored on good recommendations. Vitezić (2012:91) further agrees that the economic business aspect is the most important in evaluating a business, especially when the organisation is involved in CSR. Several studies have accented to this assertion (Alhammedi, 2018:1; Makanyeza, Chitambara & Kakava,

2018:155; Giannarakis, Konteos, Zafeiriou & Partalidou, 2016:171; Kim, Hur & Yeo, 2015:3683; Shungu, Ngirande & Ndlovu, 2014:93). This translates to good returns for shareholders and improved economic performance. Based on the above, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H7: There is a significant positive relationship between corporate reputation and economic performance

4.14.8 Corporate reputation and operational performance

Although CR is an intangible attribute, it has effects on how a business organisation operates. For example, a business entity with positive corporate reputation attributes stimulates workers' morale. The high esteem usually translates to operational efficiency as workers strive to maintain gained corporate reputation attributes. Hasan and Yun (2017:56) highlight that, despite gaining consumer loyalty through corporate reputation, business organisations enhance employees' self-esteem as this affects their social identity. Furthermore, the duo opines that this increases job satisfaction making the employees more committed to the organisation's ethos. This translates to improving the organisation's operational performance as employees commit themselves to maintaining the set standards (Hadli, 2017:10). It is these operational modalities of organisations that leave a lasting impression on stakeholders. For instance, the way business organisations handle customers in meeting consumer expectations is vital to gaining customer loyalty. Consumers' focus is mainly on the quality of goods and services offered. Vitezić (2012:91) emphasises that the most significant indicator to gain a reputable response is supplying quality products and services. All this points to adherence to laid down standard operating procedures anchored on total quality management at every stage resulting in operational efficiency (Umoh, Amah & Wokocha, 2013:119). This kind of organisational culture earns the organisation a good reputation which has ripple effects on operational efficiency. Several studies have acknowledged this assertion (Azim, Ahmed & Khan, 2015:63; Helm, 2014:22; Jenatabadi, 2015:2; Amah & Baridam, 2012:122; Vitezić, 2012:91). Based on this, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H8: There is a significant positive relationship between corporate reputation and operational performance

4.14.9 Corporate reputation and social performance

Corporate reputation is viewed as the past, present and future perceptions of a business organisation regarding how it conducts its business and, more importantly, how it relates with stakeholders. Given this assertion, business organisations with CSR programmes in place that focused on the triple bottom line were considered socially sensitive. This had to do with the three most valued aspects of CSR: economic, environmental, and social values. Such entities would get instant recognition, which ultimately turns to a positive reputation (Wang, 2013:12). The community “issues” a social licence to operate, although it is an intangible attribute. As part of its appreciation, the organisation initiates social programmes through CSR activities that help the community. Social programmes may come in the form of infrastructure development. This may include road construction, building schools, health centres, or even assisting in the agriculture sector to ensure food security. The existence of such a reciprocal relationship between communities and business organisations constitutes the organisation’s social performance. This win-win symbiotic relationship contributes to the organisation’s reputation. The reputation will eventually affect the perceptions of other stakeholders who will vouch for the goodness of the organisation. Wang (2013:13) further submits that visibility of business organisation activities positively impacts its reputation from stakeholders.

Furthermore, Wang emphasises the importance of high corporate visibility, which is necessary for corporate reputation. If the public is not made aware of a business organisation’s CSR activities, the consequence is unlikely to favour the firm. Therefore, visibility is an indispensable condition for reputation. Several previous studies have supported assertions raised (Carroll & Shabana, 2010:85; Chen & Delmas, 2011:789; Carroll, 2016:1; Belu & Manescu, 2013:2751; Amah & Wokocha, 2013:120;) Based on this, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H₉: There is a significant positive relationship between corporate reputation and social performance

4.15 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CORPORATE REPUTATION IN ZIMBABWE

This section focuses on previous studies carried out in Zimbabwe on corporate reputation. This is because corporate reputation continues to gain mileage to gain a competitive advantage among local business organisations. As a result, this has attracted the attention of several scholars who have undertaken studies the world over. Zimbabwean researchers have also

joined the wagon to get a deeper understanding of this concept. Thus, this section refers to corporate reputation studies done in Zimbabwe.

Rusike (2015) conducted research examining how CSR can influence or contribute to corporate reputation. The study was conducted using Delta Beverages Zimbabwe. The research work established that there is value in implementing CSR initiatives that, in turn, influence perceived positive corporate reputation. Stakeholders ranked CSR as the second most important attribute in developing corporate reputation. Furthermore, the study established that communication with stakeholders is vital to the reputation of business organisations.

Another study on corporate reputation was carried out by Makovere and Ngirande (2016:413), focusing on the impact of CSR on corporate competitive advantage on Zimbabwean-listed companies. The study established that a company's good reputation in society and among social, political, and economic decision-makers has become a major source of competitive edge. The duo argues that a good reputation unquestionably forms the most priceless asset of a business organisation. Furthermore, the scholars point out that, although corporate reputation cannot be purchased, it must be built by investing the necessary resources that stimulate stakeholder interests. In pursuance of the latter notion, the study concluded that one of the major corporate reputation-building concepts is CSR, which has become a central facet of modern business organisations and has been accepted by most business leaders for decades.

4.16 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CORPORATE PERFORMANCE IN ZIMBABWE

This section focuses on previous studies that have been conducted in Zimbabwe on corporate performance with particular reference to factors that provide an enabling environment for success. Shungu, Ngirande and Ndlovu (2014:93) conducted a study on the impact of corporate governance on the performance of commercial banks in Zimbabwe. The study established that corporate governance tenets, if properly implemented, improve the performance of corporates. The tenets take into consideration the relationships that exist between corporates and other stakeholders. The trio points out that the management systems put in place should favour stakeholders who have a long-term impact on the performance of a business organisation.

Another closely related study was carried by Makanyeza *et al.* (2018:155), who focused on the influence of CSR dimensions on business organisations' performance. The study established that employee relations, customer relations, community relations, and investor relations all

positively affect firm performance. This buttresses the main tenets of the stakeholder and social exchange theories that advocate for managing stakeholder interests in exchange for support.

Mlilo and Mabwe (2018:32) also carried a study on CSR and spirituality in the Zimbabwean context. The study explored how corporate sustainability can integrate spirituality and assesses the benefits of spirituality towards corporate performance. In light of this, the study noted that spirituality is the growth of innermost well-being for achieving growth. The guiding philosophy of our inner consciousness pushes individuals to do better and achieve more for the business organisation. Spirituality evades religion's formal and ceremonial meanings; therefore, it is non-denominational, non-hierarchical and non-ecclesiastical. Spirituality is about individuals who perceive themselves as spirited beings whose spirit needs energising at work. The study observed that the spiritual life force of employees is essential for the survival of corporate ethical values and performance.

4.17 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter discussed corporate reputation, performance, hypotheses formulation and previous studies carried out in Zimbabwe on reputation and performance. The chapter began by bringing out an understanding of the two concepts of corporate reputation and corporate performance through analysing local and international literature. The discussion revealed that the two concepts play a pivotal role in uplifting the fortunes of business organisations. In this regard, definitions of the two concepts were derived from the perspective of various scholars. This led to the outline of the determinants of the two concepts. The importance and benefits of corporate reputation and corporate performance were also outlined as far as the overall performance of the business organisations is concerned. All the two concepts thrive on almost similar variables. For example, employee motivation, engagement in social responsibilities, customer satisfaction, quality of product or service stimulates loyalty. Corporate reputation measurement was interrogated, which brought forth factors while performance measurement frameworks like the balanced scorecard were discussed. The last part of the discussion focused on hypotheses formulation based on the research theories. The chapter winds up by citing previous studies carried out in Zimbabwe on performance and reputation.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study focuses on corporate social responsibility, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This chapter offers an in-depth outline of the methodologies used in research in general and this research study in particular. This chapter explicitly reveals the research study's procedures and how the knowledge claims are analysed and evaluated. The chapter discusses research reasoning and philosophies or paradigms, examining the scope of thinking and the guiding philosophy used in the study. Subsequently, the chapter further examines the research approach, design and the time horizon selected for this research. In addition, the review of related literature is followed by the empirical part of the study, where the sampling design is laid out in terms of the target population, sampling frame, sample size, including the approach and techniques employed to find the respondents from the selected mining firms. Furthermore, the chapter deals with other aspects like the data collection instrument and procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations. The chapter unveils all options considered relevant and most suitable to this study.

5.2 RESEARCH REASONING

This section discusses research reasoning based on two ways of acquiring knowledge, namely empiricism and rationalism. Empiricism uses deductive reasoning, while rationalism utilises inductive and abductive reasoning. These three aspects are discussed in some detail regarding how these relate to scientific methods of research. However, research reasoning, also known as scientific reasoning, is a process of thinking logically when formulating judgment and justifying specific positions to reach the intended goals of a study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015:73).

5.2.1 Deductive reasoning

Deductive reasoning is a process of developing predictions and is theory-driven (Creswell, 2014:34). This approach explains the causal relationships between variables and is typically applicable to quantitative studies (Polit & Beck, 2014:43).

This study utilised the deductive reasoning approach, which is compatible with theories used to generate propositions and hypotheses. As such, this study was anchored on the stakeholder and social exchange theories used to test relationships of the proposed hypotheses by either confirming or refuting the proposed relationships between the variables of the study. In this

regard, the selected theories were subjected to rigorous tests through a series of propositions, where these presented the basis of explanation of phenomena, predicted occurrences and enabled them to be controlled (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:146). In other words, the deductive approach begins with theory leading to hypothesis development, observations and conclusions based on generalisations. All this is done through logical arguments and ends with specific conclusions (Walliman, 2015:15).

In addition, Mitchell (2018:104) reiterates that deductive reasoning starts with a hypothesis or general rule that is tested and leads to a specific conclusion if found to be true. Thus, deductive reasoning works from the general to the specific and is sometimes referred to as a "top-down" approach. This is usually used in quantitative scientific research studies. The latter is aligned to this study underpinned on this approach as it tested formulated hypotheses set on the CSR concept with nine variables cited as stakeholder CSR, political CSR, environmental CSR, ethical CSR, social CSR, reputation CSR, production CSR, economic performance CSR, social performance CSR, and operational performance CSR to come up with general conclusions, which confirms or refutes with specific data from the original theories. Figure 5.1 illustrates the deductive reasoning process.

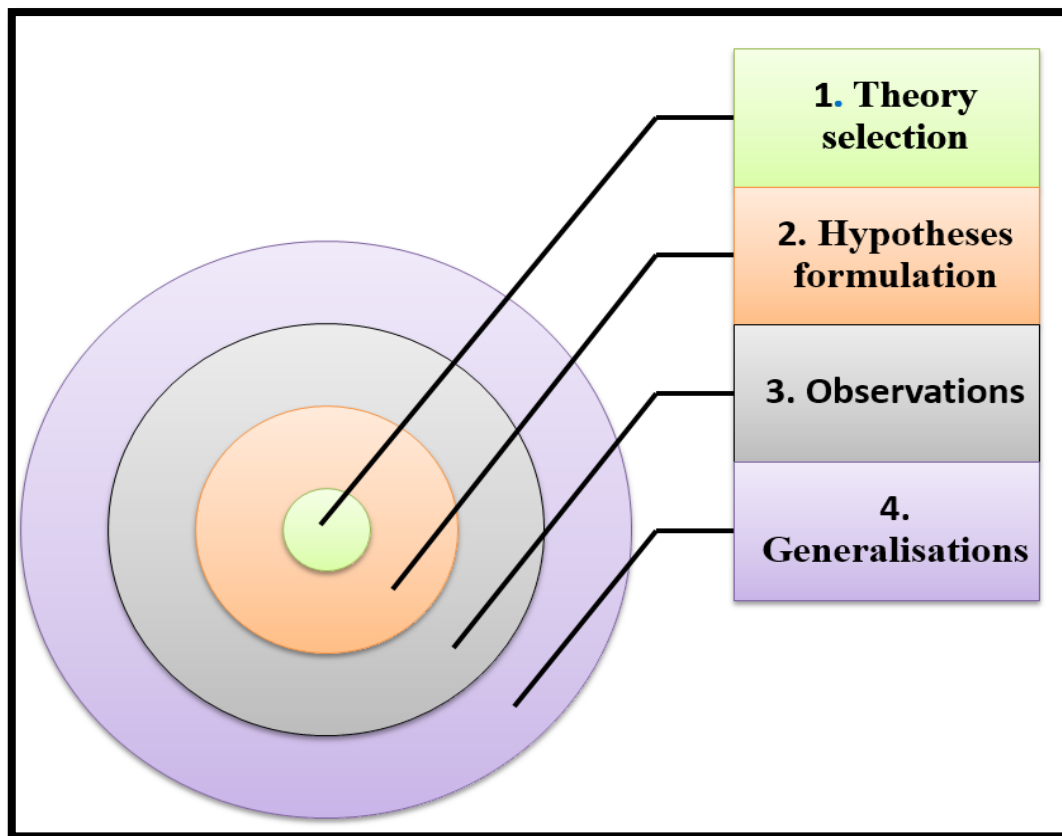


Figure 5.1: Deductive reasoning

Source: Mitchell (2018:104).

5.2.2 Inductive reasoning

The inductive and abductive reasoning approaches are discussed here as alternative approaches to research but were not necessarily applicable to this study. The inductive approach is defined as a process of analysing current evidence and using it to create new theories, and Walliman (2015:15) opines that inductive reasoning starts from specific observations and later derives conclusions from them. Saunders *et al.* (2016:147) highlight that, an inductive approach, theory follows data, rather than vice versa, as is the case with the deductive approach. Mitchell (2018:104) stresses that inductive reasoning has a series of specific observations that lead the researcher to a general conclusion that may be true. Thus, inductive reasoning works inversely with the deductive approach in that it moves from specific observations to broader generalisations and theories. This is sometimes referred to as the "bottom-up" approach. This is because specific observations, measures and regularities lead to the formulation of tentative hypotheses that can be explored. This process usually ends up with the development of conclusions that lead to the formulation of theories.

This approach was deemed unsuitable for this study mainly because it is theory-based as its hypotheses and propositions are based on the theories. In essence, this approach works inversely with the approach used in this study. Secondly, this approach is usually associated with studies that take long periods to accomplish as it begins with observations leading to the generalisations or theory.

5.2.3 Abductive reasoning

The abductive reasoning approach is a derivative of limitations in the deductive and inductive approaches. This approach has elements of creativity where a situation may present credible explanations that may not necessarily possess logical conclusions. McGregor (2014:1) defines abductive reasoning as a logical explanation for some very curious or surprising observation, although the result is unassured. This is further explained as '*best guesses*' given what is known or obtained in a situation. This approach is considered a hybrid approach that borrows from deductive and inductive approaches as it moves back and forth (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:148). Thus, the creative-intuitive nature of abductive reasoning, together with its ability to distinguish between the general and the specific, makes it very suitable for the first phase of research in the formulation and selection of hypotheses and propositions (Awuzie, & McDermott, 2017:356).

In this context, abductive research can be used to formulate hypotheses and propositions as researchers juxtapose possible areas of research to pursue. These can be measured deductively or inductively depending on the nature of research as the process progresses. However, a unique characteristic of the abductive reasoning approach is its ability to fathom phenomena without prior formulated data. Nevertheless, both abductive and inductive reasoning aims to develop a theory, while deductive aims to test or evaluate the theory. Conversely, the distinction between abduction and induction is that abduction seeks to understand phenomena making it more inclined to interpretive research, while induction aims to give generalisations from empirical data. However, this approach is viewed as a means of creating situations based on previous knowledge, giving researchers the latitude to come up with new knowledge powered by inference. (Awuzie & McDermott, 2017:357). The abductive approach was not suitable for this study because it combines both inductive and deductive approaches, while this study was anchored solely on deductive reasoning.

5.3 RESEARCH PARADIGMS/PHILOSOPHIES

This section looks at the research paradigms or philosophies that serve as frameworks that guide researchers in identifying and clarifying their beliefs with regards to ethics, reality, knowledge, and methodology (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:124). Doyle, Brady and Byrne (2016:625) add that paradigms can be viewed as a system of beliefs and practices that influence how researchers select the questions they study and the methods they use to study them. In this regard, research philosophies are regarded as the foundation of a research project and set the tone for the project's rationale in terms of its validity and suitability (Hussein, 2015:312; Hakansson 2013:67). Therefore, several research philosophies are chosen based on the path taken by the researcher, which includes, amongst others: positivism, post-positivism, pragmatism, realism, phenomenology (Henderson, 2011:341; Hakansson, 2013:341; Hussein, 2015:313). The following sections give an insight into the cited paradigms. These paradigms are briefly discussed for comparison purposes and show a range of possible alternatives and suitability to research areas.

5.3.1 The positivist paradigm/philosophy

This study utilised the positivism paradigm, which focuses on observable and measurable facts based on social reality to come up with generalisations (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:135). The positivist paradigm is grounded in what is known in research methods as the scientific method of investigation. This paradigm proposes that experimentation, observation and reason based on experience should be the basis for understanding human behaviour, hence the only legitimate means of extending knowledge and human understanding of reality (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:30). In this regard, the scientific methods involve a process of experimentation that is used to explore observations and answer questions that present problem statements for possible areas of research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:31).

The positivist paradigm is used to search for cause-and-effect relationships in nature. Therefore, it is the preferred worldview for research, which interprets observations in terms of facts or measurable entities (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:32). A notable feature of this paradigm is that research in this context relies on deductive logic, formulation of hypotheses, testing hypotheses, offering operational definitions and mathematical equations, calculations, extrapolations and expressions to derive conclusions. Therefore, the paradigm aims to provide explanations and predictions based on measurable outcomes. Thus, emphasis is on empirical evidence with the capacity to yield pure data and facts that are not prone to bias through the

opinion of interpretation. In this regard, a positivist researcher makes use of existing theories to develop hypotheses. This paradigm thus was more appropriate for this study, as nine hypotheses were developed using the stakeholder and social exchange theories. These hypotheses were eventually tested and confirmed or refuted in part or holistically, drawing up generalisations (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:137).

5.3.2 Post-positivism

This paradigm is developed by the positivists who assume that reality is fixed, measurable and knowable with one truth and one external reality (Rubin & Rubin, 2012:14). The post-positivists dominated the 20th Century and assumed that reality changes continuously and can be indirectly known through people's interpretations. This group accepts the possibility that there are multiple versions of reality (Hashemnezhad, 2015:54). Hashemnezhad adds that post-positivism assumes that human nature is complex and multidimensional as it seeks to understand people's social-cultural contexts. Furthermore, post positivists opine that maintaining the certainty that absolute truth is discoverable through science is untenable in today's world because knowledge is fallible and shaped by contextual influences (Levers, 2013:3). This made the paradigm not suitable for this study.

5.3.3 Phenomenology

According to Qutoshi (2018:215), phenomenology in research is a philosophy that provides a theoretical guideline to researchers to understand phenomena at the level of subjective reality. Qutoshi adds that this philosophical framework or the subjective theory of reality plays a key role in understanding the actor or the subject regarding a particular event or a phenomenon relating to life experiences. In the human domain, this translates typically into gathering information and views through inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions, participant observation and representing it from the perspective of the research participants (Lester, 1999:1). Thus, phenomenology is appropriate for understanding subjective experience, giving insights into people's drives and activities, cutting across a clutter of taken-for-granted presumptions and standard ways of thinking. This makes it more inclined to a qualitative approach.

Considering this, phenomenological approaches are based on subjective personal knowledge that emphasises the importance of personal perspective and interpretation. The subjective nature of the paradigm and the absence of hypotheses or preconceptions make it inappropriate

for this study. It is ideal for researchers that need more time and resources. This study was based on a quantitative approach where numerical data was analysed, measured, and generalisations made.

5.3.4 Realism

Realism follows in the quantitative methodology, whose paradigm is premised on the objectivism perspective. Sarantakos (2010:30) says realism is a doctrine that universals are objective and have absolute existence. Sarantakos adds that matter is the object of perception that transcends the human mind's analytical capacity. Any propositions are assessed on their truth and reality. Thus, perception of reality is objective, straightforward and fixed. This is not suitable for this study as it is influenced by the use of multiple research methods to get valid results. This study utilised positivism which is typically deductive, highly structured with large samples using quantitative methods of analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:136).

5.3.5 Pragmatism

Pragmatism as a paradigm has its philosophy anchored on action. This is aptly explained by Kaushik and Walsh (2019:3) assert that pragmatism is derived from the Greek word 'pragma', which means 'action', a central concept to pragmatism. The duo adds that the pragmatist philosophy holds that human actions can never be separated from previous experiences and beliefs directly resulting from these past experiences. Thus, human thoughts are innately linked to actions. Morgan (2013:7) concurs and opines that, in the pragmatism philosophy, knowledge comes from acting and learning from the outcomes. On this principle, people take actions based on the possible consequences of their actions and use the results of their actions to predict the outcome of similar actions in the future. A primary contention of pragmatist philosophy is that meaning of human actions and beliefs is found in their consequences.

Morgan (2013:8) further emphasises that within pragmatism. In this regard, the inquiry is viewed as an attempt to find new knowledge by taking action and experiencing the consequences. Thus, individuals get in contact with new or unfamiliar situations that fall outside the existing knowledge in such situations. This compels one to take relevant or suitable action to extend knowledge about the encountered new situations as this will assist when one encounters similar situations in the future.

The present study is based on the positivist paradigm, as it deals with specific concepts and focuses on the objective and quantifiable evidence, which is highly relevant to this research.

This study focuses on specific research constructs, which are the main thrust of this study set to determine the proposed relationships between the research constructs (corporate social responsibility and political influence; stakeholders management best practices in CSR; the best practices in environmental management in CSR; the influence of CSR in production; ethics and CSR; firm reputation and implications on social, economic and operational performance) which merges well with the positivism paradigm. Thus, it was befitting that this research fell within this paradigm as it relied on deductive logic, formulation of hypotheses, testing the hypotheses, offering operational explanations and extrapolations to derive conclusions, thereby satisfying the condition of the positivist paradigm. This made pragmatism unsuitable for this research because of the multiplicity of possibilities to achieve the research goals, and it was also considered time-consuming.

5.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

There are methodological choices that a researcher must make when conducting a research study, and these include quantitative approach, qualitative approach, or mixed methods that correspond with the study's problem, research questions and research sample. Saunders *et al.* (2016:164) highlight that each option is likely to call for a different mix of options to achieve coherence in the chosen research approach. This study made use of the quantitative approach, which is differentiated from qualitative by numeric data. In this way, 'quantitative' is often a synonym for any data collection technique, such as a questionnaire or data analysis procedure such as graphs or statistics that generate or use numerical data (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:165). Gray, Grove and Sutherland (1987:134) note that quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic process in which numerical data is utilised to obtain information about the world used to describe and test relationships in the process of examining cause-and-effect relationships. The mixed-method inquiry is the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches which provides a complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Creswell, 2014:33; Bryman, 2016:145).

The present study was based on the quantitative approach. This approach was chosen because the current study intended to test the relationships between CSR and stakeholders, the environment, ethics, production, social performance, reputation and economic performance and as a result, nine hypotheses were used for testing these relationships. Moreover, the quantitative approach was selected since it could deduce results that could be generalized to

other contexts. In this case, it was expected that the study results could be generalized to other contexts of mining corporations throughout Zimbabwe.

5.5 TIME HORIZON

Time horizon in research relates to the time framework within which the project is intended for completion (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:164). In this regard, there are two types of time horizons, namely, the cross-sectional and the longitudinal. The cross-sectional time horizon constitutes data collection over a short period, whereas a longitudinal survey involves collecting data over a long period (Hair, 2015:205). The cross-sectional time horizon is dubbed the ‘*snapshot*’ time collection, where the data is collected at a certain point (Flick, 2014:20) and is usually used when the study is concerned with a phenomenon at a specific time.

In contrast, a longitudinal time horizon refers to the collection of data repeatedly over a long period (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010:97). This horizon has the benefit of being used to study change and development issues that stretch for longer periods. Furthermore, it allows the establishment of some control over the variables being studied. The time horizon selected is not dependent on a specific research approach or methodology (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:164). This study employed the cross-sectional time horizon on the basis that it enabled the collection of data from respondents only once and provided affordable methods of collecting data over a large sample, as guided by Bryman and Bell (2015:148).

5.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

This section discusses the general plan of how the study is to be undertaken as it responds to the research questions outlined in chapter one. Lewis (2015:75) defines a research design as the process to follow in conducting a study. A research design can be in the form of qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-method approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2017:53). Saunders *et al.* (2016:163) reiterate that research design is the general plan of how one goes about answering the research questions, specifying the sources of data, data collection modalities, how the data is analysed, and any ethical issues. Against this background, this section focuses on the methodological orientation targeting the quantitative approach and positivist paradigm. In this regard, research design refers to the rationale and the philosophical assumptions that underlie a study, where a specific method or technique for data collection is selected aligned to philosophical assumptions (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:164).

Bloomberg and Volpe (2016:34) opine that there are four dominant types of designs associated with quantitative research: the descriptive design, which involves data collection to test hypotheses formulated to answer questions on the subject inquiry. The second type is the correlation study that involves collecting data to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. The third type of design is causal-comparative research, which attempts to determine the cause or reason for existing differences in behaviour or status of groups of individuals. The fourth design is experimental research, which includes actual experiments and less rigorous experiments or quasi-experiments (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016:41). Saunders *et al.* (2016:164) also identified experiments, surveys, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research as strategies employed by researchers in achieving their goals. The present study used the descriptive design since the relationships proposed in the hypotheses were tested. Additionally, the research adopted a survey strategy to achieve the objectives and to enhance accuracy and validity. A survey strategy was suitable as it facilitated the collection of data from many respondents where a questionnaire was used. The survey strategy also allowed the generalisation of the research results to include other similar contexts of mining corporations in Zimbabwe.

5.7 LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review is a vital component of any research study as it provides secondary data for analysis to understand how it relates to the research study. It helps to address such research aspects as research objectives, research questions and background to the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015:57). In this study, the literature covered issues such as mining pre-independence and post-independence and its role in Zimbabwe's economy. Furthermore, a literature review played a critical role in acknowledging previous work related to CSR. This is viewed as a methodical process of collecting relevant information and data to substantiate the significance of a specific study (Creswell 2014:57; Bryman & Bell, 2015:120). This provides a theoretical reinforcement of the study through a solid support background to the investigation, which is key to the proper hypotheses formulation and analysis (Sekaran & Bougie 2013:50). The literature review is also considered central to research studies because it limits the drawbacks of research methods and restricts the collection of data to what is substantially worthwhile for the current study (Neuman 2016:67; Dindire & Ioan-Franc, 2012:95). This links the current research to prior efforts and extends it to build on improved understanding. More importantly, the literature review gives snapshots of issues discussed in the preceding chapters. In this

regard, literature review formed an integral part of this study, with chapters 2, 3 and 4 dedicated to reviewing the literature on the predicting, mediating and outcome constructs.

In this study, an in-depth literature review was conducted in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. Chapter 2 focused on the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Some of the issues addressed in this chapter include the composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe, small-scale mining, large-scale mining. The focus was also on the historical background, particularly looking at pre-independence and post-independence mining in Zimbabwe. The impact of the mining sector in Zimbabwe was analysed with a special focus on the economy, social welfare of the general citizenry and the environment.

Chapter 3 discussed the research theories viz, stakeholder and social exchange. The focus was also on the conceptualisation of the CSR concept, particularly on the origins of CSR; the historical progression of the concept was looked at in the various periods of progression up to the present. Issues like the determinants of CSR, benefits, and characteristics were discussed to understand the concept in-depth.

The last chapter on literature focused on corporate reputation, performance and hypothesis formulation based on the theories and the conceptual framework. In addition, research constructs under consideration in this study, i.e. PCSR, SCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR, PRCSR, reputation, SOCSR, economic performance, operational performance and social performance, all received attention. Relevant literature was sourced from both hard copy and online peer-reviewed journals, peer-reviewed books, business magazines, relevant acts, and other government documents. Databases such as Emerald, Science Direct, Sabine and JStor, were used as portals for accessing some of the literature, while some were accessed directly from other credible internet sources.

5.8 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Empirical research pertains to the actual collection of primary data. Empirical research in the present study comprised sampling design, structured questionnaire and the data collection approach and as data analysis approach.

5.8.1 Sampling Design

Sampling design refers to a plan for the numeric description of a population's trends, attitudes, or opinions by studying a sample of that population. It encompasses the population, target population, sample size, sampling frame, sampling approach and sampling techniques and procedures (Feldman *et al.*, 2014:55).

5.8.2 The population of the study

Bertram and Christiansen (2014) define a population as a total number of groups, inhabitants, citizens, people, employees, or organisations included in a study. Furthermore, it refers to the sample that is selected and related to the main research question and objectives (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:275). In this study, the population was composed of junior and senior management personnel and associated professionals in the mining sector in Zimbabwe involved in mineral extraction. Management was selected as it participates in formulating policy direction that the organisation takes largely in terms of strategy. This group had the required information on CSR, which is part of its management tool. Other professionals like artisans, technicians, supporting staff in human resources, safety and health, finance, and procurement are the foot soldiers that are part of the strategy implementing teams also had required information. These were able to give out information on resources allocation, which answers the research question. This specifically points at all measurements of interest to the study totaling 330.

5.8.3 Target population

Target population refers to the complete collection of objects whose description is the major goal of the study (Ott & Rongnecker, 2015:26). This is the actual focus or target of the research inquiry (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:275). Therefore, a target population is a subset of the population and a body of people or a collection of items under consideration for statistical purposes. The target population of this study constituted of people in management and associated professionals in the mining sector organisations within a 200km radius from Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe, which is the country's economic hub.

The target population of this study consisted of the workforce, including management and other supporting associated professionals who are directly and indirectly involved in the strategy formulation and implementation functions. These include managers and associated professionals in marketing, geology, human resources, safety, health and environment, quality assurance, procurement, administration, finance, accounting and extraction. The target

population of management and other professionals was heterogeneously made of people from different organisations, qualifications, ages, and experiences. The targeted population was 330 inclusively.

5.8.4 Sample frame

A sampling frame refers to a list or frame that identifies every member (element) of the population under consideration in a study (DiGaetano, 2013:230). The sample frame used in this study comprised the names of mining corporations in Zimbabwe within the 200km radius from Harare, the capital city. The lists of names were obtained from the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development through the mining membership organisation Zimbabwe Chamber of Mines. All mining corporations were deemed to have similar organisational structures. The organisational structure of each mining corporation was composed of the following directorates: The Board of Directors, the CEO or Managing Director, Head Corporate Affairs, Human Resources Director, Technical Director, Quality Assurance Manager, Chief Operations Officer, Internal Auditor, Financial Director, Risk and Strategy Manager, Safety Health and Environment Director and Company Secretary/Legal Counselor. A director/manager leads each directorate with deputy/assistant directors/managers and associated professionals. It was anticipated that each company participating in the study would provide lists of its junior, middle and senior managers and associated professionals in each of these directorates. However, this proved to be difficult as most companies indicated that permission to conduct the study was sufficient from their positions; hence they could not provide sensitive data on the actual lists of respondents.

5.8.5 Sample size

Singh and Masuku (2014:6) define a sample as the determination by the researcher of the number of participants that can be feasibly included in a statistical sample. The sample size is viewed as the number of units used in the sample for the study (Sarmah & Hazarika, 2012:55; Desu & Raghuvarao, 2012:1). In this study, a total of 330 participants were used based on the historical sampling technique. Previous studies on CSR in Zimbabwe (Chiunya, Mhembwe & Dube, 2017:7; Maligana & Phiri, 2017:505; Moyo & Mabhena, 2014:11; Dziro, 2014:61; Mandina *et al.*, 2014:157) used sample sizes ranging between 100 and 500 respondents.

The sample size of this study is set at $n=330$ respondents. This sample size was derived after conducting a benchmark using the historical studies (Sarmah & Hazarika, 2012:56). The average sample size for these combined studies is 300. Small samples limit the statistical

significance of the results; therefore, the larger the sample size, the higher the probability of detecting statistical significance (Filho, Paranhos, Rocha, Batista, Da Silva, Santos & Marino, 2013:35). Therefore, the larger the sample size, the better it will represent the population.

5.8.6 Sampling techniques

According to Berndt and Petzer (2013:7899), sampling is viewed as the process of choosing a sample with the view of concluding on the population selected. From another perspective, sampling is a statistical process of selecting a subset of a population of interest to make observations and statistical inferences about that population under study (Bhattacharjee, 2012:65). In this regard, two distinct sampling techniques can be employed, i.e. probability or representative sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is defined as a technique used to identify a specific sample (objects or people) of a targeted population to be used in a survey (Nugent 2010:5; Saunders *et al.*, 2016:276). Furthermore, the selection of the sample is based on the principle of random chance (Stimpson & Farquharson, 2015:238).

On the other hand, non-probability sampling is considered a judgment-based approach of selecting a sample on a convenience basis (Wiśniowski, Sakshaug, Perez Ruiz & Blom, 2020:120). Any general statements made as a result of this sampling method should be carefully analysed to bring out desired results, mindful of the research context (Stimpson & Farquharson, 2015:238). Figure 5.2 illustrates sampling techniques under probability and non-probability sampling.

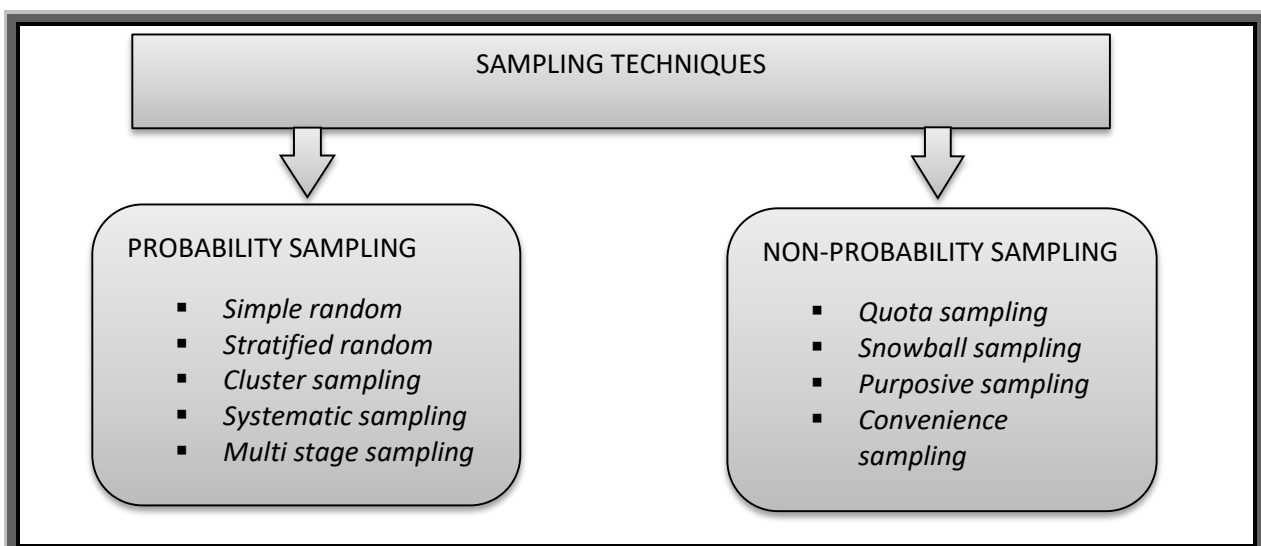


Figure 5.2: Sampling Techniques
Source: Taherdoost (2016:20).

Figure 5.2 shows the sampling techniques that can be employed for a research study to be undertaken successfully. Five sampling techniques under probability sampling and four under non-probability are briefly outlined, as shown in the diagram (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:284).

5.8.6.1 Probability sampling

Probability sampling (representative sampling) is usually associated with survey research strategies where inferences are made from the population to answer research questions and meet set objectives (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:276). The following explains sampling techniques used under this sampling method:

- **Simple random sampling** (random sampling) involves selecting the sample at random from the sampling frame using either a computer or a random number table. Each member of the target population has an equal chance of being included in the sample.
- **Systematic random sampling** (systematic sampling) is selecting the sample at regular intervals from the sampling frame. For example, every *n*th item is selected until the required sample is obtained. This could be every 10th customer or object.
- **Stratified random sampling** is a modification of random sampling where the target population is divided into two or more groups, referred to as strata or layers of the population based on one or more attributes. This can be based on gender, class, or age.
- **Cluster Sampling/Multi-stage (Cluster Sampling or Multi-Stage)** is a development of cluster sampling, usually used to overcome problems associated with a geographically dispersed population when face-to-face contact is required. This could come in the form of focusing on one town or region to reduce costs (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:301; Stimpson & Farquharson, 2015:237).

5.8.6.2 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling (non-random sampling) provides a range of alternative techniques to select samples, but most cases include an element of subjective judgment. This is, however, appropriate for testing a questionnaire (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:293). The following are some examples of non-probability sampling.

- **Quota sampling** is entirely non-random and is often used for structured interviews as part of the survey strategy.
- **Purposive sampling** allows the researcher to come up with informed decisions or judgment to select a population that best answers research questions and meet the demands of objectives (Judgemental sampling). This is usually used on sample a size

that gives the desired information. The logic is that the chosen sample is based on the research questions and objectives.

- **Snowball Sampling** is used where participants are volunteered rather than being chosen. It is usually used when it is difficult to identify the desired population. An example is when the first respondent refers to a friend who then refers to another, leading to another in the process.
- **Convenience Sampling** (availability sampling) falls under haphazard sampling, where the sample is selected with clear-cut rules about the research. Members of the population are chosen based on availability. (vox pop). Sampling friends or fellow workers fall in this category. Usually, bias influences are beyond the researcher's control (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:301; Stimpson & Farquharson, 2015:240).

5.8.6.3 Sampling procedure and technique for the study

The preceding section discussed available techniques that can be used in research for both probability and non-probability sampling. This study employed non-probability sampling anchored on convenience and purposive sampling techniques. This was because some of the mining corporations earmarked to participate in the study declined to participate. As a result, those that participated were selected using convenience sampling. Convenience sampling refers to drawing a sample from that part of the population close to hand, readily available and easily accessible to provide the required information (Bhattacharjee, 2012:65).

Also, the study involved numerous mining corporations, making it difficult to obtain a single sampling frame from which respondents could be identified and selected. Furthermore, purposive sampling was chosen as a strategy in which particular settings and persons were deliberately selected to provide information that could not be obtained from other sources (Polit, & Beck, 2014:179; Taherdoost, 2016:23). Other reasons for the choice were based on the strength of the technique to provide answers to research questions and meet the demands of the research objectives. In this particular instance, the selection of respondents was based on their knowledge and experience with mining activities. The heterogeneous composition of the sample, with diverse characteristics, produced the variation needed in the data collected. The collected data was described, analysed and explained based on aspects that could be generalised. Most importantly, this technique was suitable because the research study has timelines for completion with reasonable cost and convenience (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:301; Stimpson & Farquharson, 2015:240).

5.9 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

In the present study, data collection was done using a survey questionnaire as this is mainly used in conducting quantitative research, where the researcher wants to profile the sample in terms of numbers. For example, in this study, a sample of specific people in management was used to establish the frequency of opinions, attitudes, experiences, processes, behaviours, or predictions (Rowley, 2014:309). This was achieved through a list of carefully structured questions chosen after considerable testing to elicit reliable responses from the targeted group of people. The decision to use the questionnaire was influenced by several factors, including reaching out to each targeted respondent, avoiding respondents' answers being contaminated or distorted, the sample size, nature and the types of the questions (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:170). In this study, a questionnaire was deemed suitable since a large predetermined sample size of $n=330$ was required to satisfy the sample-size requirements for quantitative research. The major advantage of questionnaires was that it was easier to obtain responses from a large sample size, and the data gathered could therefore be seen to generate more generalisable findings (Rowley, 2014:310).

A questionnaire may be structured with either open-ended or close-ended questions. Closed questions are quick for respondents (which may increase response rate), and the responses to closed questions are easier to code and analyse, which is particularly important and suitable for this study as the number of questionnaires is considered quite large. On the other hand, open-ended questions help collect more in-depth insights, allowing respondents to use their language to express their views. However, this is more time-consuming to complete and analyse; hence it can only be used as the best option. This study used closed-ended questions that allowed analysis of findings and generalisation (Rowley, 2014:311).

Respondents were restricted to indicating their answers to the structured questions provided in the survey questionnaire. However, emphasis was placed on the design of the questionnaire, as questions were logically structured. This was done to avoid affecting respondents' willingness to answer the questionnaire if structured haphazardly. If the early questions are confusing and time-consuming, the respondents may refuse to participate in the study.

Given this, the questionnaire was designed systematically to ensure that respondents understood the questions and provided the required information easily. The questionnaire was self-administered, as respondents completed it by themselves without assistance. As such, the

research questionnaire used in this study was structured into seven sections comprised of closed-ended questions.

Section A

This section was comprised of six questions eliciting demographic information on the profile of the respondents. The questions elicited information on gender, age group, highest educational qualifications, employment period, occupational area and position in the Mining Corporation.

Section B

Section B had four questions to solicit information on the organisation. These questions brought out the organisational profile specifically targeting to solicit information on the number of employees in the organisation, number of years the organisation has been in existence, type of mineral mined and approximate turnover per annum.

Section C

Section C of the questionnaire was comprised of 9 variables coded C1 to C9 that relate to CSR, namely; political CSR; stakeholder CSR; production CSR; environmental CSR; ethical CSR; social CSR; economic performance CSR; operational performance CSR and social performance CSR to solicit responses on corporate social responsibility and how it influences to organisational reputation and performance.

Sub-Section C1

Political CSR was measured using six measurement items drawn from various studies, as shown in the table below. For this variable measurement, scales were adopted from studies by El-Bassiouny and Letmathe (2019:745). The study constructs had a reliability value ranging from 0.78 to 0.92, above the critical value of 0.7, revealing an acceptable internal consistency of construct measurement. This is supported by a study conducted by El-Shirodkar, Beddewela and Richter (2018:673), which showed that political instability and uncertainty significantly affect CSR. Gorostidi-Martinez and Zhao (2017:375) also had a study on corporate political strategies and how these impact the stakeholders. The specific details regarding the PCSR scale are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Details for the Political CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
PCSR 1	Our firm is involved in organising community-based political programmes	El-Bassiouny and Letmathe (2019:745)	Manufacturing Sector in Egypt	0.92
PCSR 2	Our firm helps in raising awareness of political developments			
PCSR 3	Our firm supports activities organised by civil society groups			
PCSR 4	Our firm has a good working relationship with the government through honest disclosure of its activities.			
PCSR 5	Our firm has good working relations with local authorities			
PCSR 6	Our firm has support from the government through its philanthropic work			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C2

This section focused on stakeholder CSR was measured by seven questions adopted from studies by Mishra and Suar (2010:313). Measurement scales from this study were used because of their relevance and suitability to the current study. The study focused on the correlation of stakeholder management strategy and CSR, which indicated that a more favourable strategy towards the needs of stakeholders increased the corresponding CSR response towards stakeholder concerns. A 0.78 Cronbach alpha reliability value confirmed suitability revealing an acceptable internal consistency of construct measurement. The specific details regarding the stakeholder CSR scale are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Details for the Stakeholder CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
SCSR 1	Our firm has a good relationship with its suppliers	Mishra and Suar (2010:313)	Manufacturing Asia; India	0.78
SCSR 2	Our firm has respectable business relations with its customer			
SCSR 3	Our firm priorities employee training needs			
SCSR 4	Our firm employs locals from surrounding communities			
SCSR 5	Our management consults the board of directors before making decisions			
SCSR 6	Our firm addresses customer complaints promptly			
SCSR 7	Our firm is concerned with local community programs			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C3

Production CSR was measured using seven (7) questions adopted from the previous measurement scale validated by Soewarno (2018:11), whose composite reliability test value of 0.7 is acceptable and suitable for this study. This is supported by Mishra and Suar (2010:582) in another similar study. The scale proved to be reliable through a Cronbach alpha reliability value of 0.89, revealing an acceptable internal consistency of construct measurement, hence suitable for this study. The specific details regarding the production CSR scale are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Details for the Production CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
PRCSR 1	Our production trends are increasing upwards	Soewarno (2018:11)	Industry and commerce. Indonesia, Asia Industry & Commerce. India. Asia	0.89
PRCSR 2	Our firm's production processes are ISO certified.			
PRCSR 3	Our production targets are based on strategies adopted by management			
PRCSR 4	Our firm's working environment is of a high standard			
PRCSR 5	Our firm has strict adherence to safety and health regulations			
PRCSR 6	Our firm has business synergies that have improved production			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C4

Environmental CSR was measured through six (6) questions adopted from El-Mallah, el Hamid Aref, and Sherif (2019:23). The scales of measurement used were considered reliable, valid and suitable for this study with a Cronbach alpha reliability value of 0.91, which is above the recommended critical value of 0.7, revealing an acceptable internal consistency of construct measurement as indicated in the table. The specific details regarding the environmental CSR scale are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Details for the Environmental CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
ENCSR 1	Our firm is involved in environmental awareness programmes	El-Mallah, el Hamid Aref, and Sherif, (2019:23).	Chemical Manufacturing Industry, Egypt, Africa	0.91
ENCSR 2	Our firm assists communities to take care of the environment.			
ENCSR 3	Our firm initiates environment sustainability programmes			
ENCSR 4	Our organisation strictly adheres to environmental laws and regulations			
ENCSR 5	Our firm has waste disposal management policies			
ENCSR 6	Our firm organises community-based conservation programmes.			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C5

Tai and Chaung (2014:117) address ethical CSR using seven questions whose measurement scales are congruent with the current study. The measurement scales' reliability was validated through a Cronbach alpha of 0.7. In another study by Sroka and Szántó (2018:111), the measurement scales indicate a similar trend with the current study. The specific details regarding the ethical CSR scale are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Details for the Ethical CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
ETCSR 1	Our firm is known for honesty, fairness and integrity.	Tai and Chuang (2014:117)	Commerce: Multinational Enterprises: Asia, Taiwan	0.70
ETCSR 2	Our firm employs fair labour practices			
ETCSR 3	Our firm adheres to laid down procurement procedures			
ETCSR 4	Our firm spends a significant percentage of its profits on community development.			
ETCSR 5	Our firm is an equal opportunity employer			
ETCSR 6	Our firm is guided by the labour laws of the country.			
ETCSR 7	Our firm uses the least harmful processes to protect people and wildlife			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C6

Social CSR is addressed using six questions drawn from Javed, Rashid and Hussain, (2019:1068). The measurement scales used were found to be suitable and relevant to this study based on the Cronbach alpha reliability test value of 0.89, revealing an acceptable internal consistency of construct measurement. This was supported by Phiri, Mantzari and Gleadle (2018:2) in another study where the measurement scales used were found to be also suitable for this study. The specific details regarding the social CSR scale are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Details for the Social CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
PCSR 1	Our firm promotes employee motivation.	Javed, Rashid and Hussain (2019:1068)	Industry and Commerce in Asia (Pakistan)	0.89
PCSR 2	Our firm invests in employee welfare and motivation			
PCSR 3	Our firm has attractive remuneration packages			
PCSR 4	Our firm's social responsibility programmes are designed in consultation with the community			
PCSR 5	Our firm donates in cash or kind into surrounding local communities as a gesture of social support			
PCSR 6	Our firm participates in social change programmes			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C7

This section focuses on economic performance CSR using six questions drawn from previous studies by Cao, Schniederjans, Ching Gu and Schniederjans (2019:22), highlighting that CSR is defined as any activity that guarantees cash flow sufficient to ensure liquidity while producing a persistent above-average return to shareholders. This includes: emphasising long-term economic performance CSR through exploiting market opportunities producing persistent superior returns reducing the costs of inputs for the same level of outputs differentiating the product/process. This is supported by Gavrea, Ilies and Stegorean (2011:286), and Sharabati (2011:566) studies.

Economic performance CSR relates to maximising profits, keeping strict control over costs, ensuring long-term financial success, shareholder value creation. This is underlined by competitive and market gains (Pe´rez & Bosque, 2014:5). This is in line with the hypotheses raised in this study. The specific details regarding the economic performance CSR scale are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Details for the Economic Performance CSR Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
EP 1	Our firm has increased its profitability.	Cao, Schniederjans, Ching Gu and Schniederjans, (2019:22)	Commerce, USA	0.70
EP 2	Our firm has increased its investments			
EP 3	Our firm has experienced lower capital costs			
EP 4	Our firm has a healthy financial position			
EP 5	Our firm has increased investor confidence			
EP 6	Our firm has experienced a high sales growth			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section C8

This sub-section focuses on operational performance through six questions drawn from Basuony, Elseidi and Mohamed (2014:767), supported by Kujala, Rehbein, Toikka and Enroth (2013:142), whose focus is on profitability anchored on cost savings which stimulate competitive advantage. The thrust is also on minimising environmental and social risks by recognising stakeholders' input who subsequently render the organisation the licence to operate. Transparency to stakeholders is also achieved through social responsibility reporting. The suitability of measurement scales selected is based on the reliability test based on Cronbach alpha value range of 0.7 to 0.93. The specific details regarding operational scales are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Details for the Operational Performance Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
OP 1	Our firm has reduced operational costs.	Basuony, Elseidi and Mohamed, (2014:767),	Manufacturing. Egypt, Cairo	0.93
OP 2	Our firm has experienced high operational cash flows.			
OP 3	Our firm has achieved low unit material consumption			
OP 4	Our firm's operations are open to all stakeholders			
OP 5	Our firm's board of directors are guided by corporate governance principles			

Source: Compiled by Author

Sub-Section 9

Social performance is addressed by six questions drawn from Yin and Min Fong (2016:9), supported by Chen and Delmas (2011:789) and Fernando (2013:303) from a previous study whose measurement scales are relevant to the current study. A reliability test based on the Cronbach alpha range of 0.64-0.77 revealed an acceptable internal consistency of construct measurement. The specific details regarding the social performance scale are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Details for the Social Performance Scale

Item Code	Item Description	Source (s)	Sector and place where scales applied	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)
SP1	Our firm has long term plans for social development	Chen Kai Yin and Haga Cher Min Fong , (2016:9), Chen and Delmas, (2011:789)	Commerce & ICT USA Silicon Valley & Taiwan	0.77
SP 2	Our firm involves the community in outsourcing material and consumables			
SP 3	Our firm works with other development			

	partners in improving social amenities	Mehrpooya and Chowdhury (2018:227)		
SP 4	Our firm discloses its social responsibility programmes in the media			
SP 5	Our firm's participation in social development programmes is based on a fixed budget			
SP 6	Our firm engages in social change programmes as part of its social responsibility			

Source: Compiled by Author

5.10 Response Options

Response options used in sections C from sub-section C1 to C9 of the questionnaire were presented in a Likert-type scale, a psychometric and bipolar scale that measures both positive and negative responses in questionnaires (Derrick & White, 2018:71; Hartley, 2014:85). This type of scale was used in this study due to its compatibility with questionnaires and its ability to measure the opinions and attitudes of respondents (Hartely 2014:83). A Likert-type scale reduces bias amongst the respondents allowing standardisation and comparability of questions. This also allows for easy coding and analysis of questions (Elliott, 2018:2850). In this study, a seven-point symmetric Likert-type scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree was employed.

The median '4' position on the scale was labeled as 'neutral' to allow respondents the independence to state their views regarding items on the questionnaire without being subjectively forced to take either the negative or positive position. A seven-point scale was preferred ahead of a five-point scale as it enables the collection of a broader spectrum of responses (Elliott, 2018:2052).

5.11 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

There are various methods of distributing questionnaires, and each of them has advantages and disadvantages, among the methods, including emails, postal service, telephone, drop and collect, group-administered and online surveys. In this study, questionnaires were distributed to selected mines within a 200km radius from Harare, Zimbabwe's economic hub and capital city. Two methods were employed in distributing questionnaires. The first one was the drop

and collect method, which involved the face-to-face distribution and collection of hard copies of the questionnaires to and from the respondents. The questionnaires were delivered to the respective workstations of the respondents. The second method has involved the use of e-mail. E-mail questionnaires were sent to some of the respondents who could not be easily reached. E-mail addresses for such respondents were collected from their departments and used as a reference point for contacting them. After completing the questionnaire, respondents were requested to resubmit the questionnaires online, back to the researcher.

As suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2019:76), the rate of return can be increased by considering the timing, ensuring that the questionnaire distribution period is convenient for your respondents, areas for response adequately and indicated. Motivating potential respondents can be achieved by providing reasons for the study. Respondents were given two weeks to complete the questionnaires, and the collection date was indicated on the cover page of each questionnaire.

5.12 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Data from Section A of the questionnaire, which sought to establish the selected respondents' demographic details, were analysed using descriptive statistics. Other sections with data that tested hypotheses were analysed using inferential statistics. The Statistical Package Social Sciences (SPSS Version 26.0) was used in the statistical analysis. Measurements adopted from the previous studies were tested using the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to test for scale accuracy. Relationships between the research constructs were tested using the Pearson correlation, while regression analysis enabled the researcher to analyse relationships between independent and dependent variables. Thus, regression analysis contributes to understanding how the value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied while the other independent variables remain constant.

5.12.1 Data Preparation

Data preparation is an exercise done when all data has been collected. This is done primarily to prepare data for analysis. The first stage of data preparation involves converting data from questionnaires into a format that can be readily and accurately analysed to meet current research needs (Saldaña, 2015:33). Data preparation is crucial because it ensures that only accurate data is entered into the analysis system. Furthermore, this allows for corrective action to address

any remaining anomalies in the data before the actual analysis is undertaken. During this study, three data preparation techniques were employed, namely data editing, coding and cleansing.

5.12.2 Data editing

After all data has been captured, it is then edited as a quality control process in which the collected data is assessed for any anomalies (De Waal, Pannekoek & Scholtus, 2011:1). Common variances that may be found during this process include omissions, inconsistencies, incompleteness, illegibility, among other errors that may be identified. In this study, each completed questionnaire was assessed for completeness. This was intended to pick errors and correct identified variances in the most suitable way.

5.12.3 Data coding

Data coding is a technical procedure of assigning numeric codes to responses to a question (Saldana, 2015:34). In this study, the collected questionnaires were numbered and recorded. For instance, in this study, 330 questionnaires were distributed, and each questionnaire was allocated a specific and unique number ranging between 1 and 330. Additionally, all responses to questions were allocated a specific code. For example, the gender variables 'male' and 'female' were coded as; '1' and '2', respectively. This meant that codes 1 and 2 were reserved for this gender aspect only. The process of allocating codes was done to all questions in the questionnaire (Saldana, 2015:35).

5.12.4 Data cleaning

Data cleaning or cleansing is the process of identifying errors to correct them and increase the quality of collected data. This usually comes after the data has been coded and transmuted into the excel format. This involves eliminating inaccurate and corrupt entries from the data (Azeroual, Saake & Abuosba (2019:15). This ensures that the final data is sufficiently accurate to facilitate objective statistical analysis. Common examples of irregularities are missing entries as a result of human error during data capturing. Another irregularity might be of commission, for example, entering a '6' on a five-point Likert-type scale. To avoid such errors, columns and rows of the excel spreadsheet were checked several times. Identified errors were checked against entries on the numbered questionnaire. Repeat checking was done to ensure error-free entries were analysed.

5.12.5 Tests for normality of data

The normality tests are supplementary to the graphical assessment of normality. The main tests for assessing normality are Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, Lilliefors corrected K-S test, Shapiro-Wilk test, Anderson-Darling test, Cramer-von Mises test, D'Agostino skewness test, Anscombe-Glynn kurtosis test, D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test and the Jarque-Bera test. K-S is much used among these, and the K-S and Shapiro-Wilk tests can be conducted in the SPSS Explore procedure (Analyze → Descriptive Statistics → Explore → Plots → Normality) plots with tests. The tests mentioned above compare the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. The null hypothesis implies that “sample distribution is normal.” If the test is significant, the distribution is non-normal. For small sample sizes, normality tests have little power to reject the null hypothesis and therefore, small samples most often pass the normality tests (Ghasemi & Zahedias, 2012:486). However, in this study, the normality of data was tested using D'Agostino's K-squared test with the aid of the SPSS software as the sample was relatively small and appropriate for this study (Ghasemi & Zahediasi, 2012:487). The D'Agostino's K-squared test, a goodness of fit measure that seeks to determine if a sample is drawn from a normally distributed population, was used to validate outcomes (Ghasemi & Zahediasi, 2012:488). In this test, the sample skewness and kurtosis were computed. Skewness is a measure of the lack of symmetry, while kurtosis determines whether the data is either heavily tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution.

5.12.6 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics involve summarising and organising the data to ensure it is easily understood. These simply describe the distributions/patterns shown by the data. The descriptive statistics applied to the sample under consideration and could not be inferred to the entire population from which the sample was drawn. The descriptive groups applied in this study included frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:134).

5.12.7 Frequencies

Frequencies are a form of descriptive statistics that show the number of times a value occurs in each category of measurement (Carlson & Winqvist, 2014:4). In this study, statistical frequencies were applied in the analysis of the demographic profile of respondents. For example, the frequencies indicated how many scores were either male or female. Secondly, the frequencies were applied in determining the perceptions of respondents towards each research

construct. For example, the frequencies revealed how many respondents agreed or disagreed with each of the items in a construct. The frequencies were presented in a frequency table that showed the variable, its categories/response options, the actual number/score occurring (n) and the percentage (%) of that score against the total sample. Some of the frequencies were shown using specially designed graphs (for example, histograms) and charts (for example, bar and pie charts).

5.12.8 Mean scores

An arithmetic mean (\bar{x}) is a measure of central tendency that calculates the average value in each distribution (Jankowski & Flannelly, 2015:39). It is a summation of the scores of a given characteristic divided by the number of these scores (Jankowski & Flannelly, 2015:40). In this study, the mean was first applied to establish the most important score amongst a set of items in a specific construct. For example, the item with the highest mean was deemed the most important. Secondly, the mean was also applied to establish the most dominant construct compared with the others under consideration in the study. Thus, the construct that scores the highest mean is the most dominant and important compared to the others.

5.12.9 Standard deviation

A standard deviation (SD) is a statistic used to measure the extent of dispersion or variance between each score and the data around the mean (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen & Walker, 2010:115). A low SD implies that the data is closer to the mean, whereas a higher SD suggests that measures are widely dispersed (spread out) from the mean over a wider range of values. In this study, the SD was applied further to confirm whether data are normally distributed. Normal distribution was assumed when the values of the data were dispersed evenly around one representative value. Hence the analysis of SD concurrently values was useful in further ascertaining the distribution of the data.

5.12.10 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a statistical procedure utilised for exploring the degree to which the observed variables specified in the research model represent the latent variables (or constructs) (Ruscio & Roche, 2012:282). It is also employed to explore the basic factor structure of a set of observed variables without imposing a predetermined structure on the outcome. This study has several latent variables under consideration: political CSR, stakeholder CSR, environmental CSR, production CSR, ethical CSR, performance CSR,

operational CSR, economic performance CSR, and social performance CSR. The proposed factor structure of these variables was as presented through the items under each item in the questionnaire, and these items were the observed variables. However, it was necessary to establish whether the collected data was consistent with the factor structure proposed in the research model, and this was achieved by applying EFA.

However, after applying EFA, it could be that the actual factor structure in this study using the collected data may reveal more than one factor for the information sharing variable. It is thus necessary to conduct EFA before further analyses to determine the factor structure of the data collected for this study. Also, EFA is necessary since the items used in the questionnaire were borrowed from various previous studies. This made it necessary to perform EFA to establish the validity of the measurement scales being used in the questionnaire in the current research context. The EFA procedure was performed on SPSS using Varimax Rotation which is the most popular method of rotation.

5.12.11 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is a statistical method used to evaluate the strength of the relationship between two quantitative variables. It enables quantifying the strength of the linear relationship between two ranked or numerical variables (Samuels & Gilchrist, 2014:1; Saunders *et al.*, 2016:545; Gogtay & Thatte, 2017:79). The extent of correlation is represented by the letter “r”, and the correlation coefficient ranges between -1 and +1. A value of +1 represents a perfect positive correlation, while a value of -1 represents a perfect negative correlation. A high correlation means that two or more variables have a strong relationship, while a weak correlation means that the variables are hardly related. In other words, it is the process of studying the strength of that relationship with available statistical data. This technique is strictly connected to linear regression analysis, a statistical approach for modelling the association between a dependent variable, a response, and one or more explanatory or independent variables.

5.12.12 Pearson correlation

Correlations in statistics are primarily concerned with the relationships between variables under consideration in a survey (Chock 2010:13). In addition, Gogtay and Thatte (2017:79) opine that Pearson correlation measures the existence (given by a p-value) and strength (given by the coefficient r between -1 and +1) of a linear relationship between two variables. In other words, this attempts to explain or estimate the extent of how a change in one variable influences a

change in another variable. Sedgwick (2012:345) further highlights that Pearson correlation is also known as the product-moment correlation coefficient because it can be represented in a sample by r , while the population from the sample is represented by ρ . In this case, the coefficient is measured on a scale with a value from -1 through 0 to $+1$. This means if the sign of the correlation coefficient is positive, then a positive correlation exists, and likewise, if it is negative, then a negative correlation exists. This current study employed the Pearson correlation coefficient. Schober, Boer and Schwarte (2018:1763) sum up that the Pearson correlation coefficient is typically used for jointly normally distributed data. This is data that follow a bivariate normal distribution. Pearson correlation is appropriate for this study as it can be used to address hypothesis testing of relationships for sampled data in a given population. The current study used Pearson correlation analysis to establish the relationship between constructs and corporate reputation in influencing corporate performance (Refer to Chapter 6).

5.12.13 Spearman correlation

The Spearman's rank correlation is a nonparametric rank statistic measure of the strength of an association between two variables (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011:87; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:35). Spearman's rank correlation is used when analysing associations between different constructs when using data that is not normally distributed (Mukaka, 2012:69).

5.12.14 Kendall's rank correlation

Kendall's Rank correlation, also commonly known as "Kendall's tau coefficient", is used to test the similarities in the ordering of data when it is ranked by quantities. In other words, Kendall's Tau coefficient assesses statistical associations based on the ranks of the data. Kendall rank correlation (non-parametric) is an alternative to Pearson's correlation (parametric) when the data fails one or more assumptions of the test. This is also the best alternative to Spearman correlation (non-parametric) when your sample size is small and has many tied ranks. Kendall's correlation coefficient uses pairs of observations and determines the association's strength based on the concordance and discordance between the pairs.

5.12.15 Regression analysis

In this study, regression analysis enables the researcher to analyse relationships between independent and dependent variables. Thus, the dependent variable is the researcher's outcome, while the independent variables are the instruments designed to achieve the outcomes. In this regard, regression analysis contributes to understanding how the value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other

independent variables are held fixed (Chiappelli, Balenton, Khakshooy, 2018: 203). Mooi (2014:195) highlighted that regression analysis is the relationship between one variable and some other variables supposedly in a linear relation. Golberg and Cho (2012:1) highlight that regression analysis is a collection of statistical techniques used as a basis for drawing inferences of relationships among interrelated variables. The two further opine that regression analysis has become popular in most studies across all disciplines in data analysis. This study used regression analysis to establish relationships between corporate social responsibility and reputation in enhancing corporate performance. Mooi (2014:194) adds that regression analysis in its simplest form analyses one independent and one dependent variable. In this regard, the dependent variable in this study was the possible outcome of improved corporate performance, while the independent variable is the push factor or instrument to achieve the outcome corporate reputation was perceived to enhance corporate performance. Mooi (2014:194) outlines the key benefits of using regression analysis as it can indicate if independent variables have a significant relationship with the dependent variables. It can indicate the relative strength and effect of independent variables on dependent variables and make predictions.

The above makes it possible to develop various strength estimates, predictions and assumptions on the independent variables' effects on dependent variables.

5.12.16 Reliability

Reliability relates to the extent to which a research instrument consistently has the same results if it is used in the same situation on repeated occasions. It implies consistency and not accuracy (Bhattacharjee, 2012:56), becoming more of an indication of the stability (or repeatability) and consistency (or homogeneity) with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the “goodness” of a measure (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014:175). It is the degree to which the measurement instrument is free from measurement error. Hence through reliability, biases and errors are minimised, and consistent results are achieved. For example, a participant completing an instrument meant to measure absenteeism from work should have approximately the same responses each time the test is completed (Heale & Twycross, 2015:67). In agreement with the latter, Oluwatayo (2012:393) opines that reliability in quantitative research is synonymous with dependability, consistency, reproducibility, or replicability over time. This means that, for research to be reliable, it must demonstrate that if it were to be carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, similar results would be obtained.

Although there are various types of reliability tests, three types of reliability are identified and discussed here deemed necessary in any research: stability, equivalence and internal consistency. Stability reliability measures consistency over time and similar samples (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2008:133). Equivalence reliability is consistency among responses of multiple users of an instrument or alternate forms of an instrument. Internal consistency reliability tests the homogeneity of items in a measuring instrument (Cohen *et al.*, 2008:134).

There are various methods employed to test for reliability, and these include the split-half reliability coefficient and the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (K-R 20), the Composite reliability test, the Cronbach alpha test and item-to-total correlations. In this study, reliability was tested using the Cronbach alpha test and inter-item correlations. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is an indicator of internal consistency reliability or simply how well the items in a measurement scale measure the same concept. In other words, it is the correlation of each item in a measurement scale with the sum of all the other items. A high Cronbach alpha represents a great extent of applicability across the items in the scale (Cronbach, 1951:297). This study employs Cronbach alpha coefficient guidelines to measure the extent of reliability.

The present study used the rule of thumb, and the minimum acceptable alpha value of 0.7 was used. Therefore, it is expected that the alpha values for all measurement scale to be used in the study be equal to or above the 0.7 thresholds.

5.12.17 Validity

Validity is defined as the extent to which a concept is accurately measured (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). Oluwatayo (2012:391) concurs and highlights that validity is viewed as the degree to which a test or measuring instrument measures what it purports to measure or how well a test or a meaning instrument fulfills its function. Oluwatayo further posits that there are several kinds of validity: content validity, criterion-related validity, constructs validity, internal validity, external validity, concurrent validity, face validity, predictive validity, consequential validity, descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity and evaluative validity.

Bhattacharjee (2012:58) stresses that validity can be assessed using theoretical or empirical approaches. Theoretical validity assessment focuses on how well the idea of a construct is represented in an operational measure. This is known as translational validity, which comprises two validity subtypes, namely face and content validity. On the other hand, empirical validity assessment focuses on how well a given measure relates to external criteria based on observations. This comprises convergent validity, construct validity, discriminant validity and

criterion validity (Bhattacharjee, 2012:58; Oluwatayo, 2012:392). Validity can be enhanced through suitable instrumentation, meticulous sampling, and appropriate statistical data handling (Punch, 2014:237).

5.12.17.1 Face validity

Face validity refers to researchers' subjective assessments of the presentation and relevance of the measuring instrument as to whether the items in the instrument appear to be relevant, reasonable, clear and unambiguous (Oluwatayo, 2012:392). Thus, it assesses what the questionnaire superficially appears to measure. In this study, face validity was established through a review of the questionnaire by the promoter of the study and an expert from the mining industry. The vast experience and expertise of the two in their respective areas proved useful in adding value to the purpose of the questionnaire. Feedback provided was used to improve the questionnaire by implementing changes regarding its structure, wording and technical aspects.

5.12.17.2 Content validity

Content validity refers to whether the instrument adequately covers all the content it should measure concerning the variables. In other words, does the instrument cover the entire domain related to the variable it was designed to measure (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66)? To ascertain content validity, a pilot study was conducted after implementing the suggestions from the expert review of the questionnaire. A pilot study involved a trial run of the questionnaire with a smaller number of respondents. It was essential in that it improved the quality of the entire questionnaire by ensuring that the information requested in the survey was presented and understood without any ambiguity by the respondents. A pilot study involving a convenient sample of 30 respondents in junior and senior management in the mining sector was conducted in this regard. Since this study had a predetermined sample size of $n=300$, 30 respondents were deemed enough for the pilot sample size. Again, the questionnaire was modified using the feedback obtained from the pilot sample.

5.12.17.3 Construct validity

According to Oluwatayo (2012:392), construct validity refers to whether the operational definition of a variable reflects the theoretical meanings of the concept. In other words, construct validity has traditionally been defined as the experimental demonstration that a test is measuring the construct it claims to be measuring. Sullivan (2011:119) concurs and points out that validity seeks to ascertain how accurately a study answers the study question or the

strength of the study conclusions. For outcome measures such as surveys or tests, the focus was on the extent to which a research tool or instrument measured the construct. This established whether inferences could be drawn about test scores related to the concept under study. This study tested for the two variants of construct validity, which are convergent and discriminant validity.

5.12.17.4 Convergent validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two indicators of a construct that should be related are related. Convergent validity requires that the scores derived from the measuring instrument correlate with the scores derived from similar variables (Oluwatayo, 2012:393). In this study, convergent validity was tested through two techniques. The first technique was factor loadings which were computed as standardised regression weights during the CFA. Convergent validity was considered acceptable if each item loading was at least 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2015:34). All items with loadings less than 0.5 were discarded from the scales because they are a threat to convergent validity (Agarwal, 2013:33). The other technique was to calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values for each measurement scale. The AVE represents accurately explained variance within measured indicators by their latent factor relative to the total variance with error variance inclusive in the total. A minimum cut-off value of 0.4 was applied to establish convergent validity (Agarwal, 2013:34).

5.12.17.5 Discriminant validity

Discriminant refers to the extent to which measures of different traits are unrelated. Hence it pertains to the degree to which constructs that are supposed to be unrelated are distinct from each other; technically, discriminant validity requires that a test not correlate too highly with measures from which it is supposed to differ (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt:2015:116). In this study, discriminant validity was ascertained using two methods. The first was the Fornell and Larcker Criterion, which involves checking whether the average variance extracted (AVE) value is larger than the highest shared variance (SV), where the latter is the highest correlation between each construct and others (Henseler *et al.*, 2015:117). Discriminant validity was considered acceptable if the AVE was higher than the SV for each construct. The second method was to use error-corrected correlation values computed in the CFA procedure. Positive correlations below 1.0 between the constructs were taken as an indicator of adequate discriminant validity (Henseler *et al.*, 2015:118).

5.13 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In general, ethics are the moral principles of right or wrong that govern how people behave in different contexts. In the context of research, ethics refers to standards of behaviour that govern or guide your conduct towards the rights of people who become subjects of the research process or those affected by it (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:239; Resnik, 2011:49). These are accepted norms of conduct that distinguish between right and wrong; acceptable or unacceptable behaviour (Resnik, 2011:50; Praveen & Showkat, 2017:2). Ethics are central to the research process. Researchers need to take care of various ethical issues at different levels of this process. There are ethical concerns at every step of the research process (Resnik, 2011:49; Praveen & Showkat, 2017:3). Therefore, every research study should be conducted morally and soundly, and sensitive findings must be reported in such a way that does not harm the relationship between the parties involved. In this study, four ethical research principles were considered, namely, informed consent, protection from harm, confidentiality, and permission to conduct the study. Hammersley and Traianou (2012:56) suggested that these four are the main ethical concerns relevant to a quantitative study such as the present research.

5.13.1 Informed consent

According to Saunders *et al.* (2016:244), informed consent provides sufficient information and assurance to individuals participating in the research on the implications of the research process and outcomes. This is done to enable potential participants to develop fully informed decisions free of any pressure and coercion. Fouka and Mantzorou (2011:3) highlight that; informed consent involves providing enough information to the targeted respondents, which enables them to make decisions to participate in the study or turn down the request to participate. In this study, respondents were made aware of the study's aims and how it was to be conducted. This enabled the selected respondents to realise the extent of the consent, enabling them to participate voluntarily and in informed decisions (Resnik, 2011:51; Dongre & Sankaran, 2016:2). In this case, respondents were provided with necessary information on the study and key CSR issues. In addition, a cover letter explaining the aims of the study was attached to the questionnaire together with a consent form to show voluntary participation in the research. Furthermore, respondents were made aware of their right to withdraw from the study at any given time with no adverse consequences.

5.13.2 Confidentiality and anonymity

Identities of individuals and organisations participating in the research should remain anonymous and given deserving strict confidentiality (Sunders *et al.*, 2016:244). In this study, respondents were requested to avoid writing names on the questionnaires to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. This was to ensure that the study respected the respondents' right to privacy.

5.13.3 Protection from harm/or victimisation

Harm or victimisation comes in several forms, resulting in emotional, psychological, or sociological distress if the information given is not properly handled. This depends mainly on the amount and nature of the information given out by respondents (Fouka & Mantzourou, 2011:5). In this regard, Pillay (2014:195) highlights the importance of protecting respondents from any form of harm or victimisation in any research. To ensure that this was observed in this study, all respondents were fully informed and assured that the research was for academic purposes only. Furthermore, all completed questionnaires were always kept in a safe lockable place.

5.13.4 Ethics clearance

An ethics committee at an institution of higher learning is responsible for all aspects of ethical review and approval (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:242). During this study, ethical clearance was sought and obtained from the Higher Degrees Ethics Committee of the Vaal University of Technology. The survey questionnaire was examined and then approved by the research committee before it was distributed to respondents. Permission to collect data was sought from the relevant authorities at the Chamber of Mines of Zimbabwe through the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development before the data were collected.

5.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter's prime aim was to discuss in detail the methodological choice for use in this study. This study made use of the quantitative research approach anchored on the descriptive research design. Firstly, the chapter examined the research reasoning and paradigms selected and suitable for this study. This helped to establish the guiding philosophy. In this regard, the positivist paradigm influenced a great deal of the study based on deductive reasoning, where the scope and the guiding philosophy used in the study were examined. Subsequently, the chapter gave an insight into related literature used in the study. Summarised snippets of

each chapter on reviewed literature were given. This was followed by the empirical part of the study, where the sampling design was explicitly discussed, focusing on the target population, sampling frame, sample size, including the approach and techniques employed to find the respondents from the selected mining corporations. The discourse indicated that the study was based on a cross-sectional method and used a survey strategy as this fits the research duration and size of the population. On the latter, it was indicated that the sample was composed of participants drawn from the mining sector selected from mining firms in Zimbabwe. A sample size of $n=330$ respondents was pre-determined, and samples were selected using non-probability sampling based on a simple random technique.

The chapter further discussed other research aspects like the data collection instrument and procedures, data analysis, reliability, validity and ethical considerations. The chapter further revealed that the measurement instrument used in the study was a questionnaire distributed using emails and the drop and collect method. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, Pearson correlation and regression analysis. Path analysis was used to test the proposed hypotheses. Various ethical considerations like consent, confidentiality, anonymity and protection from harm or victimisation were pursued as the study sought to maintain the standards of research ethics and professional conduct. The next chapter discusses the results of the study.

CHAPTER 6

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the fundamental methodological direction assumed in this study. This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the research results on the influence of corporate social responsibility reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. In this regard, the initial sections of the chapter present the results in the following sequence: Section 6.2 outlines the results of the pilot study; Section 6.3 presents the results of the main study, beginning with the response rate, followed by the respondents' demographic details. This is followed by demographic details of the selected mining firms that participated in the study. Section 6.4 presents the results of the exploratory factor analysis; Section 6.5 presents the descriptive statistics for the study's constructs; Section 6.6 presents Pearson's correlations; 6.7 presents Regression analysis; Section 6.8 focuses on reliabilities, while 6.9 presents hypotheses results and 6.10. presents the validity results. Finally, the study draws inferences from the results; presents discussions of results and generalisations that mainly respond to formulated hypotheses. The findings are presented in a tabular form to derive meaning in line with the stated objectives. The data presentation, analysis and interpretation of data is quantitative and descriptive based on the survey results as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

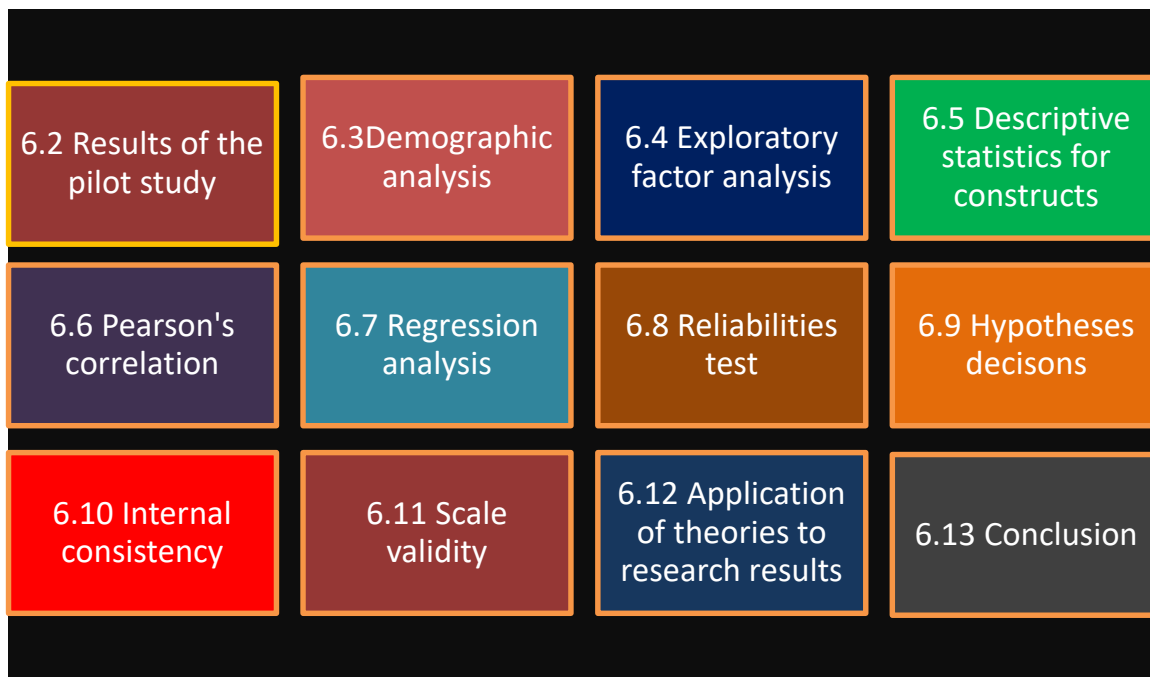


Figure 6.1: Analysis framework

Source: Compiled by Author

6.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

Before using the designed questionnaire to collect data, the data collection instrument must be pilot tested with respondents similar to those to be engaged in completing the final questionnaire (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:473). The main reason for conducting a pilot study is to refine the questionnaire to ensure that respondents did not face any problems answering the questions and recording the data. Arain, Campbell, Cooper and Lancaster (2010:1) highlight that a pilot study is a small study for helping to design a further confirmatory study as a measure of validating the study's intended purpose. This aligns the questionnaire to the study's objectives and ensures that errors are cleared. In this way, a pilot study is synonymous with a feasibility study intended to guide the planning of a large-scale investigation. This process enhanced the questionnaire's overall quality, ensured a clear presentation of information, and removed ambiguity to the respondents.

The questionnaire review was performed by experts and academics drawn from the Vaal University of Technology and the mining sector. The areas of focus included the structure of the sentences to do with relaying the intended information. The intended purpose was to ensure that the questionnaire captured the intended information and was clear to respondents. After ensuring that all necessary changes had been noted and corrected on the questionnaire, a pilot study was then conducted to test the validity and reliability of the content. The pilot study was conducted using 45 ($n=45$) respondents conveniently sampled from selected mining firms in

Zimbabwe. A total of 41 of the returned questionnaires were usable. Table 6.1 presents the results of the pilot study. This was done to identify errors and improve the questionnaire before the main survey.

Table 6.1: Results of the Pilot Test

Scale	Sample	Means	Average item-total correlation	Cronbach Alpha Before Deletion	Number of Items	Number of Items Deleted	Number of remaining Items	Revised Cronbach Alpha
PCSR	41	3.49	0.670	0.867	6	0	6	0.867
SCSR	41	4.99	0.507	0.755	8	0	8	0.755
ENCSR	41	4.95	0.499	0.749	6	0	6	0.749
ETCSR	41	4.81	0.567	0.819	7	0	7	0.819
SOCSR	41	4.71	0.544	0.788	7	0	7	0.788
CR	41	4.81	0.594	0.642	7	1	6	0.795
EP	41	4.44	0.664	0.877	7	0	7	0.877
OP	41	4.02	0.605	0.828	6	0	6	0.828
SP	41	4.11	0.643	0.846	6	0	6	0.846

PCSR=Political Corporate Social Responsibility; SCSR=Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility; ENCSR=Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility; ETCSR=Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility; SOCSR=Social Corporate Social Responsibility; CR=Corporate Reputation; EP=Economic Performance; OP=Operational Performance; SP=Social Performance;

Source: Compiled by Author

The measurements in Table 6.1 include the scale means, item-total correlations and Cronbach alphas for each scale. The mean score indicates an average response from the 41 respondents for each construct. For all scales, the mean score averaged 4.44. In this context, responses were somewhat in agreement with the questions. Item-total correlations for all scales were greater than the 0.4 minimum cut-off value recommended by Zijlmans, Tijmstra, van der Ark, and Sijtsma (2019:2298), demonstrating that measurement scales were reliable.

In addition, it can be noted from Table 6.1 Cronbach alpha values for most measurement scales were above the 0.7 minimum threshold recommended by Ambrose, Marshall and Lynch (2010:123). Specifically, the alpha values were as follows; PCSR (0.867), SCSR (0.755), ENCSR (0.749), ETCSR (0.819), SOCSR (0.788), Economic Performance (0.877), Operational Performance (0.828), and Social Performance (0.846), respectively. These depict reliability measurements which mainly determine if the statements were consistent in

measuring the constructs. However, in the results, corporate reputation had a lower Cronbach alpha value of 0.642; hence one item was removed from this scale to bring the alpha value to 0.795, which is acceptable for the construct’s reliability (Alwan & Al-Zubi, 2016: 98).

The following section presents the results of the main survey

6.3 RESULTS OF THE MAIN STUDY

This section focuses on the results of the main survey. Topics discussed include the response rate, analysis of demographic details of respondents and organisations, exploratory factor analysis, analysis of data normality, Pearson’s Correlations and Regression Analysis.

6.3.1 Response rate

In this study, responses considered were elicited from respondents through questionnaires, forming the response base. The response rate was composed of the proportion of the respondents who completed the questionnaire against those eligible. In this context, the response rate is the proportion of completed surveys by the eligible respondents (Morton, Bandara, Robinson & Carr, 2012:106; Agustini, 2018:156). Table 6.2 presents the response rate for this study.

Table 6.2: Response rate

Description	Frequency
Total number of questionnaires distributed	500
Total number of questionnaires returned	402
Total number of questionnaires not returned	98
Valid questionnaires retained	330
Unusable responses discarded	72
Response rate percentage (%)	66

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.2 shows that 500 questionnaires were distributed to respondents in selected mining firms. A total of 402 questionnaires were returned. However, a total of 72 responses were discarded because they were unusable (double ticking of responses and omitted questions), culminating in 330 usable questionnaires and a response rate of 66%. Brtnikova, Crane, Allison, Hurley, Beaty and Kempe (2018:5) opine that the overall response rates range from 66 to 83% and vary by survey topic. In support, Saunders *et al.* (2016:284) suggest that response rates of approximately 50% are considered reasonable and representative enough for

questionnaire surveys. Therefore, the study's response rate of 66% falls within the accepted range, making it possible to generalise the results.

The next section presents the demographic details of respondents

6.4 DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

This section focuses on the demographic details of respondents. These include individual and organisational profiles.

6.4.1 Demographic details of respondents

Table 6.3 shows the distribution count of respondents about demographic variables such as age, gender, educational qualifications, occupational position, organisation, employment period and occupational area.

Table 6.3: Demographic distribution statistics

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	224	67.9
	Female	106	32.1
	Total	330	100.0
Age	<20	5	1.5
	21-30	92	27.9
	31-40	119	36.1
	41-50	92	27.9
	51-60	20	6.1
	61+	2	.6
	Total	330	100.0
Highest Qualification	O level	11	3.3
	A level	29	8.8
	Certificate	65	19.7
	Diploma	114	34.5
	Degree	92	27.9
	Postgraduate	19	5.8
	Total	330	100.0
Position in Organisation	Clerical	87	26.4
	Skilled Prof	106	32.1
	Junior Mgt	64	19.4
	Middle Mgt	71	21.5
	Senior Mgt	2	.6
	Total	330	100.0

Employment Period	<5years	51	15.5
	6-10	73	22.1
	11-15	109	33.0
	16-20	59	17.9
	21+	38	11.5
	Total	330	100.0
Occupational Area	Marketing	43	13.0
	SCM/Logistics	21	6.4
	Operations	150	45.5
	HR	68	20.6
	Finance/Accounts	44	13.3
	Other	4	1.2
	Total	330	100.0

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.3 shows the frequency distribution for categories under each variable and the percentage of every category in the population size.

To have a precise distribution of respondents for each demographic variable, the following sections will present in-depth results by variable.

6.4.1.1 Gender of respondents

The distribution of respondents by gender is indicated in Figure 6.2.

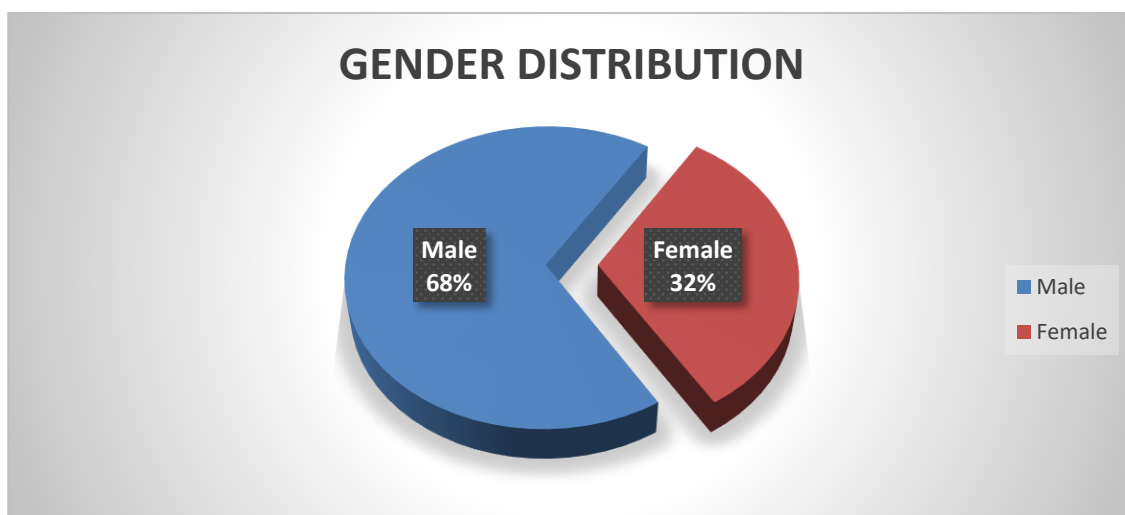


Figure 6.2: Gender distribution

Source: Compiled by Author

A total of 224 respondents who participated in the survey were male, while 106 respondents were female. This translates to 67.2 % males and 32.1 % females. This suggests that a large proportion of the respondents were male, constituting two-thirds and a third being female respondents.

6.4.1.2 Age Distribution of respondents

Figure 6.3 shows the specific age groups of the respondents;

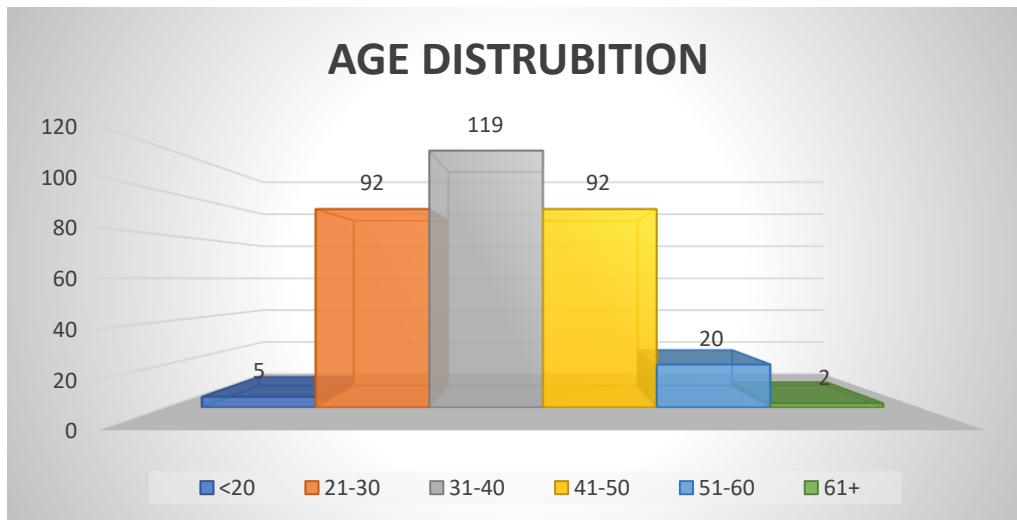


Figure 6.3: Age distribution

Source: Compiled by author

Figure 6.3 shows the age distribution of the sampled respondents. From Figure 6.3, it can be noted that the larger age group is below 50 years of age as indicated by a frequency of 93%, excluding the 51 – 60 and 61+ year’s age groups. The 31-40 age group shows a marginal dominance with a slightly higher proportion (n=119; 36.1%). This was followed by those in the 21-30 and 41-50-years age groups (n=92; 27.1%). The least number is in less than 20 years (n=5; 1.5) and 61+ years (n=2; 0.6) age groups respectively.

6.4.1.3 Highest qualification of respondents

The qualifications of respondents are indicated in Figure 6.4.



Figure 6.4 Highest qualification

Source: Compiled by Author

Figure 6.4 shows that of the 330 respondents who participated in the study, most have a diploma (n=114; 34.5%), while 27.9% were degree holders (n=92), 19.7% had certificates (n=65), 8.8% had advanced level certificate (n=29), 5.8% had attained a postgraduate qualification (n=19) and finally 3.3% had Ordinary Level (n=11).

6.4.1.4 Position in an Organisation

The occupational positions of respondents in their organisations are presented in Figure 6.5.

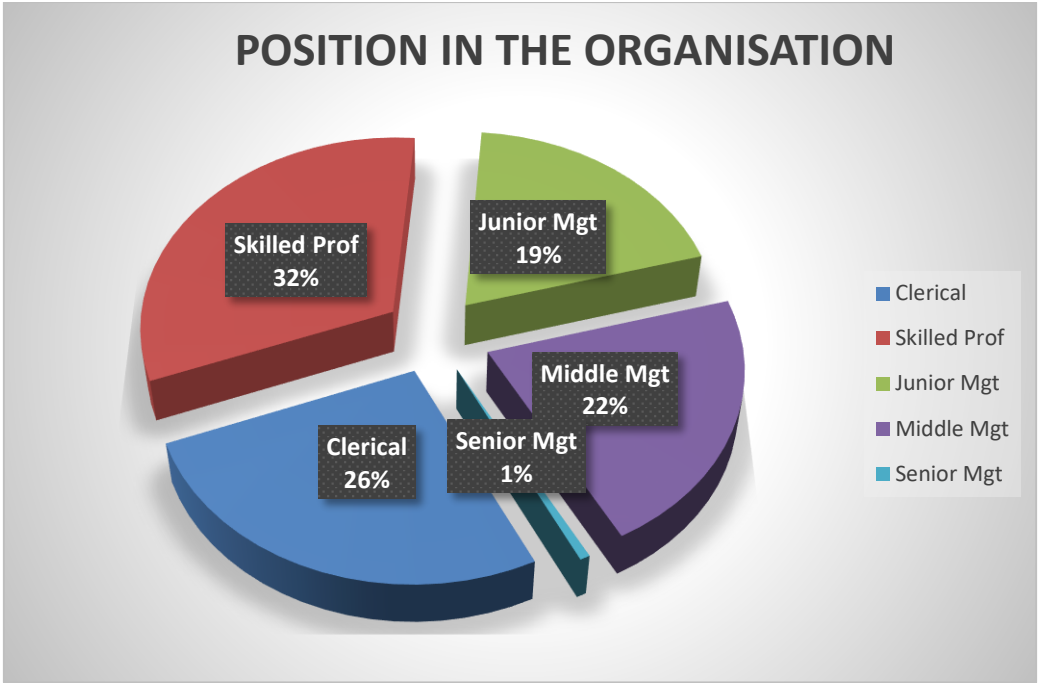


Figure 6.5: Position in the organisation

Source: Compiled by Author

Figure 6.5 shows this distribution as follows; 32.1% are skilled professionals (n=106), 26.4% hold clerical positions (n=87), 21.5% are in the middle management level (n=71), 19.4% are in the junior management level (n=64) and lastly 0.6% have senior managerial positions (n=2).

6.4.1.5 Employment Period

Figure 6.6 shows the number of years the respondents had been in their organisations.

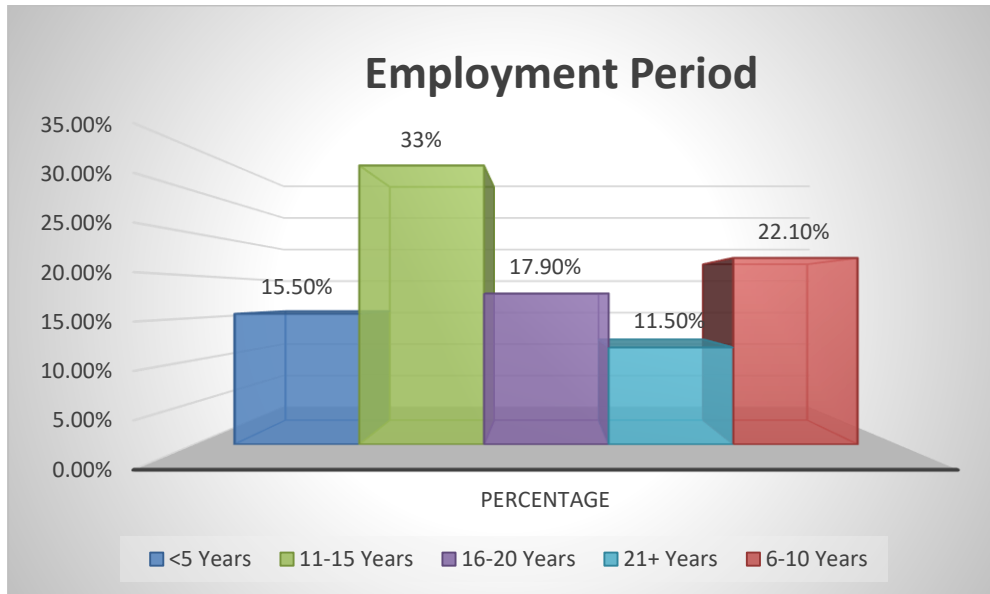


Figure 6.6 Employment period distribution

Source: Compiled by Author

From the 330 respondents, 33% have been employed for 11-15 years (n=109), 22.1% employed for 6-10 years (n=73), 17.9% employed for 16-20 years (n=59), 15.5% employed for less than 5 years (n=51) and lastly 11.5% have been in an organisation for 21 years or more (n=38). The cumulative frequency depicts that most respondents had served their organisations for 15 years at most (70.6%) and the minority above 16 years (29.4%), respectively.

6.4.1.6 Occupational area

Figure 6.7 shows the occupational distribution of respondents.

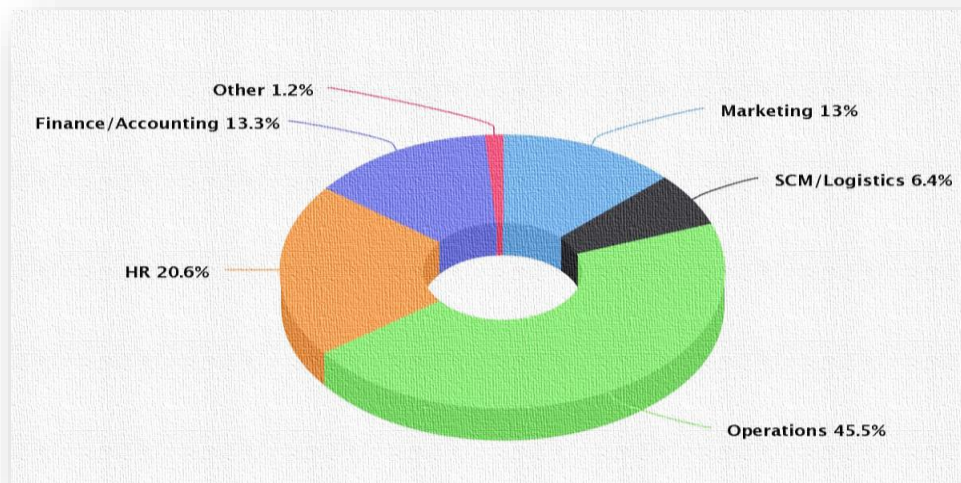


Figure 6.7: Area of occupation

Source: Compiled by author

Figure 6.7 indicates that majority of the respondents were from the operations division (n=150, 45.5%), followed by those human resource section (n=68, 20.6%), finance division (n=44, 13.3%), marketing (n=43, 13%) and other sectors contributing lesser number of respondents (n=4, 1.2%).

6.4.2 Profile of participating organisations

In this section, the profile of the mining firms is presented in Table 6.4. Demographic categories considered include mining firms' details such as the number of employees, years in operation, type of mineral and annual turnover.

Table 6.4: Demographic profile of mining firms

Variable	Category	Frequency
No of Employees	<50	1
	51-100	2
	101-150	3
	151-200 or more	4
	Total	10
Number of Years in Operation	<2 years	1
	2-5 years	2
	5-10 years	2
	10-15 years	3

	15+	2
	Total	10
Type of Mineral	Diamonds	2
	Nickel	1
	Platinum	2
	Gold	3
	Chrome	1
	Asbestos	1
	Lithium	-
	Emeralds	-
	Other	-
	Total	10
Annual Turnover (USD).	<10m	1
	11-20m	1
	21-30m	2
	31-40m	2
	41m+	4
	Total	10

Source: Compiled by author

The specific profiles for each category are as presented below:

6.4.2.1 Number of Employees

To determine the operational trend of sampled mining firms, the study sought to find out the firms' employment count. This is indicated in Figure 6.8.

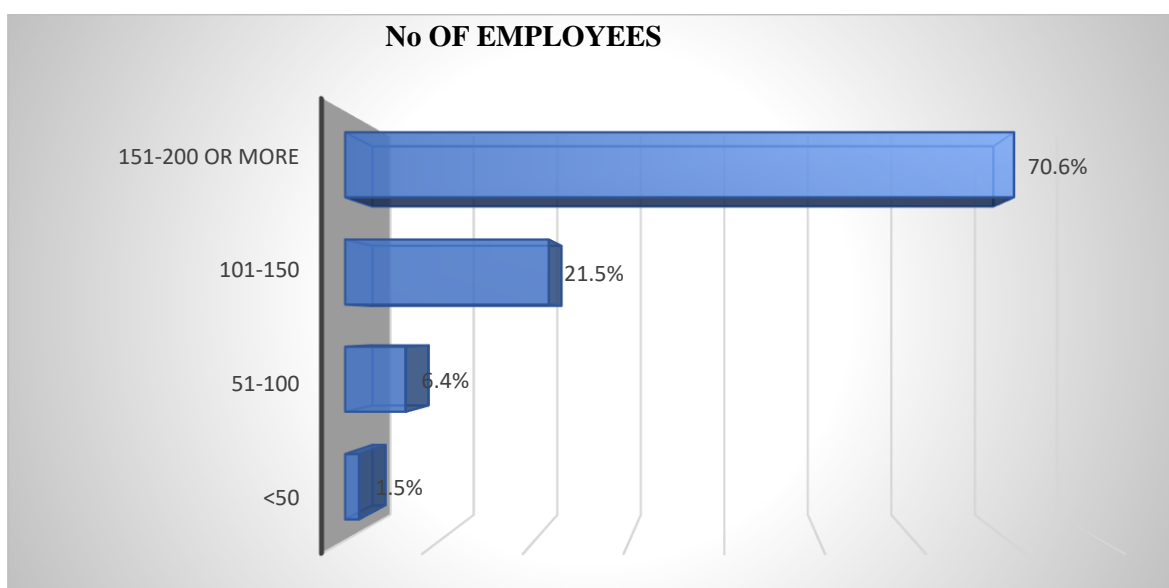


Figure 6.8: Number of Employees

Source: Compiled by Author

Figure 6.8 depicts that multinational mining firms had the biggest number of employees. This is indicated by a value of 70.6% of the respondents that indicated the staff turnover ranged from 151-200 or more employees. In this regard, 29.4% represents employees in the 150 or fewer employees. Hence, more than two-thirds of the proportion lies in the 151-200 group or more employees. Only a count of 5 respondents was from organisations with 50 or fewer employees.

6.4.2.2 Number of years in operation

Figure 6.9 below shows the distribution of the periods mining firms have been in operation. Indications are that the majority of the mining firms have been in operation for 15 or more years (n=4, 40%). The mining firms' operational period values are as follows; 10-15 years (n=2, 20%), 5-10 years (n=2, 20%), 2-5 years, (n=1,10%) and lastly 2 years or less (n=1, 10%).

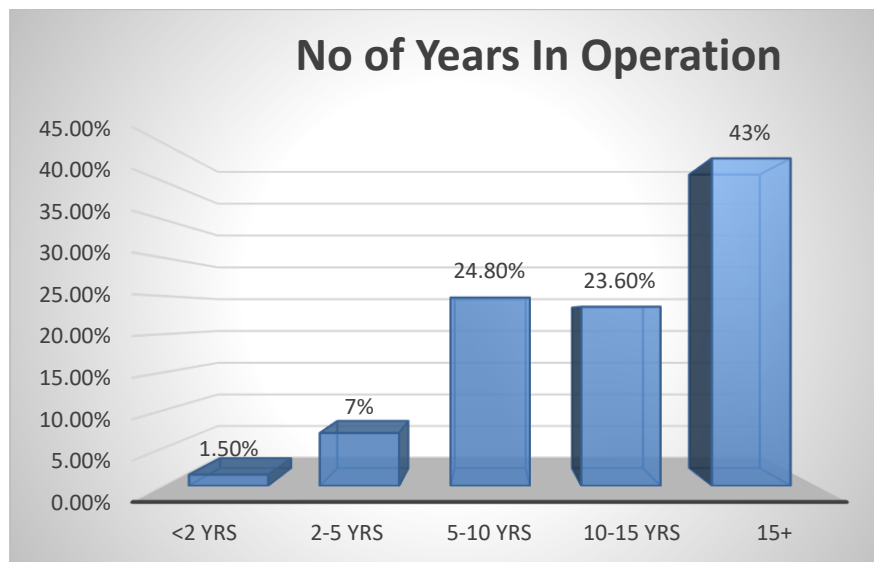


Figure 6.9: Number of years in operation

Source: Compiled by Author

6.4.2.3 Type of Mineral(s)

The study also sought to establish mining firms' profiles by highlighting the type of mineral(s). Table 6.3 shows that most mining firms have high proportional engagements in minerals such as gold (n=3, 30%), platinum (n=2, 25.8%), nickel (n=1, 10.6%) and diamonds (n=2, 20%). Lesser engagements are for minerals such as emeralds (2.7%), chrome (2.1%), lithium (0.9%), asbestos (0.3%) and others (0.3%). Figure 6.10 below shows this distribution;

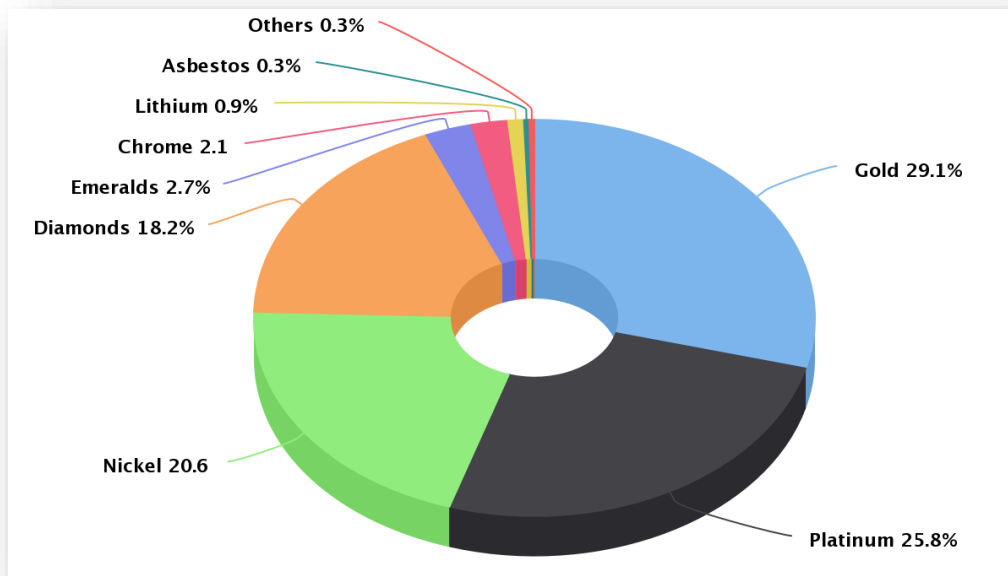


Figure 6.10: Type of Mineral

Source: Compiled by Author

6.4.2.4 Annual Turnover

As part of the mining firms' profile, the study also sought to find the annual turnover. The results are presented in Table 6.3, showing that nearly half of the sampled mining firms have an annual turnover of 41 million and above (n=155, 47%). The other firms were distributed as follows; 32.7% of the organisations realising 31-41 million annual turnover (n=108), 13.9% organisations realising 21-30 million annual turnovers (n=46), 5.8% organisations realising 11-20 million annual turnovers (n=19) and 0.6% organisations realising less than 10 million annual turnovers (n=2). Figure 10 also depicts that the more the employees base, the higher the turnovers. Figure 6.11 below shows this distribution;

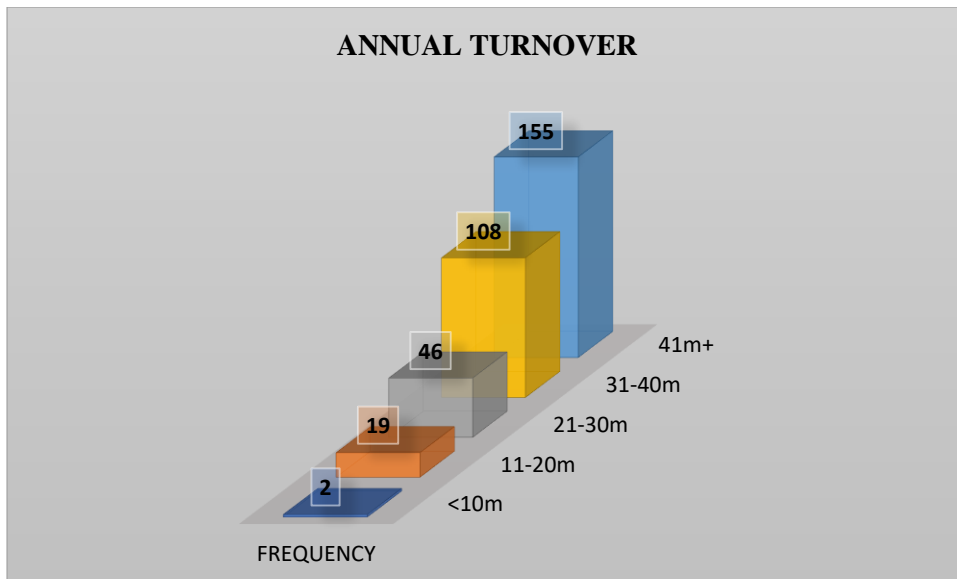


Figure 6.11: Annual turnover
Source: Compiled by Author

The initial results above from the main survey were mainly presenting the structure of mining firms and how they were distributed in different categories. In the following sections, the study looks at exploratory factor analysis

6.5 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) procedure was performed to determine the factor structure of the data collected in the study.

6.5.1 The KMO measure and the Bartlett's test

The EFA was conducted using Principal Components Analysis, with Varimax Rotation and Kaiser Normalisation. The default measure was to keep items with factor loadings greater than or equal to 0.50, with an eigenvalue either equal to or greater than 1. In addition, the percentage of explained variance and the scree plot criteria guided the extraction of factors. Varimax rotation is a statistical technique used at one level of factor analysis to clarify relationships among variable factors (Abdi, 2003:799). A Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were performed to assess whether or not the data collected were suitable for EFA. The results are reported in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: The KMO measure and the Bartlett’s test results

Scale	KMO MEASURE	BARTLETT’S TEST		
		Approximate Chi-Square	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
PCSR	0.606	1242.755	15	0.00
SCSR	0.676	414.517	21	0.00
ENCSR	0.816	333.391	15	0.00
ETCSR	0.820	494.749	21	0.00
SOCSR	0.737	381.603	21	0.00
CR	0.682	763.269	15	0.00
EP	0.730	620.822	21	0.00
OP	0.832	719.659	15	0.00
SP	0.731	522.750	15	0.00

PCSR=Political Corporate Social Responsibility; SCSR=Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility; ENCSR=Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility; ETCSR=Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility; SOCSR=Social Corporate Social Responsibility; CR=Corporate Reputation; EP=Economic Performance; OP=Operational Performance; SP=Social Performance.

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.5 shows the results of the EFA procedure performed to ascertain the factor structure of the data collected in the study. The KMO values for all constructs were (PCSR=0.606; SCSR=0.676; ENCSR=0.816; ETCSR=0.820; SOCSR=0.737; Corporate reputation=0.682; Economic performance=0.730; Operational performance=0.83 and; Social performance=0.731). These values were above the 0.5 minimum threshold suggested by Kaiser (1974:31).

The Bartlett’s test results show significant chi-square values equal to 1242.755 (df=15) for PCSR, 414.517 (df=21) for SCSR, 333.391 (df=15) for the ENCSR, 494.749 (df=21) for ETCSR, 381.603 (df=21) for SOCSR, 763.269 (df=15) for the Corporate reputation, 620.822 (df=21) for Economic performance, 719.659 (df=15) for Operational performance, and 522.750 (df=15) for Social performance. These test results were all significant at $p = 0.000$; $p < 0.05$. Since the results of Bartlett’s and the KMO tests were above the recommended thresholds, the data structure was deemed factorable; hence EFA could be performed.

The next sections focus on EFA on each of the individual constructs.

6.5.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the political corporate social responsibility scale

The EFA was conducted for the political corporate social responsibility construct, and two factors were extracted. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Two-factor structure for the political corporate social responsibility scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor	
		1	2
PCSR1	Our firm is involved in organising community based political programmes	.084	.951
PCSR2	Our firm helps in raising awareness of political developments	-.010	.955
PCSR3	Our firm supports activities organised by civil society groups	.746	.014
PCSR4	Our firm has a good working relationship with the government through honest disclosure of its activities	.851	-.138
PCSR5	Our firm has plans that result in harmony among public sector groups	.778	.078
PCSR6	Our firm has support from government through its philanthropic work	.843	.472
Eigenvalue		2.834	1.835
Total variance explained		47.237	30.578
Cumulative variance explained		47.237	77.816
PCSR=Political Corporate Social Responsibility.			

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.6 shows that two factors were extracted from the PCSR scale. Factor 1 consisted of four items (PCSR3, PCSR4, PCSR5, and PCSR6), had an eigenvalue of 2.834, and contributed 47.237% of the total variance explained in the PCSR scale. Factor 2 was composed of two items (PSCR 1 and PSCR2), had an eigenvalue of 1.835 and contributed to 30.578% of the variance. Both factors had cumulative variance explained of approximately 77%. However, Factor 2 was discarded from the study since it was only made up of two items. According to Williams, Onsmann and Brown (2010:6), a construct should have at least three items to be considered valid.

6.5.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis for the stakeholder corporate social responsibility scale

The EFA procedure was also performed for the SCSR construct. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Two-factor structure factor structure for the stakeholder corporate social responsibility scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor	
		1	2
SCSR1	Our firm has a good relationship with its suppliers	.643	.422
SCSR2	Our firm has a good relationship with its customers	.830	-.024
SCSR3	Our firm prioritises employee training needs	.634	.184
SCSR5	Our management consults the board of directors before making decisions	.723	.061
SCSR4	Our firm employs locals from surrounding communities	-.048	.828
SCSR6	Our firm addresses customer complaints promptly	.310	.539
SCSR7	Our firm is concerned with local community development program	.105	.622
Eigenvalue		2.524	1.193
Total variance explained		36.063	17.048
Cumulative variance		36.063	53.111
SCSR= Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility.			

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.7 shows that two factors were extracted from the SCSR scale. Factor 1 consisted of four items (SCSR1, SCSR2, SCSR3, and SCSR5), had an eigenvalue of 2.524, and contributed 36.063% of the total variance explained for the SCSR scale. Factor 2 was composed of three items (SCSR 4, SCSR 6 and SCSR 7), had an eigenvalue of 1.193 and contributed to 17.048% of the variance. The cumulative variance explained was 53%. Factor 2 was discarded from the study because it had an unsatisfactory Cronbach alpha value of 0.467 in the reliability tests. Hence, SCSR is represented by Factor 1 in this study.

6.5.1.3 Exploratory factor analysis for the environmental corporate social responsibility scale

The EFA procedure was performed for the ENCSR construct; no items have discarded the factor converged in a single iteration. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Unidimensional factor structure for the environmental corporate social responsibility scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor
		1
ENCSR1	Our firm is involved in environmental awareness programmes	.679
ENCSR2	Our firm assists communities to take care of the environment	.774

ENCSR3	Our firm initiates environment sustainability programmes	.664
ENCSR4	Our firm adheres strictly to environmental laws and regulations	.537
ENCSR5	In our firm, waste management strategies are being implemented	.664
ENCSR6	Our firm promotes and organises conservation programmes	.591
Eigenvalue		2.580
Total variance explained		42.999
Cumulative variance explained		42.999
ENCSR=Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility.		

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.8 shows that only one factor was extracted, with six items (ENCSR1, ENCSR2, ENCSR3, ENCSR4, ENCSR5 and ENCSR6). The factor further had an eigenvalue of 2.580 and contributed 42.999% of the total variance explained for the ENCSR scale.

6.5.1.4 Exploratory factor analysis for the ethical corporate social responsibility scale

For the ETCSR construct, no items were discarded in the EFA, and one factor was extracted. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Unidimensional factor structure for the ethical corporate social responsibility scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor
		1
ETCSR1	Our firm is known for honesty, fairness and integrity	.649
ETCSR2	Our firm employs fair labour practices	.779
ETCSR3	Our firm's procurement follows laid down procedures	.737
ETCSR4	Our firm spends a significant percentage of its profits on community development	.604
ETCSR5	Our firm is an equal opportunity employer	.419
ETCSR6	Our firm is guided by the labour laws of the country	.693
ETCSR7	Our firm uses the least harmful processes to protect people and animals	.618
Eigenvalue		2.974
Total variance explained		42.492
Cumulative variance explained		42.492
ETCSR= Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility.		

Source: Compiled by Author

As shown in Table 6.9, the extracted factor consisted of seven items (ETCSR1, ETCSR2, ETCSR3, ETCSR4, ETCSR5, ETCSR6 and ETCSR7), had an eigenvalue of 2.974, and contributed 42.492% of the total variance explained for the ETCSR scale.

6.5.1.5 Exploratory factor analysis for the social corporate social responsibility scale

The EFA was conducted for the SOCSR construct, where the rotation converged in 3 iterations. Two factors were extracted for the factor solution presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Two-factor structure for the social corporate social responsibility scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor	
		1	2
SOCSR1	Our firm promotes employee motivation	.196	.774
SOCSR2	Our firm has regular staff development programmes	.435	.724
SOCSR3	Our firm invests on employee motivation and social welfare	.848	.004
SOCSR4	We have attractive remuneration packages	.744	.092
SOCSR5	Our firm's social responsibility programmes are designed in consultation with the community	.628	.252
SOCSR6	Our firm donates in cash or in-kind to surrounding local communities as a gesture of social support	.553	.334
SOCSR7		-.015	.769
Eigenvalue		2.931	1.167
Total variance explained		41.873	16.673
Cumulative variance		41.873	58.547
SOCSR= Social Corporate Social Responsibility.			

Source: Compiled by Author

As indicated in Table 6.10, two factors were extracted. Factor 1 consisted of four items (SOCSR3, SOCSR4, SOCSR5 and SOCSR6), had an eigenvalue of 2.931, and contributed 41.873% of the total variance explained for the SOCSR scale. Factor 2 had three items (SOCSR1, SOCSR2, and SOCSR7), contributing 16% of the variance explained. Factor 2 was, however, discarded because its internal consistency was low, as indicated through a Cronbach alpha value of 0.642 when testing for reliability.

6.5.1.6 Exploratory factor analysis for the corporate reputation scale

For the corporate reputation construct, two factors were extracted in the EFA procedure. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Two-factor structure for the corporate reputation scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor	
		1	2
CR 1	Our firm is known for high quality service	.641	.504
CR 2	Our firm emphasises courtesy to customers	.804	.046
CR 3	Our firm is known for customer satisfaction	.611	.169
CR 4	Our firm addresses the concerns of its business partners	-.025	.946
CR 5	Our firm is known for transparency	.774	-.104
CR 7	Our firm has competitive remuneration packages its employees	.760	.547
Eigenvalue		3.004	1.093
Total variance explained		50.066	18.217
Cumulative variance explained		50.066	68.283
CR= Corporate Reputation			

Source: Compiled by Author

The above Table 6.11 shows that two factors were extracted. Factor 1 was composed of five items (Corporate Reputation 1, Corporate Reputation 2, Corporate Reputation 3, Corporate Reputation 5 and Corporate Reputation 6), with an eigenvalue of 3.004, and contributed 50.066% of the total variance explained for the corporate reputation scale. Factor 2 had one item (Corporate Reputation 4) and was subsequently discarded from the study.

6.5.1.7 Exploratory factor analysis for the economic performance scale

Concerning EFA for the economic performance construct, two factors were extracted. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Two-factor structure for the economic performance scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor	
		1	2
EP 1	Our firm has increased its profitability	.202	.875
EP 2	Our firm has increased its investments	.120	.879
EP 3	Our firm has experienced lower capital costs	.565	.178
EP 4	Our firm has a healthy financial position	.831	.097
EP 5	Our firm has increased investor confidence	.776	-.006
EP 6	Our firm has experienced a high sales growth	.740	-.077
EP 7	Our firm has been able to service its debts	.745	-.024
Eigenvalue		2.745	1.611
Total variance explained		39.218	23.015
Cumulative variance explained		39.218	62.233
EP= Economic Performance			

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.12 shows that two factors were extracted, with Factor 1 having five items (Economic Performance 3, Economic Performance 4, Economic Performance 5, Economic Performance 6 and Economic Performance7), an eigenvalue of 2.745, and contributed 39.218% of the total variance explained for the economic performance scale. The second factor had only two items (Economic Performance1 and Economic Performance2) with an eigenvalue of 1.611 and explained 23 %. However, factor 2 was discarded as it has only two items.

6.5.1.8 Exploratory factor analysis for the operational performance scale

The EFA was conducted for the operational performance construct and converged in a single iteration. Only Operational Performance5 (Our firm’s operations are transparent to all stakeholders) item was discarded because it had a factor loading of 0.191, which is below the recommended 0.5 minimum cut-off value. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Unidimensional factor structure for the operational performance scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor
		1
OP 1	Our firm has reduced operational costs	.801
OP 2	Our firm has experienced high operational cash flows	.848
OP 3	Our firm has a high machinery capacity.	.805
OP 4	Our firm has achieved low unit material consumption	.763
OP 5	Our firm’s board of directors are guided by corporate governance guidelines	.768
Eigenvalue		3.217
Total variance explained		53.618
Cumulative variance explained		53.618
OP= Operational Performance.		

Source: Compiled by Author

The operational performance factor consisted of five items (Operational Performance 1, Operational Performance 2, Operational Performance 3, Operational Performance 4 and Operational Performance 6), had an eigenvalue of 3.217, and contributed 53.618% of the total variance explained for the operational performance scale.

6.5.1.9 Exploratory factor analysis for the social performance scale

All items were retained in the EFA for the social performance construct. The factor solution is presented in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Unidimensional factor structure for the economic performance scale

Item Code	Item Description	Factor
		1
SP 1	Our firm has long term plans for social development	.750
SP 2	Our firm involves the community in outsourcing materials and consumables	.649
SP 3	Our firm works with other development partners in improving social amenities	.700
SP 4	Our firm discloses its social responsibility programmes in the media	.708
SP 5	Our firm's participation in social development programmes is based on a set budget	.702
SP 6	Our firm engages in social change programmes as part of its set objectives	.607
Eigenvalue		2.835
Total variance explained		47.248
Cumulative percentage of variance		57.248
SP= Social Performance.		

Source: Compiled by Author

The social performance factor consisted of five items (Social Performance 1, Social Performance 2, Social Performance 3, Social Performance 4, Social Performance 5 and Social Performance 6), had an eigenvalue of 2.835, and contributed 47.248% of the total variance explained.

6.6 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONSTRUCTS

The descriptive statistics section provides a detailed summary of the variable statements and scale tendencies of the respondents. The use of the mean score enabled the assessment of the various responses given, even though responses varied from one individual to another. The standard deviation is also used to check the scale disparity from the mean. Other statistics to consider are minimum and maximum to realise outliers and range in opinion variation. Table 6.15 presents the summary statistics (minimum and maximum range, mean and standard deviation) for all constructs considered in the study.

Table 6.15: Summary descriptive statistics

Variable Code	Variable Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
PCSR	Political Corporate Social Responsibility	330	1.50	7.00	4.73	1.10

SCSR	Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility	330	4.25	7.00	6.05	0.66
ENCSR	Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility	330	3.83	7.00	6.14	0.56
ETCSR	Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility	330	4.00	7.00	5.85	0.61
SOCSR	Social Corporate Social Responsibility	330	2.75	7.00	5.94	0.72
CR	Corporate Reputation	330	4.25	7.00	6.11	0.64
EP	Economic Performance	330	2.20	7.00	4.91	0.81
OP	Operational Performance	330	3.40	7.00	4.86	0.87
SP	Social Performance	330	2.67	7.00	5.51	0.78
PSCR=Political Corporate Social Responsibility; SCSR= Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility; ENCSR= Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility; ETCSR= Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility; SOCSR= Social Corporate Social Responsibility; CR=Corporate Reputation; EP=Economic Performance; OP=Operational Performance; SP=Social Performance; Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.15 indicates aggregated statistics per variable. The average opinion is calculated from construct's statements responses. PCSR had the least mean score ($\bar{x}=4.7311$) but above neutral mark ($\bar{x}=4$), which shows that a considerable portion of the respondents somewhat agreed that PCSR had been observed by their organisations. The standard deviation of 1.10497 indicates a moderate variation of opinions dispersed around the mean.

Other constructs had mean scores above 4, indicating that respondents agreed that CSR was being observed with a good reputable image being retained, resulting in positive performance being experienced by their organisations.

The next section focuses on the descriptive statistics of each research construct.

6.6.1 Descriptive statistics of political corporate social responsibility

The study sought to find out descriptive statistics of PCSR practices as observed by the mining firms. Table 6.16 presents the descriptive statistics for the PCSR construct.

Table 6.16: Descriptive statistics of political corporate social responsibility

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
PCSR3	Our firm supports activities organised by civil society groups	330	1	7	4.65	1.77
PCSR4	Our firm has a good working relationship with the government through honest disclosure of its activities	330	1	7	4.98	1.38
PCSR5	Our firm has plans that result in harmony among public sector groups	330	1	7	4.98	1.48
PCSR6	Our firm has support from government through its philanthropic work	330	2	7	4.31	0.89
Overall Scale					4.73	1.10
PCSR=Political Social Corporate Responsibility. Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

From Table 6.16, the lowest mean score was 4.31 from item PCSR6 (Our firm has support from the government through its philanthropic work), and the maximum was 4.98 for items PCSR4 and PCSR5. This indicates that most respondents somewhat agreed that good working relationships exist between the government and mining firms, including public sectors organisations. This was mainly observed through philanthropic work, honest disclosure of activities and support given to civil society groups. This was evidenced by the overall mean score of 4.7311, closer to the “somewhat agree” score (5).

The result is in line with previous studies (Gorostidi-Martinez & Zhao, 2017:374), which concluded that domestic political institutions could set conditions for a firm’s CSR efforts. This can be achieved through the central government as it promotes key values in business relations by setting conditions of how such values get expressed. In this regard, domestic political institutions can provide incentives or disincentives for firm managers to pursue CSR. Such

relationships influence whether a firm will tolerate or even encourage managers to undertake CSR activities.

6.6.2 Descriptive statistics of stakeholder corporate social responsibility

Descriptive statistics for stakeholder corporate social responsibility was also assessed. Results are shown in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Descriptive statistics of stakeholder corporate social responsibility

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
SCSR1	Our firm has a good relationship with its suppliers	330	3	7	5.78	0.91
SCSR2	Our firm has a good relationship with its customers	330	3	7	6.16	0.83
SCSR3	Our firm prioritises employee training needs	330	3	7	6.17	0.90
SCSR5	Our management consults the board of directors before making decisions	330	3	7	6.07	0.97
Overall Scale					6.05	0.66
SCSR=Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.17 indicates that most respondents concurred that stakeholders are key in implementing corporate social responsibility as the firms attempt to achieve set objectives. Indications from respondents from most mining firms revealed good relationships between firms and their customers, employees and directors, as shown by the aggregated mean scores (SCSR3 = 6.17, SCSR2 = 6.16, SCSR5 = 6.07), which were above 6 (“Agree”). The lowest mean score, 5.78 for item SCSR1, indicates that respondents agreed that organisations have good relationships with their suppliers. Furthermore, the overall mean score (6.0455) in Table 6.15 shows that respondents agreed that organisations thrive on establishing decent relations with stakeholders. The aggregated overall minimum score (4.25) from Table 6.15, none of the respondents disagreed with the assumptions. This result concurs with a study conducted by Harrison and

Wicks (2013:101) which concluded that stakeholders are a key component of CSR in achieving organisational objectives.

6.6.3 Descriptive statistics of Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility

Descriptive statistics for environmental corporate social responsibility are indicated in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18: Descriptive statistics of environmental corporate social responsibility

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
ENCSR1	Our firm is involved in environmental awareness programmes	330	3	7	6.18	0.84
ENCSR2	Our firm assists communities to take care of the environment	330	3	7	6.00	0.84
ENCSR3	Our firm initiates environment sustainability programmes	330	2	7	6.12	0.86
ENCSR4	Our firm adheres strictly to environmental laws and regulations	330	3	7	6.21	0.90
ENCSR5	In our firm, waste management strategies are being implemented	330	1	7	6.12	0.89
ENCSR6	Our firm promotes and organises conservation programmes	330	4	7	6.19	0.86
Overall Scale					6.14	0.56
ENCSR=Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

From Table 6.18, it can be deduced that most organisations are engaged in maintaining and preserving the environment. This is indicated by all mean scores; ENCSR1=6.18, ENCSR2=6.00, ENCSR3=6.12, ENCSR4=6.21, ENCSR5=6.12, ENCSR6=6.19; with mean scores above the “agree” response (6). This finding supported previous studies (Pistoni & Songini 2013:5; Ahmed Haji, 2013:647), which found that society has expectations on mining firms’ behaviour and their social impact on the environment and living standards should be

socially sound. As such, firms are expected to consider and give adequate responses to the various social issues, including addressing the development and implementation of social and environmental sustainability practices.

6.6.4 Descriptive statistics of Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility (ETCSR)

The descriptive statistics regarding ethical corporate social responsibility are indicated in table 6.19.

Table 6.19: Descriptive statistics of ethical corporate social responsibility

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
ETCSR1	Our firm is known for honesty, fairness and integrity	330	4	7	6.21	0.63
ETCSR2	Our firm employs fair labour practices	330	1	7	5.67	1.06
ETCSR3	Our firm's procurement follows laid down procedures	330	2	7	5.92	0.94
ETCSR4	Our firm spends a significant percentage of its profits on community development	330	1	7	5.79	1.08
ETCSR5	Our firm is an equal opportunity employer	330	2	7	5.42	1.20
ETCSR6	Our firm is guided by the labour laws of the country	330	2	7	5.87	0.87
ETCSR7	Our firm uses the least harmful processes to protect people and animals	330	4	7	6.03	0.86
Overall Scale					5.85	0.61
ETCSR= Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

The lowest mean score in Table 6.19 is 5.42 from item ETCSR5 (Our firm is an equal opportunity employer), showing that respondents somewhat agreed (5) that firms give fair employment opportunities to potential employees indiscriminately. The highest mean was 6.21

for item ETCSR1, which indicates that respondents mostly agreed with the assertion that mining firms exercise a degree of being honest, fair and keeping integrity value. The overall standard deviation score (0.61031) showed that most responses were clustered around the agree-on position (mean=5.8455), reflecting a tight variation in opinions.

The result regarding ECSR concurs with previous studies conducted by Sroka and Szántó (2018:111) and Simpson and Taylor (2013:67), which linked ethics and social responsibility within the business environment. In this regard, business ethics deals with the moral principles held by the organisation, acting as a moral guide for all employees to conduct themselves acceptably when conducting business functions. The study thus established that businesses should conduct themselves to comply with cultural or societal norms.

6.6.5 Descriptive statistics of Social Corporate Social Responsibility

The descriptive statistics for social corporate social responsibility are presented in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20: Descriptive statistics of social corporate social responsibility

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
SOCSR3	Our firm invests in employee motivation and social welfare	330	2	7	5.93	0.92
SOCSR4	We have attractive remuneration packages	330	2	7	6.05	0.89
SOCSR5	Our firm's social responsibility programmes are designed in consultation with the community	330	2	7	5.97	1.01
SOCSR6	Our firm donates in cash or in-kind to surrounding local communities as a gesture of social support	330	2	7	5.79	1.09
Overall Scale					5.94	0.72
SOCSR=Social Corporate Social Responsibility Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.20 indicates that item SOCSR6 (Our firm donates in cash or in-kind to surrounding local communities as a gesture of social support) scored the lowest mean of 5.79. The highest mean was scored by item SOCSR4 (We have attractive remuneration packages). These results show that respondents agreed that positive social responsibility was being exercised in their organisations. The overall mean score was 5.9364, which is adjacent to the ‘agree’ point on the Likert scale, indicating that respondents generally favour social corporate responsibility from their organisations. Kaur (2012:48) opines that social corporate social responsibility is when business organisations become conscious of the triple bottom line, where business embraces responsibility for the impact of their activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities, stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere. Furthermore, businesses have become proactive in encouraging community growth and development. This eliminates practices that harm the public and the deliberate inclusion of public interest into corporate decision-making.

6.6.6 Descriptive statistics of corporate reputation

The descriptive statistics for the corporate reputation construct are presented in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21: Descriptive statistics of corporate reputation

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
CR 1	Our firm is known for high-quality service	330	3	7	5.78	0.91
CR 2	Our firm emphasises courtesy to customers	330	3	7	6.16	0.83
CR 3	Our firm is known for customer satisfaction	330	3	7	6.17	0.90
CR 5	Our firm is known for transparency	330	3	7	6.07	0.97
CR 6	Our firm has competitive remuneration packages its employees	330	4	7	6.03	0.66
Overall Scale					6.11	0.64
CR= Corporate Reputation Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

The results presented in Table 6.21 reveal that on item one (Corporate Reputation 1), most of the respondents agreed with the statement that their firms are known for high-quality service. This is indicated by the mean score of 5.78, which was the lowest among other items. Similar results emerged for the other items; Corporate Reputation 2, Corporate Reputation 3, Corporate Reputation 5 and Corporate Reputation 6, with higher mean scores of 6.16, 6.17, 6.07 and 6.03, respectively, indicating that a large number of respondents agreed that their mining firms retain a positive public image. The overall minimum score (4.25) in Table 6.15 shows that a few respondents were neutral. The standard deviation score (0.63686) also highlights that respondents are very close to the mean score (6.1083), which is above the “agree” (6) from the 7-Likert scale. The results are consistent with Ganiyu and Adeosun (2013:220) study that recognised the importance of reputation as a source of positive image and identity. The duo further alludes to reputation as an intangible asset earned through hard work over some time. However, in this study, reputation is considered an expense that comes with huge financial investment. This is attributed to the perception of CSR by local organisations and the whole country at large. Presently the mining sector in Zimbabwe general has a poor reputation tag owing to promises made to communities through legislation and was not fulfilled. An example is the case of the Chiadzwa Diamonds Fields, where displaced people were promised houses, tillage for the first five years and social welfare support through the construction of schools, clinics and roads, yet these promises are yet to be fulfilled (Mathende & Nhapi, 2017:146).

6.6.7 Descriptive statistics of Economic Performance

The descriptive results for the economic performance construct are presented in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22: Descriptive statistics of economic performance

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
EP 3	Our firm has experienced lower capital costs	330	2	7	5.14	1.16
EP 4	Our firm has a healthy financial position	330	1	7	4.69	1.01
EP 5	Our firm has increased investor confidence	330	1	7	4.65	1.12

EP 6	Our firm has experienced a high sales growth	330	3	7	5.14	1.16
EP 7	Our firm has been able to service its debts	330	1	7	4.95	1.10
Overall Scale					4.91	0.81
EP=Economic Performance Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by author

In contrast with the prior results, respondents seemed less confident with agreeing with their firm economic performance. The lowest mean scores were on Economic Performance 5 (4.65=5) and Economic Performance 4 (4.69=5), indicating that respondents somewhat agreed that their firms had decent financial positions and abilities to attract investors. The other items, Economic Performance 3, Economic Performance 6 and Economic Performance 7, reflect that respondents somewhat agreed with the statements, as they are close to the score 5 (“somewhat agree”). From Table 6.15, the overall mean score (4.9139) indicates that respondents marginally agreed with the economic performance of their mining firms. This implies that most respondents agreed that mining firms in Zimbabwe had realised increased economic performance regardless of negative reputation. This manifests through continued investment by these mining firms against the purported unfavourable business environment. In addition, it is on record that mining firms have raised issues attributed to the prevailing business environment, which is claimed to be riddled with economic policy inconsistencies like high tariffs and unfavourable legislation (Chamber of Mines Report 2017:4). Another probable reason is that the mining sector in Zimbabwe was on a rebound after being put under the Indigenisation and Economic Development Act of 2014 which made it mandatory for mining firms to plough back through the 49-51% shareholding. This legislation has since been repealed and allows 100 percent shareholding by mining firms investing in Zimbabwe.

6.6.8 Descriptive statistics of operational performance

Descriptive statistics for operational performance are indicated in Table 6.23.

Table 6.23: Descriptive statistics of operational performance

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
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OP 1	Our firm has reduced operational costs	330	3	7	4.99	1.20
OP 2	Our firm has experienced high operational cash flows	330	3	7	4.96	0.85
OP 3	Our firm has a high machinery capacity.	330	1	7	4.63	1.05
OP 4	Our firm has achieved low unit material consumption	330	2	7	4.80	1.17
OP 5	Our firm's board of directors are guided by corporate governance guidelines	330	2	7	4.95	1.19
Overall Scale					4.86	0.87
OP= Operational Performance. Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by Author

The results in Table 6.23 show that respondents' perception is in agreement with the somewhat agree mark for all items. The lowest mean scores of Operational Performance 3 (4.63) and Operational Performance 1 (4.99) are highest and just below the "somewhat agree" mark (5). This indicates that respondents agreed with the operation management of their firms. Although the standard deviation scores show that respondents share slightly different views in operation performance, the overall mean score of (4.8648) support deduced results from individual items highlighted, indicating efficiency and effectiveness. This is attributed to most mining firms managing to purchase state-of-the-art high-tech machinery. Furthermore, operations in the mining sector are capital intensive due to machinery purchases, wages, salaries and security. Thus, most respondents felt firms are breaking even and even posting positive benefits from investments.

6.6.9 Descriptive statistics of Social Performance

Descriptive statistics for social performance are indicated in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24: Descriptive statistics of social performance

Item Code	Item Description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (SD)
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SP 1	Our firm has long term plans for social development	330	2	7	5.69	1.19
SP 2	Our firm involves the community in outsourcing materials and consumables	330	3	7	5.26	0.82
SP 3	Our firm works with other development partners in improving social amenities	330	3	7	5.56	1.01
SP 4	Our firm discloses its social responsibility programmes in the media	330	1	7	5.16	1.42
SP 5	Our firm's participation in social development programmes is based on a set budget	330	1	7	5.64	1.07
SP 6	Our firm engages in social change programmes as part of its set objectives	330	1	7	5.76	1.30
Overall Scale					5.51	0.78
SP= Social Performance Likert Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Somewhat Disagree 4=Neutral 5=Somewhat agree 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree						

Source: Compiled by author

The lowest mean score in Table 6.24 is 5.16 for item Social Performance 4 (Our firm discloses its social responsibility programmes in the media), and the highest was 5.76 for item Social Performance 6. This indicates that most respondents strongly agreed with the social contributions of mining firms towards the upliftment of living standards for the local populace. This is also supported by the overall mean score in Table 6.15 of 5.5126, which tends towards the “agree” score (6). Social performance in this regard is a combination of three items which are profit, planet and people. This is viewed as achieving commercial success by honouring ethical values and respecting people, communities, and the natural environment. In their study, Simpson and Taylor (2013:203) noted that CSR had continued commitment by businesses to contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families, the community and the society at large. In this case, respondents agreed that mining firms in Zimbabwe are conscious of the need to look after the environment, the people that live in it through infrastructure development and earn profits ethically.

6.7 PEARSON'S CORRELATIONS

Pearson correlation is a statistical method considered the most often used statistical estimator to evaluate the strength of the relationship between two quantitative variables (Croux & Dehon, 2010:498; Metsamuuronen, 2016:471). This shows the interdependence of variables in phenomena. The extent of correlation is represented by the letter "r", the correlation coefficient between -1 and +1. This means a value of +1 represents a perfect positive correlation; inversely, -1 represents a perfect negative correlation. It enables quantifying the strength of the linear relationship between two ranked or numerical variables (Samuels & Gilchrist, 2014:1; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016:545; Metsamuuronen, 2016:472). Thus, the Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between constructs and corporate reputation in this study. In this regard, the study sought to find relationships between constructs to identify the kind of interdependency within variables. Thus, Pearson's correlation conducted in the study indicates the association between corporate social responsibility practices and an organisation's reputation.

Further, it identifies the existence of a relation of a corporate reputation to its performance. Pearson correlation is represented by "r". The coefficient of correlation "r" measures the degree of the linear relationship between two variables such as x and y (Nikolic *et al.*, 2012:65; Metsamuuronen, 2016:473). The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 6.25 below:

Table 6.25: Pearson’s Correlation results

RESEARCH CONSTRUCTS	PCSR	SCSR	ENCSR	ETCSR	SOCSR	CP	EP	OP	SP
PCSR	1								
SCSR	.328*	1							
ENCSR	.133*	.598*	1						
ETCSR	.174**	.534*	.582**	1					
SOCSR	.260**	.552*	.580**	.609**	1				
CR	.325**	.992*	.594**	.545**	.559**	1			
EP	-.067	-.063	-.167**	.094	.002	-.059	1		
OP	-.129*	.186*	-.252**	.094	-.100	.172*	.767*	1	
SP	.317**	.272*	.140*	.432**	.271**	.297*	.161*	.311*	1
PCSR=political corporate social responsibility; SCSR=stakeholder corporate social responsibility; ENCSR=environmental corporate social responsibility; ETCSR=ethical corporate social responsibility; SOCSR=social corporate social responsibility; CR-Corporate Reputation; CP-Corporate performance; EP-Economic Performance; Operational Performance; SP-Social Performance									
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).									

Source: Compiled by Author

The correlations (r) in Table 6.25 show the relation strength and direction of every construct against all other variables, while the significance is indicated by the p -value (Figueiredo Filho, Paranhos, Rocha, Batista, Silva, Santos & Marino, 2013:31). The strongest positive correlation occurred between stakeholder corporate social responsibility (SCSR) and corporate reputation ($r = 0.992$; $p = 0.000$) while the weakest positive correlation was observed between the social corporate social responsibility (SOCSR) and economic performance factors ($r = 0.002$; $p = 0.974$). The strongest negative correlation occurred between social corporate social responsibility (SCSR) and operational performance ($r = -0.186$; $p = 0.001$) while the weakest positive correlation was observed between the corporate reputation and economic performance factors ($r = -0.059$; $p = 0.287$).

The following sub-sections will analyse in-depth correlations between the five (5) CSR practices PCSR, SCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR, SOCSR against corporate reputation. Furthermore, a correlation assessment between corporate reputation and corporate performance, economic performance, operational performance and social performance measures is also determined.

6.7.1 Correlations between political corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation

From Table 6.25, it can be noted that there is a slight positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.325$; $p=0.00$) between PCSR and corporate reputation. This relationship implies that as PCSR is observed, the more the firm's reputation is likely to increase. Conversely, a decline in PCSR practices will lead to a negative impact on a firm's reputation. Gu, Ryan, Bin and Wei (2012:231) highlight that adopting CSR policies and activities have certainly attracted significant attention in recent decades among stakeholders. This has led to direct and indirect political connections of varying degrees of importance. The quartet further stresses that political connections have led to permissions to build, acquire land and operate businesses. This makes politics a key component of firms' reputation as it covers the operations and how it interacts with other key stakeholders (Oladosu Omisore & Nwaneka Nweke, 2014:164).

6.7.2 Correlations between stakeholder corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation

Table 6.25 shows a strong positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.992$; $p=0.00$) between SCSR and the corporate reputation of mining firms. This result infers that an increase in SCSR practices will highly influence a positive image of the mining firms. Conversely, a decline in CSR practices will result in a huge negative impact on a firm's reputation. The strong positive and significant relationship implies that stakeholders form the core of any business organisation as both direct and indirect stakeholders impact the operations of mining firms. Through this constituency, organisational reputation is formulated, adopted, and spread at primary and secondary levels (Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:15). In addition, Argenti and Druckenmiller (2004:369) concur, adding that stakeholders form the most important constituency where multiple images about a firm are built over time.

6.7.3 Correlations between environmental corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation

Another significant result is the relationship between ENCSR and corporate reputation. In Table 6.25, Pearson's correlation indicates a positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.594$; $p=0.00$) between ENCSR and the corporate reputation of a mining firm. This infers that an increase in ENCSR awareness will enhance a positive image of the firm. Conversely, a decline in ENCSR practices will result in a substantial negative impact on a firm's reputation. The environment plays host to the mining firms in terms of setting up infrastructure and exploiting the minerals underground; hence it draws huge attention from stakeholders (Jitaree, 2016:246). In light of this, mining firms should ensure that both the internal and external environments are well taken care of to raise their reputational status (Tyagi, Garg & Paudel, 2014:1492).

6.7.4 Correlations between ethical corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation

In Table 6.25, it is indicated that there is a positive and significant correlation between ETCSR and corporate reputation ($r = 0.545$; $p = 0.00$). This result implies that as ETCSR is observed, an organisation's reputation is likely to increase. Conversely, a decline in ETCSR practices will lead to a negative impact on a firm's reputation. Given this, ethics form the basis of those uncoded values that detect right and wrong. In this regard, Amakobe (2016:5) reiterates that ethics are those values that relate to human conduct that deal with the rightness and wrongness of certain actions. This leads to an assessment of the goodness and badness of such motives and the outcomes of such actions. This implies that mining firms should show a transparent corporate citizenry devoid of wrongdoing in treating their stakeholders.

6.7.5 Correlations between social corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation

Table 6.25 reveals that there is also a positive and significant correlation between SOCSR and corporate reputation ($r = 0.559$; $p = 0.000$). This result implies that if SOCSR is observed, it will likely improve the corporate's public reputation. The SOCSR construct is overriding because it denotes the living standards of the society, focusing on the socio-economic and political status of the people (Javed, Rashid & Hussain (2017:1068). This links society with its past and the present. It forms the social fabric of the society, which includes cultural beliefs and religion. A mining firm that values the social fabric tends to benefit through social licence and a loyal workforce.

6.7.6 Correlations between corporate reputation and economic performance

The study also sought to investigate the relationship between a corporation's reputation and the firm's performance. Table 6.25, shows a weak negative and non-significant correlation ($r = -0.059$; $p=0.287$) between corporate reputation and economic performance. This result implies that corporate reputation has less or no impact on the economic performance of a firm. However, it is envisaged that corporate reputation may help turn the fortunes of mining firms if these firms show responsible behaviour, which, in turn, attracts investment. Interestingly, CSR in Africa and particularly Zimbabwe is a growing concept that is still fully embraced and appreciated. Friedman (1970:32) argued that the sole responsibility of any organisation is to make profits that are done honestly and transparently. This argument came about just two decades after CSR had gained popularity in Europe during the 1950s. Thus, initially, CSR was in the form of philanthropy by the corporates, but went through a transformation after the 1950s and experienced significant change (Jhavar & Gupta, 2017:106; Maj, 2017:128). This change was to focus on both shareholders and stakeholders instead of concentrating on maximising profits for shareholders. On this trajectory, Zimbabwe mining firms are yet to view CSR with an inclusive eye that addresses the concerns of both shareholders and stakeholders. However, the mining sector is still riddled with several issues related to taxes, power supply, money supply, political interference, and legislation working adversely towards creating a conducive mining environment for CSR growth (Chamber of Mines Report, 2017:4).

6.7.7 Correlations between corporate reputation and operational performance

In Table 6.25, Pearson's correlation reveals a weak negative and significant correlation ($r=-0.172$; $p=0.02$) between corporate reputation and a firm's operational performance. This result indicates that a decrease in a firm's reputation will positively enhance its operational performance. Inversely, an increase in a firm's reputation will hurt the firm's operating performance. This relationship implies that most mining firms find it expensive to address the CSR needs or requirements because these come as an extra expense for mining firms as the operational environment is uneven. This implies that mining firms are not operating at a break-even level that allows them to introduce CSR programmes; hence, they cannot achieve a good reputation with a high quality of goods and services (Vitezić, 2012:91) at the same time.

6.7.8 Correlations between corporate reputation and social performance

Further analysis of Table 6.25 shows a weak positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.297$; $p=0.00$) between corporate reputation and social performance. This result implies that an increase in a corporate's reputation will positively influence its social performance. Conversely, a decline in a corporate's reputation will hurt the organisation's social performance. This relation implies that mining firms in Zimbabwe are slowly warming up to the triple bottom line principle, which focuses on the environment, economic and social performance. Organisations exercising or observing these three CSR components are considered socially conscious (Wang, 2013:12). Wang further stresses that CSR activities increase visibility as well as its reputation. Although the working environment still needs improvement, most mining firms are warming up to the triple bottom line concept, subject to an enabling business environment. Furthermore, policy pronouncements remain an integral part of helping stakeholders appreciate CSR and its benefits to the mining sector.

6.8 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In this regard, regression analysis determines the influence of independent variables towards the dependent variable (Ross & Willson 2017:39). Also, regression is better suited for determining prediction or causality based on the idea that correlation does not imply causality (Schneider, Hommel, & Blettner, 2010:776). In this study, our thumb rule is that a beta coefficient is statistically significant if its p-value is smaller than 0.05 (Moiseev, 2017:1701). Also, the beta coefficients (β) allow for a comparison of the relative strengths of our predictors. Further, the regression conducted in this study is distinguished, with the first being a multiple linear regression, and later three models being simple linear regression (Alexopoulos, 2010:4).

Simple linear regression illustrates relationships between an independent variable X and Y dependent variable (Alexopoulos, 2010:4). In this study, the simple regression analysis show relationship between organisational performance measures (dependent variables individually) and corporate reputation (independent variable). The model measured the impact of corporate reputation for each performance factor and if there exists a significant relationship. Consequently, the resultant model can also be used to assess its effectiveness to predict future trends. The following formula is the structure of any simple linear regression model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

Where:

- Y = the predicted value of the dependent variable (organisational performance factor)
- β_0 = the y-intercept (value of Y when all other factors are set to 0)
- β_1 = the regression coefficient (B_1) of the independent variable (X , corporate reputation), which reflects the effect that increases the value of the independent variable has on the predicted Y value.
- X = the value of the independent variable (corporate reputation)

Multiple linear regression similarly illustrates the relationship and predictive model between one dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Alexopoulos, 2010:4). In this study, our multiple regression analysis illustrates the relationship between corporate reputation

as the dependent against corporate social responsibility determinants as the independent variables. The model will measure if they are significant and non-significant influential factors by measuring their level and direction of impact towards the dependent variable. The following formula is the structure of any multiple linear regression model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_i X_i + \epsilon$$

Where:

- Y = the predicted value of the dependent variable (corporate reputation)
- β_0 = the y-intercept (value of Y when all other factors are set to 0)
- $\beta_1 X_1$ = the regression coefficient (B1) of the first independent variable (X_1 , might be any of the corporate social responsibility constructs), which reflects the effect that increases the value of the independent variable has on the predicted Y value.
... = do the same for however many independent variables you are testing
- $\beta_i X_i$ = the regression coefficient of the last independent variable
- ϵ = model error (how much variation there is in our estimate of Y)

In this study, the following regression equations were formulated;

Regression Equation 1 (Multiple Linear Regression Model)

$$\text{Corporate Reputation} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{SOCSR} + \beta_2 * \text{ETCSR} \pm \epsilon$$

Regression Equation 2 (Simple Linear regression Model)

$$\text{Social Performance} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{CR} \pm \epsilon$$

Regression Equation 3 (Simple Linear Regression Model)

$$\text{Operational Performance} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{CR} \pm \epsilon$$

6.8.1 Regression model 1: Five corporate social responsibility factors vs corporate reputation

The first regression model tested the relationships between corporate social responsibility factors (5) and corporate reputation. The corporate social responsibility factors viz PCSR, SCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR and SOCSR, were entered into the regression model as the independent variables, whilst corporate reputation was entered as the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26: Regression analysis model 1 results

Independent variables: Corporate social responsibility practices	Dependent variable: Corporate Reputation				Tol	VIF	
	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardised coefficients	T			Sig (p)
	B	Standard error	Beta (β)				
Constant	.196	.052		3.807	.000		
PCSR	-.001	.004	-.002	-.345	.730	.868	
SCSR	.951	.009	.983	105.437	.000	.523	
ENCSR	-.013	.011	-.011	-1.193	.234	.506	
ETCSR	.022	.010	.021	2.252	.025	.532	
SOCSR	.010	.008	.011	1.168	.244	.514	
R = 0.993 R ² = 0.985 Adjusted R ² = 0.985 F = 4338.798 *sig at p<0.001 PCSR=Political Corporate Social responsibility; SCSR=Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility; ENCSR=Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility; ETCSR=Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility; SOCSR=Social Corporate Social Responsibility; Tol-Tolerance; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor							

Source: Extracted from SPSS (Version 26.0)

Regression model one consists of multiple regression analysis. The results in Table 6.26 indicate that the five corporate social responsibility practices (adjusted R²=0.985) explained approximately 99 per cent of the variance of corporate reputation. The **R** = 0.993 denotes a very high correlation between predicted and observed corporate reputation; thus, our model predicts rather precisely (Ross & Willson, 2017:40; Kasuya, 2019:235). The tolerance and VIF values for all independent variables were within recommended limits (T> 0.5; VIF<10) and did not indicate any multi-collinearity severe threat (Daoud, 2017:4). This implies that the

correlated independent variables pose no effect on predictions between independent and dependent variables.

In the first multiple regression analysis, PCSR, SCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR, and SOCSR were tested to determine if they were predictors of corporate reputation. It was found that variables SOCSR ($\beta = 0.983$, $p = .000$), and ETCSR ($\beta = 0.021$, $p = .025$), were significant predictors of corporate reputation as they have acceptable p-values < 0.05 . Thus, indicates that 0.196 constant units plus SOCSR by 0.983 unit plus ETCSR by 0.021 units will result in a significant change of corporate reputation (Moiseev, 2017:1703).

However, PCSR ($\beta = -.002$, $p = 0.730$), ENCSR ($\beta = -.011$, $p = 0.234$) and SCSR ($\beta = 0.011$, $p = 0.244$) did not predict corporate reputation as they have p-values > 0.05 . This implies that there will be no significant change in corporate reputation by observing PCSR, ENCSR, and SCSR.

6.8.2 Regression model 2: Corporate reputation vs economic performance

The second regression model tested the relationships between corporate reputation and economic performance. Corporate reputation was entered into the regression model as the independent variable, while economic performance was the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 6.27.

Table 6.27: Regression analysis model 2 results

Independent variables: Corporate social responsibility practices	Dependent variable: Economic Performance				Tol	VIF	
	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardised coefficients	T			Sig (p)
	B	Standard error	Beta				
Constant	5.366	.427		12.575	.000		
Corporate reputation	-.075	.070	-.059	-1.066	.287	1.000	
R = 0.059 R ² = 0.003 Adjusted R ² = 0.000 F = 1.136 Tol- Tolerance; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor							

Source: Extracted from SPSS (Version 26.0)

The study sought to determine if corporate reputation can be used to predict economic performance. Table 6.27 shows that approximately 0.3% of economic performance can be

explained by corporate reputation. This implies that the model is less effective. However, the regression analysis entails that corporate reputation negatively influenced economic performance ($\beta=0.059$; $p=0.287$). This result suggests there will be no significant change in economic performance due to variation in corporate reputation. This is because of the Sig. Value is 0.287, which is more than the acceptable limit of 0.05.

6.8.3 Regression model 3: Corporate reputation vs operational performance

The second regression model tested the relationships between corporate reputation and operational performance. Corporate reputation was entered into the regression model as the independent variable, whilst the operational performance was the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 6.28.

Table 6.28: Regression analysis model 3 results.

Independent variables: Corporate social responsibility practices	Dependent variable: Operational Performance				Tol	VIF	
	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardised coefficients	T			Sig (p)
	B	Standard error	Beta				
Constant	6.289	.452		13.913	.000		
Corporate reputation	-.236	.074	-.172	-3.169	.002	1.000	
R = 0.172 R ² = 0.03 Adjusted R ² = 0.027 F = 10.040 *sig at p<0.002							
Tol= Tolerance; VIF= Variance Inflation Factor							

Source: Extracted from SPSS (Version 26.0)

From Table 6.28, the study findings reveal that approximately 3% of operational performance can be explained by corporate reputation. This implies that the model is likely to be less effective. In the regression analysis, corporate reputation exerted a significant negative influence on operational performance ($\beta = -0.172$; $p=0.002$). This infers that operational performance is inversely influenced by the corporate's reputation. A significant change in operational performance will result from a decrease in the corporate's reputation by -0.172 units because of the Sig. value is 0.002, which is less than the acceptable value of 0.05. With a 1% increase in corporate reputation, the operational performance will decrease by 0.236 % (B value).

6.8.4 Regression model 4: Corporate reputation vs social performance

The second regression model tested the relationships between corporate reputation and social performance. Corporate reputation was entered into the regression model as the independent variable, while social performance was the dependent variable. The results are presented in Table 6.29.

Table 6.29: Regression analysis model 4 results

Independent variables: Corporate social responsibility practices	Dependent variable: Social Performance				Tol	VIF	
	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardised coefficients	T			Sig (p)
	B	Standard error	Beta				
Constant	3.307	.394		8.400	.000		
Corporate reputation	.365	.065	.297	5.633	.000	1.000	
R = 0.297 R ² = 0.088 Adjusted R ² = 0.085 F = 31.727 *sig at p<0.000							
Tol= Tolerance; VIF= Variance Inflation Factor							

Source: Extracted from SPSS (Version 26.0)

Table 6.29 shows that approximately 9% of social performance can be explained by corporate reputation. This implies that the model is likely to be less effective, but it can be used considering that we have a single predictor. In the regression analysis, corporate reputation exerted a significant positive influence on social performance ($\beta=0.297$; $t=5.633$; $p=0.000$). This result demonstrates that social performance is directly influenced by the corporate's reputation. A significant change in social performance due to an increase of corporate's reputation by 0.297 unit, because of the Sig. value is 0.000, which is less than the acceptable value of 0.05. With a 1% increase in corporate reputation, social performance will increase by 0.365 % (B value).

6.9 HYPOTHESES DECISIONS

This section focuses on hypotheses decision based on the ones formulated at the beginning of the study. From the regression analysis in the previous section, we can determine if given hypotheses are supported or not supported using the p-value, as shown in Table 18 below. Most of the tests rely on using a statistic called the p-value to evaluate if we should reject, or fail to reject, the null hypothesis (Mangiafico, 2016:114). Given the assumption that the null hypothesis is true, the p-value is defined as the probability of obtaining a result equal to or

more extreme than what was observed in the data. In this study, the decision rule is derived from the alpha value of 0.005. This implies that for every hypothesis decision, the p-value is compared with the pre-determined alpha value. If the p-value for the test is less than alpha, we reject the null hypothesis. If the p-value is greater than or equal to alpha, the null hypothesis is accepted (Mangiafico, 2016:114).

Table 6.30: Hypotheses decision results

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta coefficient	t Value	p-Value	Supported/not supported
H1	PCSR→CR	-.002	-.345	.730	Not Supported
H2	SCSR→CR	.983	105.437	.000*	Supported
H3	ENCSR→CR	-.011	-1.193	.234	Not Supported
H4	ETCSR→CR	.021	2.252	.025*	Supported
H5	SOCSR→CR	.011	1.168	.244	Not Supported
H6	CR→EP	-.059	-1.066	.287	Not Supported
H7	CR→OP	-.172	-3.169	.002*	Supported
H8	CR→SP	.297	5.633	.000*	Supported

PCSR=Political Corporate Social Responsibility; SCSR=Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility; ENCSR=Environmental Corporate Social responsibility; ETCSR=Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility; SOCSR=Social Corporate Social Responsibility; CR=Corporate Reputation; EP= Economic Performance; OP= Operational Performance; SP= Social Performance

Source: Compiled by Author

In Table 6.30, coefficient value (Beta), t-value and p-value are used to determine hypothesis decision (Mangiafico, 2016:114). Amongst the nine hypotheses, four were supported; H2 (p=0.000), H4 (p=0.025), H7 (p=0.002) and H8(p=0.000). This means that stakeholder corporate social responsibility and ethical corporate social responsibility have a positive influence on corporate reputation, which has a positive influence on social and operational performance as the p-values are less than 0.005 acceptable level. However, four hypotheses (H1, H3, H5, H6) could not be supported as they have a p-value greater than the acceptable level of 0.005 to be statistically significant (Mangiafico, 2016:114).

6.10.1 Constructs hypothetical decisions

This section gives the individual hypothetical decisions for each of the constructs based on the correlation and regression analysis results. This led to acceptance or rejection of the formulated hypotheses.

6.10.1.1 Political corporate social responsibility (PCSR) and corporate reputation

The first hypothesis of the study indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between PCSR and reputation. Results in Table 6.25 show the respondents' views, which reveal the existence of a positive association between corporate reputation and political corporate social responsibilities activities ($r=0,325$; $p=0.00$) at a 1% significant level. This result suggests that an increase in PCSR increases the reputation of mining firms in Zimbabwe. This is consistent with previous studies conducted by En Hond, Rehbein, Bakker and Lankveld (2014:796), which established that corporate political activities by mining firms were found to have an impact on how the organisation interacts with the government. This includes policies and legislation that may be brought before parliament for consideration. Possible areas of interest include employees' welfare and remuneration.

This assertion shifts in regression analysis results PCSR ($\beta=-0.002$, $p=0.730$) does not predict corporate reputation as shown in Table 6.25. In this regard, although there is a relationship between PCSR and corporate reputation, PCSR cannot be used to statistically determine the predictive value of corporate reputation. Given the aforementioned, hypothesis H1 was rejected because the beta value ($\beta=0.002$) is almost zero, and the value of significance is ($p=0.730$), which is higher than 0.005, as shown in Table 6.30. This outcome was a result of how respondents interpreted the PCSR construct items. For example, the involvement of mining firms in organising political developments was viewed from a political partisan perspective. Furthermore, from the results of the descriptive statistics as shown in Table 6.15, respondents were not forthcoming in being part of the political activities. This shows that most respondents were distancing themselves from anything 'political' owing to the polarization of partisan politics that dominated Zimbabwe at the turn of the new millennium.

6.10.1.2 Stakeholder corporate social responsibility (SCSR) and corporate reputation

Table 6.25 shows that there is a strong positive association ($r=0.992$; $p=0.000$) between SCSR and corporate reputation. Furthermore, regression analysis results indicated that the SCSR construct could be used to predict corporate reputation value. This is shown in Table 6.25 ($\beta=0.983$; $p=0.000$), highlighting that SCSR has a high positive impact on corporate reputation. H2, which advocated for a significant association between stakeholders and corporate reputation, was accepted from the results, as shown in Table 6.30. It can be inferred that stakeholder perceptions about an organisation increase positive influence on the organisation's

reputation. It turns out that this positive reputation trend has multiple effects on stakeholders wanting to have repeated business relations with such organisations.

These results are consistent with previous studies (Ioan, 2011:779; Soroka & Mazurek-Kusiak, 2014:117) that have asserted that CSR is of strategic importance, as a company can utilise it to shape its brand image, raising its profile in the minds of its stakeholders. This brand image builds a significant positive relationship between stakeholder values and organisational reputation. The positive reputation attracts stakeholders' attention and interests to continue doing business with such firms. As such, most of the respondents realise the importance of both internal and external stakeholders for the success of the organisation.

6.10.1.3 Environmental corporate social responsibility (ENCSR) and corporate reputation

Another variable pursued in this research is ENCSR. Outcomes from the correlation analysis shown in Table 6.25 show a moderate positive relationship ($r=0.594$; $p=0.000$) at a 1% significant level. In this regard, firms are expected to take care of the physical environment in which they operate. Failure to perform this expected moral obligation will directly negate their reputation. However, in this study, ENCSR cannot be used as part of the predicting constructs towards corporate reputation. This is shown in Table 6.25 ($\beta=-0.11$; $p=0.234$), which indicates that ENCSR does not have a significant influence in determining the predictive value of corporate reputation. From the results, the formulated H3 hypothesis, which advocated for a significant association between ENCSR and corporate reputation, was rejected, as shown in Table 6.30. From the construct items, it can be noted that most of the items sought responses of what is generally expected from mining firms in terms of environmental practices. An analysis of the responses shows that most respondents simply agreed to the normal practices expected of any organisation, as shown in Table 6.14 (Mean=6.136). As a result, the change in observing these practices does not influence corporate reputation.

Previous studies (Tyagi, Garg & Paudel, 2014:1491; Ncube-Phiri, Mucherera & Ncube, 2015:5) highlight that mining is one human activity that destroys the environment at the altar of economic development; hence it is only logical that mining firms in Zimbabwe participate in land reclamation not as a gesture of goodwill but as an obligation expected of them. The Environmental Management Act (Chapter 20:27) even make it mandatory for firms engaging in mining projects to present specific measures of how to eliminate, reduce or mitigate any anticipated adverse effects the project may have on the environment, identifying ways of

monitoring and managing the environmental effects of the project (The Environmental Act Chapter 20:27:391).

6.10.1.4 Ethical corporate social responsibility (ETCSR) and corporate reputation

There is a moderate positive association between ETCSR and corporate reputation ($r=0.545$; $p=0.000$) significant at a 1% level as shown in Table 6.25. Furthermore, regression analysis results indicated that the ETCSR construct could be used to predict corporate reputation value ($\beta=0.021$; $p=0.025$). This is shown in Table 6.25, highlighting that ETCSR has a weak positive impact on corporate reputation. From the results, hypothesis H4, which advocated for a significant association between ETCSR and corporate reputation, was accepted, as shown in Table 6.30. This is acceptable as ethics is mainly focused on those activities done by firms outside the coded values. For example, if firms perform activities outside the norm, there is a likelihood of high appreciation by stakeholders and, in the process, influence their reputation. In this case, an analysis of the items indicates that some mining firms commit themselves to helping communities with projects support and initiatives. These may include assisting communities to construct schools, clinics, offering technical and material support to farmers and scholarships to underprivileged students. Sharma (2011:3) highlights that business ethics involves adhering to legal, professional, regulatory and company standards, keeping promises and commitments and abiding by general principles like truth, fairness, honesty and respect. All this points to doing things right as this builds trust among their employees, customers, shareholders, and the wider community, which is undoubtedly good for business. Inversely, unethical behaviours have cost business organisations reputation and loss of revenue as customers and investors want to be associated with good behaviour. Sroka and Szántó (2018:115) concur that ethical behaviour and CSR can significantly benefit a business. For example, some of the immediate benefits include:

- attracting customers to the company's products, thereby boosting sales and profits;
- ensuring that employees want to stay with the business, reducing labour turnover and therefore increasing productivity;
- attracting more employees wanting to work for the business, thus enabling the company to hire the most talented employees;
- attracting investors and keeping the company's share price high, thereby protecting the business from takeover.

In contrast, unethical behaviour or a lack of corporate social responsibility may damage a company's reputation and make it less appealing to shareholders, leading to a fall in profits.

6.10.1.5 Social corporate social responsibility (SOCSR) and corporate reputation

The results in Table 6.25 show the respondents' views, which reveal the existence of a positive association between corporate reputation and social corporate social responsibilities activities ($r=0,559$; $p=0.00$) at a 1% significant level. This can be attributed to the concern shown by mining firms towards the employees' and communities' welfare. This is consistent with previous studies conducted by Książak (2016:60) and Das (2017:1), which both established that the organisation is a social unit that utilises resources from the locals for its economic performance hence the need to plough back to the community. However, the regression analysis results SOCSR ($\beta=0.011$, $p=0.244$) does not predict corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. In this regard, although there is a relationship between SOCSR and corporate reputation, SOCSR cannot be used to statistically determine the predictive value of corporate reputation. Given the aforementioned, the alternative hypothesis was accepted based on H_1 (SOCSR \rightarrow Corporate reputation = Not supported, $p=0.244$) as shown in Table 6.30, and the null hypothesis was rejected. This outcome was a result of how respondents interpreted the SOCSR construct items. For example, the involvement of mining firms in supporting employees and community projects is expected by stakeholders; hence SOCSR activities carried by mining firms are less likely to bring significant reflection towards corporate reputation (Willmott & Edward, 2011:4). From the results of the descriptive statistics as shown in Table 6.15, respondents simply acknowledged what is expected of mining firms in terms of social responsibility.

6.10.1.6 Economic performance

To determine the organisational performance based on corporate reputation, this study pursued the economic performance variable. In this regard, outcomes from the correlation analysis, as shown in Table 6.25, show a weak negative but non-significant relationship ($r=-0.059$; $p=0.287$). Furthermore, Table 6.26 ($\beta=-0.059$; $p=0.287$) indicates that corporate reputation does not have a significant influence in determining the predictive value of economic performance. From the results, the formulated alternative hypothesis, which advocated for an insignificant relationship between corporate reputation and economic performance, was accepted as shown in Table 6.30 (Corporate Reputation \rightarrow Economic Performance = Not Supported, $p=0.287$) and

the null was rejected. From the construct items, it can be noted that most of the items sought responses of capital-intensive activities; hence most respondents expressed their honest opinion on the performance of their firms. An analysis of the corporate reputation items shows that corporate reputation can drive economic performance, although respondents from economic performance realised that most of the items focused on long-term achievements. As a result, the change in corporate reputation does not influence economic performance in the short term but can be realised as a long-term goal. In this regard, by engaging in CSR activities, the organisations reach out to investors who value such activities, despite the investments' negative impact on the firm's present value of cash flows. This suggests that there can be a positive correlation between socially responsible investments and firm value, despite the investments' negative impact on the present value of cash flows (Alhammadi, 2018:8).

6.10.1.7 Operational performance

Table 6.25 shows a weak negative relationship ($r=-0.172$; $p=0.002$) between corporate reputation and operational performance. In the same vein, regression analysis results indicated that the corporate reputation construct could be used in predicting operational performance value to a lesser extent. This is shown in Table 6.27 ($\beta=-0.172$; $p=0.002$) corporate reputation, which highlights a weak positive impact on operational performance. From the results, the formulated null hypothesis, which advocated for a significant relationship between corporate reputation and operational performance, was accepted as shown in Table 6.30 (Corporate reputation \rightarrow Operational performance =Supported, $p=0.002$) and the alternative rejected. It can be inferred that corporate reputation gain will result in a decrease in operational performance and conversely. For instance, to satisfy corporate needs, a firm has to experience more operational costs. However, this negation towards operational performance can only be experienced at the project's formative years of the project, but this may result in simultaneous gains of corporate reputation and operational performance in the long term. For example, a firm purchases machinery that is not environmentally friendly. This will work adversely towards gaining a positive corporate reputation. Conversely, if the same firm acquires environmentally friendly machinery, it might be operationally expensive initially but will break even in the long term and continue gaining corporate reputation (Luu Trong, 2012: 158; Adeosun & Ganiyu, 2013:221; Alhammadi, 2018:7).

6.10.1.8 Social performance

As shown in Table 6.25, the results show a marginal positive relationship ($r=0.297$; $p=0.000$) between operational performance and social performance. Furthermore, regression analysis results indicated that the corporate reputation construct could be used in predicting social performance value. This is shown in Table 6.28 ($\beta=0.297$; $p=0.000$), where corporate reputation exerts a significant positive influence on social performance. From the findings, the formulated null hypothesis, which advocated for a significant relationship between corporate reputation and social performance, was accepted as shown in Table 6.30 (Corporate reputation \rightarrow Social performance = Supported, $p=0.000$) and the alternative rejected. It can be inferred that corporate reputation gain will result in an increase in social performance and conversely. In this regard, social performance looks beyond just profits but brings in the element of the triple bottom line, which incorporates the environment, economic performance of the firm and the people. (Sudha, 2015:59; Behringer & Szegedi, 2016:14).

6.10.1.9 The link between the results of the study to the stakeholder and social exchange theories

This section discusses the linkage between the study results and the research theories used, namely, the stakeholder and social exchange. The theories were discussed in detail in chapter one and further explained in chapters three and four. In this study, the stakeholder and social exchange theories formed the lens through which the results were observed and analysed. In this context, this section focuses on the link between the results and theories that formed the conceptual framework.

6.10.1.10 The link between the results of the study to stakeholder theory

The stakeholder theory focused on organisational management and business ethics penciled to address morality and values in managing an organisation. This was done to adapt the sphere of accountability from those directly benefitting from the business activities to include those affected or affected (Colvin, Witt & Lacey, 2020:3; Harrison, Freeman, Abreu, 2015:858). In this regard, the theory accounts for multiple constituencies that include suppliers, employees, government, shareholders, local communities, creditors, among others impacted by organisational activities (Jamali & Carroll, 2017:321; Saleem, Zhang-Zhang, Malik & Allui, 2020:20). In addition, these groups are affected by the organisation's operations directly or indirectly since they form part of the business organisation's value chain system. As such, they are interconnected and dependent on each other in their quest to broaden the value system of the business organisation (Harrison, Freeman, Abreu, 2015:859; Freeman, Phillips & Sisodla,

2020:217). To achieve this interconnectedness, stakeholder interests need to be addressed to ensure that every constituency participates actively in the organisational processes and decisions. Furthermore, emphasis is on continuous engagement through robust communication and participation in various platforms that enable stakeholders to dialogue on issues of concern.

From the above discussion, it can be noted that the stakeholder theory centres on mutual relationships organised in social categories depending on the nature of the relationship between the firm and these groups. These groups are firm-centric, owing to the relationship between the firm and society (Ali & Abdelfettah, 2016:41; Colvin, Witt & Lacey, 2020:114). In addition, this is because these groups are founded on the collaborative effort which benefits the business organisation and the stakeholders. Thus, CSR practices could be implemented through stakeholder engagement and participation in organisational activities and projects. In addition, this study revealed that mining firms in Zimbabwe could adopt and implement CSR practices based on stakeholder consultation outcomes. This increases mining firms' accountability on the various stakeholders, from those that benefit directly to those that can affect or be affected by the organisation's activities. In this regard, harmonisation and harnessing stakeholder involvement results in value creation which can transform the performance of mining firms. As such, stakeholders can be both recipients and creators or co-creators in joint value creation processes (Freudenreich, Lüdeke-Freund, Schaltegger, 2020:6).

In light of the above, multi-stakeholder involvement and collaboration create an expertise and resource base that can benefit the mining firms towards achieving core business goals. This concurs with the results from this study, which established that stakeholders are a crucial component for mining sector organisations in Zimbabwe. This is evidenced by Pearson correlation results which indicated a strong positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.992$; $p=0.00$) between stakeholder corporate social responsibility and reputation, buttressing the impact stakeholders have on mining firms. Furthermore, Pearson correlation indicated a positive and significant correlation between ethical corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation ($r = 0.545$; $p = 0.00$). This makes stakeholders key when handled ethically, implying upholding business values and morality acceptable by clients.

6.10.1.11 *The link between the results of the study and social exchange theory*

Social exchange theory was also used in conjunction with stakeholder theory as a surrogate to buttress the interactions involving organisations and stakeholders in transactions. In these interactions, emphasis is placed on cost-benefit analysis where stakeholders are motivated to get some valued rewards from the forfeiture of treasurable assets (Redmond, 2015:7; Nunkoo, 2016:588). These interactions are influenced by social exchanges created through interpersonal commitments, collective actions, including procedural interactions, fairness, and other social issues (Nunkoo, 2016:589; Cook, Cheshire, Rice & Nakagawa, 2013:61). This implies that social exchange occurs when two parties or more strike a compromise that benefits everyone involved. Furthermore, the underlying principles of social exchange are based on reciprocity as parties involved in a mutual deal depend on each other. For example, if an individual offers another a benefit, the receiving individual is obliged to return the favour. These social exchange interactions can be rewarding when parties benefit or costly (Nunkoo, 2016:590; Wang, Xiang, Yang & Ma, 2019:871).

Resources exchanged may be social, including pleasure, satisfaction, gratification, love, status and/or economic, including money, information, goods and services (Redmond, 2015:8; Nunkoo, 2016:594; Wang *et al.*, 2019:870). With the hindsight of the main tenets of social exchange, it can be noted that mining firms in Zimbabwe can use CSR practices to address the concerns of stakeholders through an exchange process that creates value for each stakeholder group. In this regard, communities can be given information on mining operations and how these communities benefit from the organisation. Information can also be shared as financial statements, CSR reports, including consultation and feedback. Eventually, if transactions are done transparently, this will lead to satisfaction and trust among stakeholders. In return, stakeholders will return the favour through loyalty, continued support and goodwill. It must be noted that these theories were not working in isolation but were integrated to form the basis of the conceptual framework. All put together; the theories are solidified on cohesion, solidarity and reciprocity.

This study indicated a marginal positive relationship ($r=0.297$; $p=0.000$) between corporate reputation and social performance, suggesting that corporate reputation can be used in predicting social performance value implying corporate reputation exerts a significant positive influence on social performance. From the results, reputation can be attained through addressing stakeholders' concerns and contributions to mining firms. The positive reputation reviews of mining firms are deemed to influence social performance. This exchange is

triggered by social licence given to mining firms by stakeholders, and in turn, mining firms respond by giving back to communities. In addition, this resonates well with social exchange theory values such as satisfaction, gratification, information and even monetary gains, which act as stimulants for reciprocity between stakeholders and mining firms (Zoller & Muldoon, 2019:47). Therefore, this study proposes that mining companies should adopt and implement CSR practices that promote stakeholder engagement, especially on issues of concern due to the operations of the mining firms.

From the discussion, it can be concluded that CSR practices adopted and implemented following the social exchange theory can influence reciprocity based on trust and transparency. This implies that mining firms that invest in mining generate profits while the owners or custodians of mineral wealth get compensation through improved social amenities.

6.10 RELIABILITY TEST

The reliability test conducted in this study was based on Cronbach’s alpha, as highlighted in Table 6.31 below. The Cronbach’s alpha determines the consistency degree of our research instrument, with a degree above 0.7 being acceptable (Ambrose, Marshall & Lynch, 2010:123).

Table 6.31: Scale Reliability results

Variable	Question items	Number of items	Cronbach’s Alpha
PCSR	Our firm supports activities organised by civil society groups	4	0.787
	Our firm has a good working relationship with the government through honest disclosure of its activities		
	Our firm has plans that result in harmony among public sector groups		
	Our firm has support from the government through its philanthropic work		
SCSR	Our firm has a good relationship with its suppliers	4	0.707
	Our firm has a good relationship with its customers		
	Our firm prioritises employee training needs		
	Our management consults the board of directors before making decisions		
ENCSR	Our firm is involved in environmental awareness programmes	6	0.729
	Our firm assists communities to take care of the environment		

	Our firm initiates environment sustainability programmes		
	Our firm adheres strictly to environmental laws and regulations		
	In our firm, waste management strategies are being implemented		
	Our firm promotes and organises conservation programmes		
ETCSR	Our firm is known for honesty, fairness and integrity	7	0.751
	Our firm employs fair labour practices		
	Our firm's procurement follows laid down procedures		
	Our firm spends a significant percentage of its profits on community development		
	Our firm is an equal opportunity employer		
	Our firm is guided by the labour laws of the country		
	Our firm uses the least harmful processes to protect people and animals		
SOCSR	Our firm invests in employee motivation and social welfare	4	0.708
	We have attractive remuneration packages		
	Our firm's social responsibility programmes are designed in consultation with the community		
	Our firm donates in cash or kind to surrounding local communities as a gesture of social support		
Corporate Reputation	Our firm is known for high-quality service	5	0.795
	Our firm emphasises courtesy to customers		
	Our firm is known for customer satisfaction		
	Our firm is known for transparency		
	Our firm has competitive remuneration packages for its employees		
Economic Performance	Our firm has experienced lower capital costs	5	0.782
	Our firm has a healthy financial position		
	Our firm has increased investor confidence		
	Our firm has experienced a high sales growth		
	Our firm has been able to service its debts		
Operational Performance	Our firm has reduced operational costs	5	0.850
	Our firm has experienced high operating cash flows		
	Our firm has a high machinery capacity.		
	Our firm has achieved low unit material consumption		

	Our firm's board of directors are guided by corporate governance guidelines		
Social Performance	Our firm has long term plans for social development	6	0.766
	Our firm involves the community in outsourcing materials and consumables		
	Our firm works with other development partners in improving social amenities		
	Our firm discloses its social responsibility programmes in the media		
	Our firm's participation in social development programmes is based on a set budget		
	Our firm engages in social change programmes as part of its set objectives		

Source: Compiled by Author

Table 6.31 above shows that all variables exceeded the 0.7 minimum threshold, meaning they proved to have an acceptable internal consistency. The alpha values for the constructs were as follows; political corporate social responsibility ($\alpha=0.787$), stakeholder corporate social responsibility ($\alpha=0.707$), environmental corporate social responsibility ($\alpha=0.729$), ethical corporate social responsibility ($\alpha=0.751$), social corporate social responsibility ($\alpha=0.708$), corporate reputation ($\alpha=0.795$), economic performance ($\alpha=0.782$), operational performance ($\alpha=0.850$) and social performance corporate social responsibility ($\alpha=0.766$).

6.11 VALIDITY

This section discusses how four validities (face, content, construct and predictive) were ascertained in this study.

Validity reflects how accurately the research instrument measures the constructs. If the instrument measures what it claims to measure, and the results relatively correspond to real-world values, it can be considered effective. This section discusses how four validities (face, content, construct and predictive) were ascertained in this study.

6.11.1 Face validity

Face validity and content validity are two forms of validity that are usually assessed qualitatively. A survey has face validity if, in the view of the respondents, the questions measure what they are intended to measure. In this study, face validity was ascertained by sharing the initial questionnaire with the promoter of the study and an expert from the mining industry. The two contributed to a review and assessments in improving the research instrument

to meet the standards of the measured scope. Their suggestions were incorporated in the questionnaire after they attested to the content of the initial questionnaire.

6.11.2 Content validity

A survey has content validity if, in the view of experts, the survey contains questions that cover all aspects of the constructs being measured. A thorough literature review was done to ensure content validity, and operational definitions of terms were provided. In addition, the revised questionnaire from field expert and study promoter, a pilot study was conducted as shown in Table 6.1. The pilot study ensured that the information requested in the survey was presented and understood without any ambiguity by the respondents. From Table 6.30, the results indicated that most items alienated to measure the corresponding variables above 0.7 acceptable Cronbach's alpha as only one item, measuring CR, was discarded. Again, the questionnaire was modified using the feedback obtained from the pilot sample.

6.11.3 Criterion validity

Criterion validity is the extent to which the measures derived from the survey relate to other external criteria. These external criteria can either be concurrent or predictive. Concurrent validity criteria are measured simultaneously as the survey, either with questions embedded within the survey or measures obtained from other sources. It could be how well the measures derived from the survey correlate with another established. In this study, Pearson correlation was employed to ensure concurrent existence. From Table 6.25, there is the existence of significant correlations between most of the measured constructs and another revealing an association.

Predictive validity criteria assess a situation in the future if the conducted survey can regress the required input for an approximated output. To ascertain the predictive criteria, this study conducted simple and multiple regression analysis (cf 6.8). From Table 6.25, we conclude that the survey outcome model can be implemented to predict future trends can be used in forecasting future trends of corporate reputation level as it indicated a highly effective model (adjusted $R^2=0.985$; $p<0.05$). Further, corporate reputation also indicated a significant influence in predicting operational performance and social performance constructs, as shown in Table 6.27 and Table 6.28, respectively.

6.11.4 Construct validity

Construct validity is the degree to which the survey measures the theoretical construct it is proposed to measure, and as such, comprehends many, if not all, validity concepts rather than being viewed as a separate definition. This study ensured for the two variants of construct validity, which are convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity infers that the scores derived from the measuring instrument correlate with the scores derived from similar variables (Oluwatayo, 2012:393). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess convergent validity in this study by indicating how the questionnaire items are correlated (Brown & Moore, 2012:361; Marsh, Morin, Parker & Kaur, 2014:85). From Table 6.5, convergent validity was considered acceptable if each item loading was at least 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2015:34). All items with loadings less than 0.5 were deleted from the scales as they could have compromised the instrument's validity (Agarwal, 2013:33).

In contrast, discriminant validity determines if the indicators expected to measure different concepts are doing so. Using the correlation conducted in this study, we can deduce that discriminant validity was ensured as there are low correlation coefficients between CSR constructs to organisational performance. Further, the correlation between CSR variables is deemed to be higher in comparison if against performance constructs proving they measure the same indicator. Results are shown in Table 6.25.

6.12 COMMON METHOD BIAS (CMB)

Self-administered surveys are a common data collection technique widely used in research in various social science research fields. Although this is a commonly used method, its limitations require due attention to avoid bias. Common method bias is viewed as a systematic variance attributable to common measurement artefacts that alter correlations in underlying constructs (Chin, Thatcher & Wright, 2012:1004). In addition, surveys also pose a threat of common method variance (CMV) or common method bias (CMB) that can affect the reliability and validity of the empirical results (Kock, Berbekova & Assaf, 2020:2). Furthermore, the trio opines that common methods bias is defined as systematic error variance that stems from a common method used to measure the constructs of the study. This occurs when both the independent and dependent variables are measured in the same survey using the same (i.e., common) response method. As a result, there have been numerous discussions in several research domains on recognising, avoiding, and controlling common technique bias. Jordan and Troth (2020:4) concur with the foregoing, adding that CMB occurs in survey research when all data (independent variables, dependent variables and mediating and moderating

variables) are collected using the same method, potentially resulting in the artificial intelligence inflation of relationships.

6.12.1 Importance of addressing common method bias

Common method bias can lead to the distorted outcome of results. Kock *et al.* (2020:2) opine that there is a general agreement across disciplines that CMB can significantly impact the empirical results derived from the study's conclusions. CMB limitations usually compromise the integrity of the study. This is owed to various reasons, as summarised by Jordan and Troth (2020:5); that response tendencies that raters can apply uniformly across measures. This could be due to social desirability tendencies, dispositional mood states, or inclinations on the part of the respondent to acquiesce or respond in a lenient, moderate or extreme way. CMB can also occur due to similarities in the structure or wording of survey items. This may lead to the generation of similar responses by respondents. In addition, the proximity of items in an instrument can influence response patterns by respondents. Invariably similarity in the timing, medium, or location in which measurement data are collected can also lead to bias.

6.12.2 Common method bias remedies

The researcher in this study made a deliberate effort to control common method bias to avoid inflating or deflating the results of relationships between constructs. This often affects the reliability and validity of measures (Jordan & Troth, 2020:5; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003:879). Furthermore, CMB can also affect hypothesis testing leading to incorrect views attributed to a criterion. In the end, the validity scale is also distorted. In pursuit of these possible shortcomings resulting from bias, the following measures were taken to control bias (Podsakoff, Philip, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012:548; Kock *et al.*, 2020:2).

6.12.2.1 Diverse sources:

The study used different sources for the independent and dependent variables to eliminate bias. According to Podsakoff *et al.* (2012), one of the two key ways in which this can be done is to obtain either the predictor measure(s) from one person or the criterion measure(s) from another. In line with this, this study had varied data sources to cross-pollinate the responses and eliminate bias.

6.12.2.2 Research instrument:

The study used the questionnaire, which was designed with clear instructions that ensured the anonymity of responses. Furthermore, the items avoided complexity and ambiguity to enable

respondents to give a personalised and independent opinion. Above all, the survey instrument was concise and user friendly and guided by ethical considerations. The organisations were offered the chance to request the study on completion. Jordan and Troth (2020:7) highlight that promising feedback may also motivate greater accuracy. Similarly, keeping the survey short and minimising redundant measures and overlap should help participants give more accurate responses.

6.12.2.3 *Harman's single factor test:*

The study made use of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which was performed to determine the factor structure of the data collected based on the relationship of constructs and items. This was to detect the common method variance between constructs and items. All variables are subjected to factor analysis, and the outcome can be a single factor, or one will account for a majority of covariance among measures. This will confirm or dispel the existence of CMB.

6.12.2.4 *Eliminating common scale properties:*

Measures of scale format similarity were removed as these could lead respondents to view question formats in the same manner as preceding measures owing to similarity.

6.12.2.5 *Improving scale items clarity:*

This study eliminated words with multiple meanings and ideas as a way of restricting respondents from constructing their meanings. Furthermore, the study did not use conjunctions not to link ideas, leading to distortions of meanings. Podsakoff *et al.* (2012:551) opine that the best solution to this problem is to make every effort to: keep the questions simple, specific, and concise; define ambiguous or unfamiliar terms; decompose questions relating to more than one possibility into simpler, more focused questions; avoid vague concepts and provide examples when such concepts must be used; avoid double-barrelled questions, and avoid complicated syntax.

The preceding section suggests that CMB is a phenomenon that should be considered in today's research as it contributes to how variables are measured and the outcomes of research results. It is acknowledged that perfect measures rarely exist (Dhurup, 2021:9), but CMB manages research outcomes' reliability, validity, and integrity.

6.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented data, analysed it and presented findings of the study enabling the researcher to come up with generalisations and draw conclusions. In this regard, the chapter presented the results of the study in a sequence beginning with the pilot study, which was conducted test validity of research instrument; Section 6.3 presented the results of the main study, beginning with the response rate, followed by the demographic details of respondents outlining the gender, age and highest qualifications. This was followed by demographic details of the selected mining firms focusing on; the number of years in operation, number of employees, type of mineral and turnover per annum quoted in United States Dollars (USD). Section 6.4 presented the exploratory factor analysis; Section 6.5 presented the descriptive statistics for constructs; Section 6.6 presented results based on Pearson's correlation. 6.7 regression analysis resulting in models 6.8 reliabilities of constructs 6.9 hypotheses decisions, drawn from hypothetical propositions 6.10 reliability test 6.11 validity of results and 6.12 common method bias.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the findings of the study in line with the objectives derived in chapter 1. In this chapter, major highlights of the previous chapters in this study are summarized under the following subheadings: summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations, limitations of the study and areas for further research.

Firstly, conclusions based on the theoretical objectives will be examined and presented. Secondly, draw conclusions based on the empirical objectives of the study. Thirdly, the chapter presents recommendations based on the outcomes of the study results to come up with strategies for promoting CSR and improving corporate reputation in mining firms in Zimbabwe. Fourthly the chapter outlines the study's limitations as it is vital to give shortcomings of the study during research. Last but not least, the chapter provides empirical and theoretical contributions of the study and possible areas of further research.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE THESIS

This study aimed to establish the influence of CSR practices on corporate reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. To unpack this, the study is composed of seven chapters, each dealing with a specific concept. A summary of each chapter is given below.

Chapter 1 provides the research gap leading to the problem statement that acted as the foundation of the study. This led to the outline of the study through the primary objective, secondary objectives encompassing theoretical and empirical objectives of the study. The theoretical framework comprised of stakeholder and social exchange theories provided the lens through which the study was observed. This resulted in the formulation of the conceptual framework illustrating the relationship between CSR practices, corporate reputation and performance. The conceptual framework became the basis for the formulation of research hypotheses.

Chapter 2 reviewed literature on the developmental history of mining in Zimbabwe during the colonial and post-colonial periods. The chapter gives a picture of the mining sector by raising mining issues specific to Zimbabwe and unlocking the state of mining historically up to the present day. The focus was on the mining sector's composition, regulatory bodies controlling mining activities, the legal framework governing the mining sector, the impact of mining on the economy, environment, and politics. In addition, challenges facing the mining sector were outlined.

Chapter 3 provided an overview of CSR concerning the concept and its developmental stages grounded in the theoretical framework crafted in chapter 1. At the centre of the review was the conceptualisation of CSR, its origins and practices, determinants of CSR, importance and benefits of CSR, measurement of CSR, characteristics of CSR and dimensions. These aspects mentioned above were looked at from a global perspective, narrowing down to the Zimbabwean context.

Chapter 4 discussed corporate reputation as the mediating variable and corporate performance as the outcome variable. In this context, the chapter gave an overview of corporate reputation and corporate performance, their determinants, importance and benefits. Furthermore, the measurement matrix of corporate reputation and corporate performance was explored. These created the basis for the analysis of formulated hypotheses about the derived conceptual framework.

Chapter 5 discussed the research methodology to guide the data collection, presentation, analysis and discussion. The chapter looked at the research paradigm with emphasis on research reasoning and philosophies. Furthermore, the research approach, design and the time horizon selected for this research were examined. The sampling design was laid out regarding population, sampling frame, sample size and targeted respondents from the selected mining firms. In addition, this chapter looked at data collection instruments, their validity and reliability through a pilot study. Lastly, data collection procedures, analysis and ethical considerations were outlined.

Chapter 6 focused on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings. Under this, correlation and regression analysis created the basis for the establishment of relations between variables. Exploratory factor analysis was used to establish the suitability of items to variables. For the reliability of the collected data, the Cronbach Alpha test was employed, while face, content, construct and predictive validity were used to align the fitness of purpose for the data

collection instrument. Collectively, this created the platform for presenting and analysing the findings on the issue under investigation. The statistical analysis presented findings as follows; Section 6.2 results of the pilot study; Section 6.3 descriptive analysis of the findings according to response rate, respondents' demographic information. In addition, demographic information of selected mining firms in terms of the number of years in operation, number of employees, type of mineral and turnover per annum were explored.

Furthermore, in Section 6.5, descriptive statistics for constructs as outlined in Chapter 1 were analysed. This led to generalisations, leading to conclusions based on identified empirical objectives. As a result, Section 6.6 outlined relationships between variables using Pearson's correlation, Section 6.7 Regression analysis, Section 6.8 Reliabilities, Section 6.9 hypotheses decisions, and Section 6.10. validity of results.

From these, the following major results were obtained; the levels of adoption and implementation CSR, corporate reputation and corporate performance in the mining sector were observed to be positive throughout by indicating mean scores above 4 (neutral to agreeing). About the CSR variables, four (SCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR, SOCSR) out of the five variables posted a mean score above four, indicating that most respondents agreed that most organisations engaged in these CSR practices, as shown in Table 6.1.4. Secondly, the Pearson correlation established some significant relationships between CSR and corporate reputation and corporate performance. From Table 6.25, the most notable correlation was between SCSR and corporate reputation ($r=0.992$; $p=0.000$), reflecting the strongest positive, inferring that a change in either variable is positively related to the other in many ways than one.

In addition, regression analysis established that there is a marginal influence of corporate reputation on corporate performance, as shown in Tables 6.27 and 6.28. Out of the five predictor independent variables, two (SCSR and ETCSR) were found to be strong predictors of corporate reputation. The other three (PCSR, SOCSR and ENCSR) were found to have an insignificant influence on corporate reputation (Table 6.25). These major findings act as the basis for the conclusions to be outlined in the next section.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

This section discusses the conclusion based on the theoretical objectives of the study as formulated in Chapter one (1.3.3).

7.3.1 Overview of mining in Zimbabwe

The first objective focused on the literature review on the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This objective was achieved through chapter two, which dealt with obtaining sector status in Zimbabwe. The review gave insight into the composition of the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This revealed that the mining sector in Zimbabwe is composed of two sectors, namely the domestic and multinational corporations constituting the small- and large-scale mining entities, respectively. These two are partnered with the small to medium mining companies mainly made up of locals. From the review, it emerged that the Zimbabwean mining sector is composed of small-scale and large-scale mining establishments. Of interest is the fast-dominating informal artisanal miners who have made significant contributions to the Zimbabwean economy. This sector remains a thorn in the flesh for the Zimbabwean government due to its unregulated operations, which have negatively impacted the environment. The artisanal miners have become a threat to themselves through accidents which have been on the increase.

Furthermore, the mining sector in Zimbabwe is now being dominated by new minerals, namely platinum and diamonds. However, gold remains the most dominant, especially in the informal artisanal miners. One crucial fact is that the mining sector in Zimbabwe went through a political revolution through the indigenisation and empowerment agenda meant to bring on board the black majority Zimbabweans in the sector as this had previously been dominated by multinational companies. The Indigenisation and Empowerment Act Chapter 14:33 of 2007 was the piece of legislation that gave birth to the 51-49 per cent shareholding. This was a turning point in the mining sector which saw most black Zimbabweans join the sector. The move had positive and negative impacts on the political, socio-economic fronts.

7.3.2 Conclusions on the literature review on the conceptualisation of CSR practices about corporate reputation and performance

The second theoretical objective focused on conceptualising the CSR concept, achieved through literature review in chapter three. This saw the chapter establishing the origins of CSR practices. Emerging facts were that the concept started in the United States of America in the twentieth century and eventually moved to Europe during the industrial revolution, then Asia

and Africa in recent years. The concept gained prominence in the 1950s, where it got appreciated through renowned scholars like Bowen to become part of the business. The concept was to develop through a ten-year developmental process, with each decade focusing on specific issues. The issues included morality encompassing the ethical component of doing business in the right ways, philanthropy, stakeholder involvement and CSR as a business strategy.

To gain more insight into the CSR concept, the chapter also offered various perceptions and interpretations of CSR held by scholars which emerged over the years. Some of the views suggest that CSR is those voluntary business activities that include social and environmental concerns within communities, giving rise to the triple bottom line concept. This led to business organisations incorporating CSR being labelled corporate citizens, responsible businesses, responsible investments, corporate accountability, triple bottom line, shared value, sustainability, among many other terms. All this became dominant in the 21st Century. During this period, the concept was used to address and respond to all the issues and concerns raised by stakeholders.

The chapter further inferred the characteristics of CSR, which were outlined as follows; firstly, CSR is generally considered to be a voluntary act that surpasses prescriptions of the law; secondly, CSR is seen as a mechanism of managing the impact of business activities on the external environment, thirdly CSR is perceived as a way of considering different stakeholder interests, fourthly it is viewed as a way of reducing conflicts through aligning social and economic stakeholder interests and, fifthly CSR is ethical as it focuses on the consequences of one's behaviour on others. Lastly, CSR is now considered part of the main business practice as it goes beyond philanthropy.

The benefits of CSR to both the organisation and society were also discussed. Business organisations now draw benefits such as good reputation as the concept spurs customer loyalty to goods and services offered. This brings in long-term profitability and competitive advantage against competitors. To society, CSR uplifts the lives of the stakeholders through improvement in the standard of living. The chapter also looked at the importance of CSR, drawing from its advantages and advantages. CSR is now considered a vibrant business strategy that strengthens business performance through attracting the best expertise and gaining popularity through 'doing good.'

The chapter further discusses the determinants of CSR, including ownership, size of the organisation, industry sector, governance mechanism, age of the organisation, and profitability. Focus is then shifted to the benefits drawn from CSR at the organisational level. This addressed issues to do with employee welfare and other key stakeholders that affect operations within and without the organisation. Benefits to the society were also discussed with particular attention to communities that co-exist with business organisations.

This led to CSR measurement as a mechanism to assess resources utilisation from an informed position. In this regard, decisions on efficient and effective uses and allocation of resources, especially among stakeholders, take precedence. In instances where there is a conflict of interest among stakeholders' decisions are revised and accordingly aligned. Dimensions of CSR are also discussed with a view of how each variable influences CSR activities. Among those discussed include political, social, ethical, production, environmental and economic variables.

The chapter also looked at previous management studies that focused on CSR in the Zimbabwean context to appreciate the level of popularity of the concept. Among them was one which focused on determinants and experiences of CSR practices in Zimbabwean extractive industries. The study recommended that the companies benefitting from extractive resources should finance social programs in the country and create pathways for sustainable CSR implantation.

Another study focused on the relevance of community development and corporate social responsibility in the advent of indigenisation and empowerment programmes in Zimbabwe. The outcomes showed that CSR programmes done by the business organisations were targeted at pacifying the local populace to get a social licence to operate. The recommendations of the research point to the need for Government to introduce mechanisms that help mining companies to use some of their profits to improve local communities in a transparent and accountable manner to ensure that business operations benefit all citizens. Thus, CSR practices could be done by working with local communities by consulting on issues that affect them. This becomes part of promoting real community development meant to assist locals to improve their lives.

Although the concept is slowly gaining popularity in Africa, the conceptualisation of the concept in the Zimbabwean context raised several red flags. Firstly, CSR development and adoption in Zimbabwe is still at the embryonic stage because of several factors. To begin with,

the economic environment presented to business organisations operating in Zimbabwe is not favourable. The country is under an economic embargo through sanctions by the United States and European Union countries. This has brought down international trade and terminated foreign currency inflows. As a result, the economic environment does not attract investment. This is so because of several challenges, including power cuts, high tariffs, corruption, and other underhand dealings that do not support economic growth. Business organisations are currently working to remain afloat and survive the unfavourable economic tide. This means CSR remains a pipe dream for it to be fully adopted and appreciated. Business organisations that have attempted to integrate CSR activities are engaged in philanthropic work. Most of these activities lack disclosure and are done to justify existence.

7.3.3 Conclusions on the literature review on corporate reputation

The third theoretical objective was intended to give an in-depth understanding of corporate reputation as a critical component of the study. This was achieved through chapter four which reviewed the literature on corporate reputation. The main thrust was to establish the impact of corporate reputation on the business organisations that practice CSR. Emerging facts are that corporate reputation is an intangible concept achieved over time based on an organisation's treatment of its stakeholders. Corporate reputation in this context is built on the past and the present based on the actions or activities of business organisations. The process has to do with image building which can be interpreted as good or bad. This image is then given an identity that can be used whenever the situation calls. A good name tag is bound to produce positive results, and inversely a negative one will give a bad result. On this trajectory, corporate reputation is deemed capable of transforming the fortunes of mining firms in Zimbabwe if stakeholders' interests are given due attention. It must be noted that corporate reputation can be expensive as it is part of an organisation's social, operational, and economic performance. This implies that the initial phases are capital intensive as the organisation sets the infrastructure. It is at this stage that stakeholders assess how the business organisation responds and address stakeholder concerns. So, mining firms in Zimbabwe should instil a spirit of trust in stakeholders to earn a respectable reputation. Literature has it that this concept is capable of influencing stakeholders' attitudes on business organisations. Therefore, it is concluded that mining firms have to implement CSR as a trigger for improved image building that forms the basis for a positive corporate reputation.

7.3.4 Conclusions on the literature review on corporate performance

The fourth objective was on corporate performance addressed through literature review in chapter four. The concept is a culmination of posting performance outcomes done periodically as mid-term or annually and accessible in the public domain through websites and public media. In this regard, corporate performance is the aggregated expenditure and income generated by a business organisation. In addition, it gives the statement of financial position based on the firm's capital comprising of assets, liabilities, drawings and net profit. In this regard, corporate performance was traditionally treated and measured mainly quantitatively based on; return on investment (ROI), return on equity (ROE), liquidity, and turnovers. The focus was on optimal returns and profitability for shareholders. However, there has been a shift from the quantitative approach to the qualitative where business organisations are being encouraged to embrace other non-quantitative aspects of CSR, such as stakeholders' interests which are push factors for corporate performance. In light of the emerging trends, the study concluded that corporate performance is now an integral corporate strategy that can be achieved by addressing organisational goals and stakeholder interests. This implies that corporate performance is now an outcome of both quantitative and qualitative inputs. As such CSR reports should accompany statements of financial position detailing activities done for some time.

7.3.5 Conclusions based on literature review on the stakeholder theory

Stakeholder theory provided the lens of analysis and the basis of the conceptual framework for this study. Its main thrust was on the interdependence and connectedness of the various players involved in the business network. This study concluded that each constituency in the stakeholder matrix is equally important and should be acknowledged. In addition, the central principles of stakeholder theory include engagement, consultation, involvement and participation. These principles bring interconnectedness that promotes one vision and teamwork. This increases accountability and transparency in organisational activities and operations. In this regard, stakeholder theory serves as an engagement guide to help business organisations roll out their goals, progress and obstacles to stakeholders. This implies creating value for all stakeholders or benefits according to their expectations (Schaltegger, Hörisch & Freeman, 2019:6).

Furthermore, the conclusions attest that stakeholder theory is a strategic management tool intended to bolster market-oriented organisations. In this regard, mining firms get into

relationships with groups that influence or are influenced by their activities. The focus is on the nature of these relationships in terms of the processes and results of mining firms and these groups. The interests of these groups are of intrinsic value with no prevailing set of interests at any given time (Mainardes, Alves, & Raposo, 2011:229). This trajectory points to mining firms making decisions on how to handle the various stakeholder interests consistent with their needs and priorities.

The above discussion is in line with the results of the study, found that variables SCSR ($\beta = 0.983$, $p = .000$), and ETCSR ($\beta = 0.021$, $p = .025$), were significant predictors of corporate reputation as they have acceptable p-values < 0.05 . Thus, it concluded that mining firms should address stakeholder interests fairly and transparently to get stakeholder support. The study further confirms this through descriptive results, which showed that most mining firms had adopted CSR practices through addressing stakeholder concerns and interests.

7.3.6 Conclusions based on literature review on the social exchange theory

Social exchange theory was also used to show the reciprocity nature of the relationship between stakeholders and business. Reviewed literature concluded that the principles underpinning the theory are two-sided based on the exchange of resources held dearly by the owners (Chernyak-Hai & Rabenu, 2018:456). In this context, the reciprocal rules indicate that beneficial actions by one side are bound to be responded to by similar or better reactions in a bilateral or multilateral relationship (Wang *et al.*, 2019:4). Such relationships of mutual benefit create value that enhances interpersonal relationships anchored on trust, satisfaction and dependability. In addition, this study also concluded that cost-benefit analysis plays a crucial role in stimulating the social exchange process, as parties consenting have to let go of some things held dear to them. In line with this, CSR practices are stimulants for stakeholders to consider giving mining investors a social lease to operate based on the good gesture programmes and incentives given to various interest groups. The overall implication of this kind of relationship is a loyalty based on fairness and trust.

Given the above discussion, the study confirms that CSR practices, directly and indirectly, influence SCSR, ENCSR, ETCSR, reputation and social performance. This is evidenced by the results of Pearson's correlation which showed a high positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.992$; $p=0.00$) between SCSR and corporate reputation. This implies that corporate behaviour reviews given to firms by stakeholders who are the consumers of their products form the basis of the reputation tags attached to mining firms. In addition, this study concluded that such

reviews mark the beginning of multiple image building for the mining firms, usually over some time. This aligns with social exchange theory, where the social exchange relationship is based on input and output outcomes measured or assessed on equity. Furthermore, the study also concluded a positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.594$; $p=0.00$) between ENCSR and corporate reputation. The results of the study imply that if mining firms have environmental sustainability reclamation programmes in place, then stakeholders are bound to return the good gesture by supporting further mineral exploration and extraction. In line with the value of equity or fairness is ETCSR, which underpins the values transmission conduit as firms interact with stakeholders. This is evidenced through positive and significant correlation between ethical corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation ($r = 0.545$; $p = 0.00$). To this end, this study confirmed that ethics form the bulk of the uncoded values to do with right and wrong. It is therefore concluded that mining companies should do more good things for stakeholders to get their support.

7.4 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

This section discusses conclusions based on empirical objectives of the current study (1.3.4.)

7.4.1 Conclusions on the levels of CSR in the mining industry in Zimbabwe

The first empirical objective was on the levels of CSR, corporate reputation and performance as interlocking factors in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This section discusses the descriptive statistics for each construct, as shown in Table 6.14. as follows; PCSR=4.7311; SCSR=6.0455; ENCSR=6.1364; ETCSR=5.8455 and SOCSR=5.9364.

7.4.1.1 Conclusions on the levels of CSR, based on political corporate social responsibility (PCSR)

The results show that respondents somewhat agreed to a marginal extent that political interventions influence CSR practices implementation and adoption. Hence the descriptive statistics on PCSR had a mean score of 4.7311. This implies that political intervention comes from getting an exploration licence and following the operational regulations. This is in line with observations made by Nyberg (2021:3), who opines that the political system defines the institutional context in which mining firms operate and has the power to restrict or incentivise corporate behaviour.

In addition, the mining corporations can also influence the political system in various ways, gradually becoming political actors. This scenario makes mining firms part of the political

system. For example, some mining companies may be given preferential treatment because of the investment pact. In some instances, such companies may be beneficiaries of bilateral agreements between governments, while some come in as private investors. In this regard, values held by such firms differ considerably and shape relations politically. However, it must be pointed that most mining firms cease to interface with the political system after getting concessions to operate for fear of backlashes. Lyon, Delmas, Maxwell, Bansal, Chiroleu-Assouline, Crifo, Durand, Gond, King, Lenox and Toffel (2018:11) concur, adding that firms prefer to keep their political activities secret, as they are wary of backlash when their political activities are exposed in public. This in many ways contributed to the results obtained from respondents as some could have been influenced by company policies not to divulge information regarding mining firms' political standing.

7.4.1.2 Conclusions based on the levels of CSR based on the stakeholder corporate social responsibility (SCSR)

From the results, the majority of respondents agreed that stakeholders are key to the survival of mining firms in Zimbabwe. In this regard, stakeholder CSR had a mean score of 6.0455 from descriptive statistics, as given in Table 6.14. The responses referred to customers, government, suppliers, surrounding communities, development programmes, conformity to laws and regulations. This was confirmed through Pearson correlation results which showed a high positive and significant correlation association ($r = 0.992$; $p=0.00$) between stakeholder corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation. This trend was further confirmed by regression analysis results ($\beta=0.983$; $p=0.000$), implying that SCSR can predict corporate reputation.

The results indicate that mining firms in this study have consideration for stakeholders' concerns. However, some of the interactions are done in the spirit of fulfilling expected obligations. This is in line with Colvin *et al.* (2020:111) highlight that those stakeholders can be included in the decision-making matrix as a strategy to improve long-term outcomes for business or as a normatively socially responsible thing to do.

7.4.1.3 Conclusions based on levels of CSR based on the environmental corporate social responsibility (ENCSR)

The environment is one of the resources for mining firms; hence, the descriptive results for ENCSR indicated a mean score of 6.1364. This implies that the respondents agreed that mining firms have programmes designed to look after the environment in which they operate. This is

in line with the results of correlation as shown in Table 6.25 had a moderate positive relationship ($r=0.594$; $p=0.000$). Mensah, Mahiri, Owusu, Mireku, Wireko and Kissi (2015:82) opine that many mining companies are blamed for causing environmental damage and social problems, consequently giving rise to environmental and social problems including climate change and pollution.

7.4.1.4 Conclusions based on levels of CSR based on ethical corporate social responsibility (ETCSR)

Ethics form one of the key policy issues of any corporate inclusive of mining firms. In this context, ETCSR had a mean score of 5.8455. This implies that respondents agreed with the assertion that mining firms were applying a responsible business approach to society. In this regard, Hovring, Nielsen and Andersen (2018:627) concur that ethical CSR creates value for stakeholders by complying with basic responsibility principles based on business ethics. In addition, most mining firms have an ethics policy that drives how stakeholders' concerns and interests are addressed.

7.4.1.5 Conclusions based on levels of CSR based on social corporate social responsibility (SOCSR)

Today's business organisations operate beyond shareholders' needs of promoting profit maximisation to an inclusive approach of considering stakeholder interests. This is in line with descriptive results, which had a mean score of SOCSR=5.9364. This implies that most respondents somewhat agreed that their organisations are attending to stakeholder social needs. Hovring, Nielsen and Andersen, (2018:629) highlight that CSR now goes beyond the narrow scope of benefitting shareholders through profit maximisation to include a broader social dimension in doing business.

From the discussion, it can be noted that all constructs had mean scores above 4, implying that the majority of the respondents agreed that the selected organisations were observing CSR. From these findings, it can be concluded that the selected mining firms are practising some form of CSR. In addition, the results also indicate that corporate reputation has a mean score of 6.1083, implying that respondents acknowledge that mining firms have maintained commendable images on reputation. On the other hand, performance constructs revealed the following mean scores: Economic performance=4.9139; Operational performance=4.8648 and Social performance=5.5126 as shown in Table 6.14. The mean scores above 4 indicate that the

majority of respondents somewhat agreed that the selected mining firms retain marginal performance gains capable of sustaining business operations through marginal profits.

Based on the afore-mentioned outcomes, the levels of CSR, corporate reputation and performance in mining firms in Zimbabwe are still at formative levels viewed from an independent perspective. Therefore, it can be concluded that mining firms under this study are aware of CSR as a management strategy and strive to observe CSR, regardless of the influence of the variables on each other.

7.4.2 Conclusions based on the levels of corporate reputation in mining industry Zimbabwe

The results show that corporate reputation is prevalent in Zimbabwe but is at formative stages for several reasons. Firstly, the liberalisation of the mining industry to incorporate indigenous citizens through independence from colonialism is fundamental. Before independence, mining was dominated by multinational corporations coupled with a few medium mines but dominated by whites. Mining by then was financed by the central government and seemed systematic in operations. This was mainly done with strict adherence to existing legislation. Independence opened out the mining sector to the majority of citizens. With this came the informal sector organisations that advocated for mining rights. This introduced the small-scale miners and '*Amakorokozas*.' The sector's opening up brought with it an invisible competition. This was coupled with the economic embargo imposed on the country by western countries. In addition, this alienation left the country manipulatable from 'friendly' countries. These countries also invested in mining and took advantage of the desperate situation to make promises they could not honour. In such instances, mining firms were labelled mineral thieves that needed to be termed to oblige. Even legislation was introduced. However, the results were dire and created a bad name for the mining sector.

7.4.3 Conclusions based on the levels of performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe

Performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe has had varied connotations owing to several factors emanating from the turn of events in the new millennium. This implies that performance has been viewed from different perspectives. As alluded to in preceding chapters, performance was assessed based on profit margins posted, access to capital, tariffs charged, monetary policy inconsistencies, indigenisation and empowerment agenda introduced by the government in 2007 had a significant effect on performance in the mining sector. Given the development of

mining after the imposition of economic sanctions by the western countries, the players in the sector had to endure restrictions in trade partners. This created the concept of trading with friendly countries, especially those from the eastern bloc, including China, Russia, and India. With these myriads of problems, the mining sector was operating under an uneven operating environment. From this background, the mining sector was not optimal, so performance from the observed data could not be used to influence reputation. Therefore, it can be concluded that the levels of performance based on any variable in Zimbabwe remain at the lowest. However, it remains a fact that mining has contributed immensely to the fiscus and the economy at large. To this day, mining remains a key sector in the Zimbabwean economy.

7.4.4 Conclusions on the relationship between CSR and corporate reputation in the mining industry in Zimbabwe

The second empirical objective of this study was the relationship between CSR and corporate reputation. From the Pearson's correlation analysis from Table 6.25, all CSR constructs show correlation coefficients $r > 0.000$ significant at the 0.01 level ($p=0.000$) towards corporate reputation. This indicates a positive relationship between CSR variables and corporate reputation in most mining firms in Zimbabwe. Further regression analysis indicated that CSR constructs could predict corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. Based on these results, CSR can build images and identities on organisations capable of building either a positive or negative reputation. This is, however, not conclusive on whether reputation can positively influence overall performance.

7.4.4.1 Relationship between PCSR and corporate reputation

The Pearson's correlation shows a slight positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.325$; $p=0.00$) between political corporate social responsibility and corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects a direct relationship; with a high level in PCSR, there is a high level in corporate reputation. It implies the hypothesis (H_1) is partially supported. However, the regression analysis indicates a non-significant relationship ($t=-0.345$; $p=0.730$) which rejects the hypothesis as shown in Table 6.25. The results show a relationship between PCSR and corporate reputation, but PCSR cannot be used to predict the value of corporate reputation. Based on the results, political influence has a weak influence because some mining firms can be given preferential treatment by those who have power to mining activities to take place. For instance, some mining firms were allowed to operate without satisfying the required operational obligations. This has led to mining firms' short-changing stakeholders through

underhand deals and corruption. This influenced respondents to express negatively about having their organisations support political programmes.

7.4.4.2 Relationship between SCSR and corporate reputation

The Pearson's correlation shows a high positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.992$; $p=0.00$) between SCSR and corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects a high level in SCSR direct relationship, with a corresponding high-level relationship in corporate reputation. It implies the hypothesis (H_2) is supported. Moreover, the regression analysis also indicates a significant relationship ($t=-105.437$; $p=0.000$) which accepts the hypothesis. This implies that there exists a strong relationship between SCSR and corporate reputation, which can also be used to predict the value of corporate reputation. The results show that most respondents acknowledged that stakeholders are a key constituency in their firms. Indications were that these stakeholders have the potential to influence the corporate reputation.

7.4.4.3 Relationship between ENCSR and corporate reputation

The Pearson's correlation shows a positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.594$; $p=0.00$) between ENCSR and corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects a direct relationship; with a high level in ENCSR, there is a high level in corporate reputation. It implies that the hypothesis (H_3) is partially supported. However, the regression analysis indicates a non-significant relationship ($t=-1.193$; $p=0.234$) which rejects the hypothesis as shown in Table 6.25. The empirical findings show a relationship between ENCSR and corporate reputation, but ENCSR cannot be used to predict the value of corporate reputation. Based on the results, respondents acknowledged that their mining firms are giving attention to the physical environment through various initiatives. The environment's incapability of predicting the corporate reputation value may be because most activities are the minimum expectations held accountable to mining firms by stakeholders.

7.4.4.4 Relationship between ETCSR and corporate reputation

The Pearson's correlation shows a positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.554$; $p=0.00$) between ETCSR and corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects a direct, high-level relationship in ETCSR and corporate reputation. This implies that the hypothesis (H_4) is supported. Furthermore, the regression analysis also indicates a significant relationship ($t=2.252$; $p=0.000$) which agrees to assumptions raised by the hypothesis. The implication is that there exists a relationship between ETCSR and corporate reputation, which can also be used to predict the assimilated value of corporate reputation. Based on the outcome of the

results, ethics is deemed an inevitable important component of CSR. In addition, in this context, ethics brings moral value to structures within mining firms, hence bringing the human face to be effective and bring out positive results.

7.4.4.5 Relationship between SOCSR and corporate reputation

The Pearson's correlation shows a positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.559$; $p=0.00$) between SOCSR and corporate reputation, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects a direct, high-level relationship between SOCSR and corporate reputation. This implies that the hypothesis (H_5) is partially supported. However, the regression analysis indicates a non-significant relationship ($t=-1.168$; $p=0.244$) which rejects the hypothesis as shown in Table 6.25. From the results, it can be deduced that there is a relationship between SOCSR and corporate reputation, but SOCSR cannot be used to predict the assimilated value of corporate reputation. Based on the outcome of the results, respondents agreed that most mining firms are observing and implementing their social obligations. However, the weak influence of incapacity to predict the future value of reputation can be attributed to the absence of a CSR roadmap that shows stakeholder consultation. Furthermore, mining firms have not done enough to uplift the general populace's living standards to have the stakeholders' backing. In addition, mining firms address part of their CSR obligations without broad consultation with stakeholders, especially those directly affected by their activities.

CSR variables (SOCSR and ETCSR) fully support the tested hypotheses as they can be used to predict the value of corporate reputation. Based on these outcomes, it can be concluded that the majority of the mining firms in Zimbabwe practice CSR on their terms with limited stakeholder inputs. The little effort being shown by mining firms is deemed to generate positive reviews on reputation.

7.4.5 Conclusions on the influence of corporate reputation on corporate performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe

The third empirical objective considered in this study was the influence of corporate reputation on performance in the mining industry in Zimbabwe.

7.4.5.1 Relationship between corporate reputation and economic performance

The Pearson's correlation shows a weak negative and non-significant correlation ($r = -0.059$; $p=0.287$) between corporate reputation and economic performance, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects an inverse relationship between economic performance and corporate reputation. Reputation shows a high level while there is a low level in economic performance. This implies that the hypothesis (H_6) is rejected. However, regression analysis also indicates a non-significant relationship ($t=-1.066$; $p=0.287$) which rejects the hypothesis as shown in Table 6.26. From the results, there is no relationship between corporate reputation and economic performance.

7.4.5.2 Relationship between corporate reputation and operational performance

The Pearson's correlation shows a weak negative and significant correlation ($r = -0.172$; $p=0.002$) between corporate reputation and operational performance, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects an inverse relationship between operational performance and corporate reputation. This means a high corporate reputation will be met with low operational performance. This implies that the hypothesis (H_7) is supported. Moreover, the regression analysis indicates a significant relationship with ($t=-3.169$; $p=0.02$) which supports the hypothesis as shown in Table 6.27. The results show a relationship between corporate reputation and operational performance, which can be used to predict the value of corporate reputation.

7.4.5.3 Relationship between corporate reputation and social performance

The Pearson's correlation shows a weak positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.297$; $p=0.000$) between corporate reputation and social performance, as shown in Table 6.25. This reflects a direct, high-level relationship between social performance and corporate reputation. This means increased social performance yields a high-level corporate reputation. This implies that the hypothesis (H_8) is supported. Moreover, the regression analysis indicates a significant relationship with ($t=5.633$; $p=0.02$) which supports the hypothesis as shown in Table 6.28. The results show a relationship between corporate reputation and social performance, which can be used to predict the future value of corporate reputation.

The results reflected that corporate reputation has an impact on corporate performance in mining firms in Zimbabwe. The perceived influence exists through stakeholders' acknowledgments and reviews of community development work done by mining firms. This is revealed through interventions by mining firms when they support social projects. The other factors attributed to low levels of corporate reputation include the operating environment and

associated risk in managing the business. However, the weak relationships highlight that mining firms have not fully embraced CSR to warrant positive reviews from stakeholders. However, the development of CSR can be used as a tool for enhancing mining firms' performance in terms of returns on investment and gaining loyalty from stakeholders. Based on the results outcomes, it can be concluded that corporate reputation is yet to significantly impact corporate performance in most mining sector firms in Zimbabwe.

7.4.5.4 Influence of corporate performance on corporate reputation

The fourth empirical objective was on the influence of corporate performance on corporate reputation. Corporate performance was measured through the outcome results of social performance, operational performance and economic performance. Each of these was analysed to confirm or refute if there is a relationship with corporate reputation. From Table 6.25, results show the existence of a significant relationships from operational performance ($r=-0.172$; $p=0.02$) and Social Performance ($r = 0.297$; $p=0.00$) towards corporate reputation. In this regard, operational performance indicates a weak negative relationship, meaning that a slight increase in operational performance will see a slight decrease in corporate reputation. In contrast, social performance indicates a weak positive relationship, which infers that an increase in social performance will result in a marginal increase in corporate reputation. However, economic performance result indicates a non-significant relationship towards corporate reputation ($r = -0.059$; $p=0.287$). This means changes in economic performance will not likely influence a shift in corporate reputation.

The results of corporate performance on reputation imply a significant relationship between corporate reputation and corporate performance, although it is of low marginal influence levels. The low levels are attributed to the weak correlation coefficients. Based on these outcomes, it can be concluded that corporate performance changes the reputation index of mining firms in Zimbabwe if observed and implemented.

7.4.6 The recommended model for the mining industry in Zimbabwe

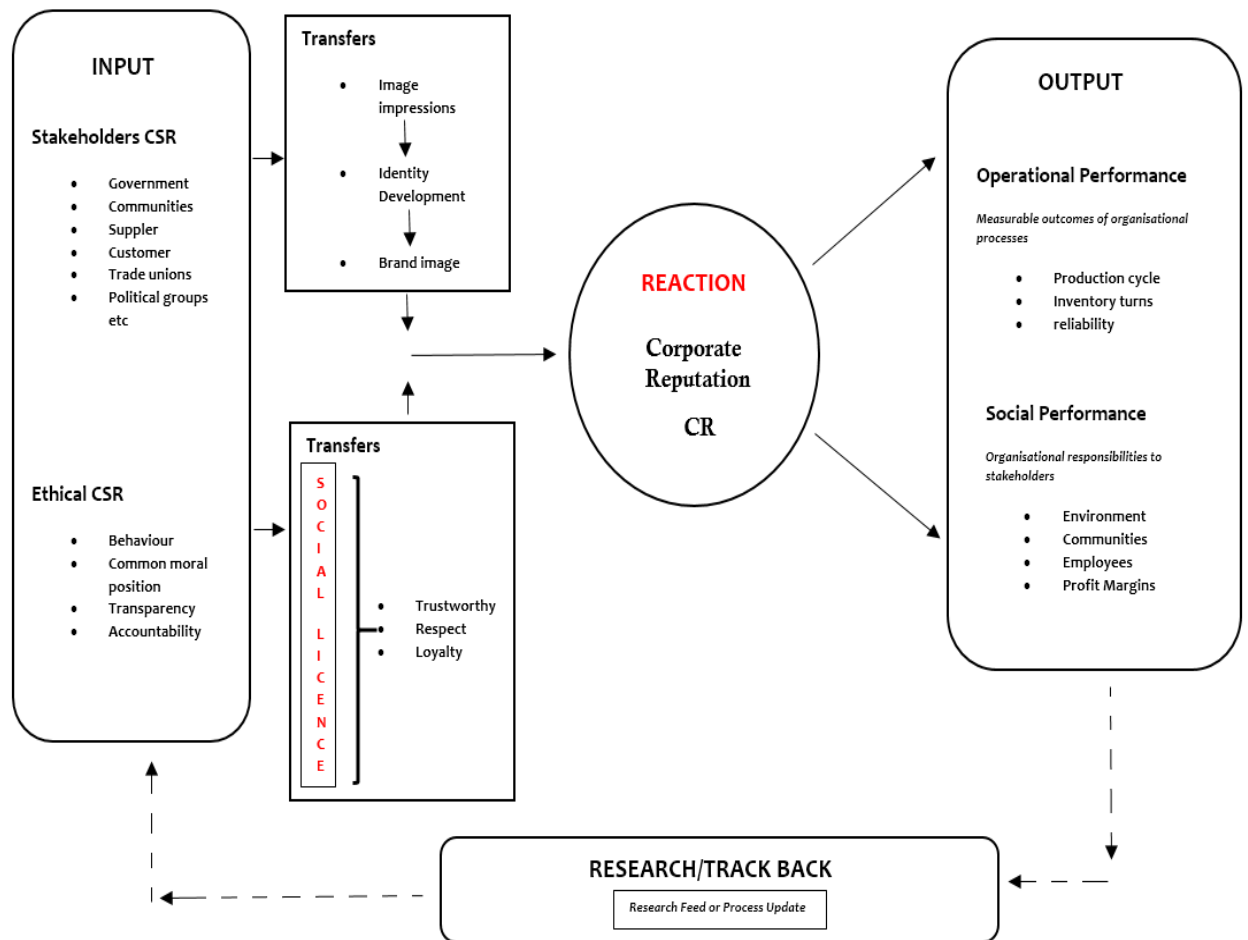


Figure 7.1: Model for CSR practices in the mining industry in Zimbabwe

Source: Author's compilation

The model developed in Figure 7.1 illustrates a value chain proposition for the adoption and implementation of CSR practices within the mining sector in Zimbabwe. In this regard, the model shows that successful adoption and implementation of CSR by mining firms can be achieved through a fusion or integration of SCSR and ETCSR. This view is based on the relationship shown between SCSR and corporate reputation and ETCSR and corporate reputation. The model emphasises SCSR and ETCSR because all the other independent variables form part of the stakeholder concerns and interests. This concurs with literature in chapter three, which points to the triple bottom line; people, planet and profits. In this vein, successful CSR should address social, environmental and economic issues. In addition, the

model reveals that as stakeholders' interests are addressed, more positive image reviews are gained by mining firms.

Furthermore, ethical implications should be considered by mining firms as these contribute immensely towards shaping the perceptions of stakeholders about mining firms. This implies that mining firms should be cognisant of moral values based on equity and fair treatment of stakeholders. These humane acts become the basis of mining firms' social licence to attract stakeholders' attention and support. Conscious of this trajectory, mining firms should formulate inclusive, ethical policies that drive standard operating procedures when dealing with stakeholders. In the same vein, a good rapport with stakeholders will eventually attract stakeholders to support mining firms practising CSR. In addition, mining firms can also generate CSR reports periodically to gain confidence from stakeholders. Such support is deemed to generate operational performance and social performance efficiency, which are key to the performance of mining firms practising CSR.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study's primary motive was to establish the influence of CSR practices on the reputation and performance of mining firms in Zimbabwe. Therefore, based on the study's findings, the researcher proffers recommendations that can be adopted by Zimbabwean mining firms and applied elsewhere in utilising CSR. In drawing recommendations, the focus was on each construct and its relationship with the dependent variable. The initial recommendation is for mining firms to fully embrace CSR as a management strategy with the potential to turn around performance results. Secondly, mining firms have to address stakeholder interests and concerns as these are key to their success. The empirical evidence indicates that addressing stakeholder concerns and interests attracts positive reviews. This section deals with the relationship between constructs to help the mining sector in Zimbabwe improve operations through CSR.

7.5.1 Recommendations on CSR practices

Based on the study results, mining firms in Zimbabwe are recommended to adopt CSR practices as a business strategy. Current business firms have adopted CSR as a vehicle for enhancing competitive advantage as stakeholders want to engage in business transactions with firms that have CSR disclosures. This concept has taken centre stage to become more important than production and sales figures. In this regard, it is on record through literature that CSR has since been adopted by business organisations worldwide, especially those from developed countries. This has seen the crafting of CSR initiatives and guidelines that regulate CSR

implementation and reporting. Such practices have been proven to take the business to new performance heights through a positive reputation and gaining competitive advantages. Confirmed developments from various studies suggest that investors and stakeholders want to be associated with business organisations that have CSR as part of their management strategy. Such businesses are considered responsible for profits and the environment and people or triple bottom line. Literature in chapters 3 and 4 concur with these assertions. It is against this that mining firms in Zimbabwe and other organisations alike take on board CSR. Furthermore, CSR reporting should form part of the adoption and implementation of this business strategy.

7.5.2 Recommendations based on political social corporate responsibility

Concerning political social corporate responsibility (PCSR) in the context of this study, the construct had a hypothesis H₁ which predicted a positive relationship with corporate reputation. The study results indicated that there is no relationship ($\beta = -.002$, $p = 0.730$). However, literature has it that PCSR is about authority vested in the country's president as the sole authority to allow or offer mining concessions to possible investors. In this regard, the political component referred to the business environment presented by the host country. However, as observed from collected data, this was not supported to change corporate reputation. However, the study recommends that mining firms in Zimbabwe strive to build mutually beneficial relations with the government, as the political environment has not been conducive to smooth business operations. This has been the trend since the turn of the new millennium. Literature in chapter 2 made references to this assertion. On this basis, it is recommended that for CSR to be a success and bring the desired results, the business environment must be conducive for mining firms to adopt CSR practices.

7.5.3 Recommendations based on stakeholder social corporate responsibility

From the study results, SCSR ($r = 0.992$; $p=0.00$), it is noted that stakeholders are a key component of the mining firms and, as such, should enlist their support. In this regard, all selected mining firms acknowledged the existence of interactions with stakeholders. In addition, empirical evidence from this study indicates that stakeholder consultation and participation can earn mining firms' good reputations, enhancing performance. These are the people who affect the business operations directly or indirectly. Thus, hypothesis H₂ assumptions of stakeholders having strong influence over the successful implementation of CSR practices is highly supported. More so, most of the stakeholders of the mining sector organisations in Zimbabwe have had a fair share of their interests and concerns addressed. It

has to be noted that a couple of mining firms closed down when Zimbabwe adopted the indigenisation and empowerment drive, which sought to address the CSR issues. As a result, a few mining firms continued to operate under challenging circumstances. Mining firms involved in platinum, gold and diamonds were the only ones that operated. Despite, the shortcomings mining firms need to have a CSR rollout plan and budget intended to address the concerns of both internal and external stakeholders. It is further recommended that stakeholder consultations be done to address their needs. Promises made by mining firms made should be fulfilled to earn stakeholder support. Such conduct by mining firms gets acknowledged by surrounding communities who pay back through issuing a social licence to the mining firm to conduct operations.

7.5.4 Recommendations based on environmental social corporate responsibility

Regarding the study results, ENCSR through Pearson's correlation indicates that there is a positive and significant correlation ($r = 0.594$; $p=0.00$). This implies that hypothesis H₃ assumptions were supported. Thus, like any other business venture, mining firms have internal and external environments to care of for successful business operations. Most mining firms in Zimbabwe have not put much attention to responding or addressing the impact of their operations on these two environments, especially the external environment (societal), which plays host to the business infrastructure. In this regard, most mining firms' establishments result in displacements of people as mineral deposits are sometimes located on human settlements. Apart from, locations the construction of roads to the mine site result in cutting trees and building bridges. Such developments result in disturbing the ecosystem and the natural environment. Under such circumstances, the surrounding communities expect mining firms to come up with environmental sustainability programmes to reduce or eliminate environmental degradation. This entails implementing land reclamation programmes during mineral extraction and after closing when mineral deposits become extinct. In light of the foregoing, mining firms in Zimbabwe should develop environmental programmes that promote sustainability for future generations. The current generations should benefit through household food security programmes, tree planting, health care, schools and helping community governance programmes. Such programmes are likely to retain a good reputation. This hypothesis was not supported in this study as respondents felt most organisations were just involved in achieving the minimum only.

7.5.5 Recommendations based on ethical corporate social responsibility

This study has posited that ethics is the moral worthiness of an organisation's operations. It is those actions that go beyond the tabulated regulations. Mining firms in Zimbabwe thus need to draw up ethics policies that guide their operations. Through ethics policies, mining firms bring on board issues of morality, doing things in good faith, separating right and wrong. As mining firms, many land excavations and waste management have to be observed; hence, ethics serves as a reminder of observing the triple bottom line, which focuses on a balanced treatment of the environment, profits, and people. Such a policy guide is envisaged to add value to the organisation through stakeholder appreciation. Thus, the organisations' get buy-in from both direct and indirect stakeholders in the process earning a positive reputation. This was confirmed through the contribution of some mining firms in project support initiatives such as farming and general improvement of standards of living.

7.5.6 Recommendations based on social corporate social responsibility

The study revealed that social corporate social responsibility is the pinnacle of mining firms' strategy to be acknowledged positively by external and internal stakeholders. In this regard, mining firms are urged to report their CSR activities to stakeholders, as outsiders cannot fully understand the corporations' full capabilities. This kind of relationship eradicates suspicion and builds trust between the firm and stakeholders. As a result, such ethical practices are bound to ease pressure on external stakeholders who are not privileged to information concerning a firm's social responsibility activities. This disclosure by mining firms of CSR plans and programmes to stakeholders creates an enabling situation for the issuance of a 'social licence' to operate.

Furthermore, the social licence offers the firms an opportunity to identify social issues that matter to stakeholders. Consequently, with all parties operating at the same level, constructive dialogue is realised. In addition, firms that report on their CSR programmes tend to enhance their business credentials and reputation.

7.5.7 Recommendations based on social performance

The study recommends that mining firms in Zimbabwe continue to adopt CSR practices in letter and spirit. The empirical evidence showed that CSR policies molded around employees, the community, clients, and the environment should be adopted to gain recognition and support. This undoubtedly brings harmony between mining firms and key stakeholders. From the

employees' front, organisations should ensure good health care, job security through training and attractive employee benefits. In this study, the inclusion and participation by the community are critical as communities feel like part of the organisation and will respond positively to the operations. Issues like waste management should meet international standards for the protection of both livestock and human beings.

7.5.8 Recommendations based on operational performance

The emerging findings on operational performance were that CSR outcomes need time to gain popularity among stakeholders. This takes a considerable time to be appreciated and comes with expenses. In light of this mining, firms should ensure that their operations are transparent to all stakeholders. In this regard, the leadership of mining firms needs training in change management with a drive towards sustainability and competitiveness. Therefore, management becomes change agents through knowledge and expertise to better understand how to craft, adopt and implement sustainability strategies that bring competitive advantage.

Furthermore, green mining should be part of management's strategy in line with climate change and the effects of mining on the ozone layer. This may be achieved by acquiring state-of-the-art machinery that is environmentally friendly while observing international mining best practices. With time the costs eventually break even and begin to post profits, anchored on acceptable service delivery ethos and good reputation.

7.5.9 Recommendations based on economic performance

The study recommends that firms work towards gaining a positive reputation to gain a competitive advantage over rivals by drawing CSR plans that address the needs of stakeholders. However, CSR rollout plans may be expensive and costlier at inception as a lot of capital is required. This implies that firms engaging in CSR need to hire people with expertise, develop budgets for projects initiatives, and acquire the required equipment. However, the benefits of initial costs outweigh the strain of raising capital as studies have established that customers and investors are 60% influenced by the perceptions of the business organisation and 40% by the products and services offered. These findings support the argument that CSR indicates '*who*' the organisation is, '*what*' it believes in and '*how*' it operates. This implies that business is about producing, selling goods and services, and engaging in CSR activities that can have a positive effect on all key stakeholders.

7.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The current study came up with both theoretical and practical contributions. Theoretical contributions concern the application and benefits of the reviewed related literature, while practical contributions are the benefits of the study to mining sector management and associated professionals in both private and public sectors.

7.6.1 Theoretical contributions

Through its literature review, the study adds knowledge to the existing literature on CSR, reputation, and performance in the mining sector. In this context, the study has contributed significantly to the existing literature, particularly the state of mining in pre-and post-independent Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the study contributes to the literature on CSR definitions, the conceptualisation of CSR, determinants of CSR, measurements of CSR, and importance and benefits of CSR. The CSR practices are discussed in the context of PCSR, SCSR, ETCSR, ENCSR, SOCSR, operational performance, social performance and economic performance. The study further provides a unique perspective on the relationship between PCSR, SCSR, ETCSR, ENCSR, SOCSR and the mediating variable corporate reputation, and then the mediating variable corporate reputation and outcome variables; social performance, operational performance and economic performance. This cross-pollination of CSR concepts provides an opportunity to apply the CSR theoretical concepts in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. This kind of study has not been previously conducted in this context. Finally, the study confirms the relationship between CSR and corporate reputation and/or corporate reputation and outcome variables of operational performance, social performance and economic performance. This also provides a platform for future studies. Therefore, the study bridges the gap in knowledge of how CSR can be used as a tool to improve organisational performance. More so, the study adds value to existing knowledge of CSR as a management strategy, with stakeholders being pivotal in the management matrix. This, in turn, is expected to improve the well-being of communities and the national economy at large.

7.6.2 Practical contributions

The study provides practical solutions to mining practitioners in Zimbabwe and elsewhere on how they can improve their management strategies based on CSR initiatives to improve stakeholder welfare and competitive advantage, leading to improved organisational performance. Firstly, the study brings to the attention of mining firms that CSR is an important management strategy that can be utilised. In light of this, mining firms can use CSR to address

stakeholder concerns and interests. This will result in appreciation of engagement efforts from stakeholders and earn positive recognition. Secondly, CSR has become a global strategy in management that can be used to lure investors through CSR reporting. Thirdly, coordinated CSR activities linked to an organisation's strategy significantly impact the firm's long-term competitiveness and social impact. The expected ripple effect is improved firm performance as customers and investors pursue firms engaged in responsible business. In this regard, Zimbabwean firms will benefit from a positive reputation from stakeholders and improved corporate performance. Fourthly, this study provides managers with practical ways of gaining legitimacy of their activities through CSR in the eyes of the stakeholders.

Fifthly, and most importantly, the research advises government and other regulatory bodies to influence policy formulation and direction. The Zimbabwe Chamber of Mines and the parent Ministry of Mines and Mining Development can formulate policies that influence CSR adoption and implementation. This can include CSR reporting as a mechanism of informing stakeholders. More so, tax exemptions and rebates can be used by the government to influence the adoption of CSR to promote the adoption of the concept, especially in Zimbabwe, where the concept is in its infancy. This can be augmented by-laws formulated to make it mandatory for CSR disclosures to help both mining firms and societies appreciate each other.

Sixthly, the study has shed light on the importance of CSR as a modern business management strategy that can be effectively be used to improve performance. The research further provides avenues for further interrogation using the information gathered, as this is an area that has not been pursued in previous studies.

The seventh point is about CSR creating harmony between mining firms and communities through establishing a policy that guides operations by firms and benefits to be realised by communities. This provides responsible mining operations to investors in mining firms and communities, fostering collaborative partnerships that build ethics-based synergies. To achieve this, mining firms have to include CSR in their vision, mission, objectives, values to benefit society and the organisation.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study provided insights on the impact of CSR in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. However, the study encountered constraints despite the researcher's effort to ensure a flawless process and these are highlighted to avoid them in future research. First, the study used a small sample of 330 respondents. The study utilised the cross-sectional time horizon, with specific timelines to be met; hence the data was collected in a snapshot. This means the responses reflect the views of respondents in a snapshot of time. Moreover, the study was also affected by the restrictive geographical radius of mining firms within 200km from the capital city of Zimbabwe, Harare. However, while every effort was made to develop a credible study that is valid and reliable capable of drawing pragmatic conclusions and recommendations, some challenges were experienced during the research process.

Secondly, the research study utilised measurement scales adapted from other studies and originally intended for other purposes. This compromises on originality and creativity as this condition had to be met as a matter of requirement. Thirdly, the questionnaire was used to collect data as the survey instrument forced respondents into response categories limiting their range of responses and narrowing the scope of responses. In addition, the absence of face-to-face interaction left respondents at the mercy of the given instructions on how and where to complete the questionnaire. This led to some misunderstandings of the requirements. However, this could have been minimised through the use of interviews which provide face-to-face interaction according to both parties to clarify issues.

Fourthly, even though letters confirmed permission to conduct the study, some relevant, targeted organisations turned down requests or just took time to respond, frustrating the process. This created the eligibility crisis, which forced the researcher to use convenience sampling, making the study susceptible to marginal sample bias.

Fifthly, the sample size of 330 included senior management but gaining access to this group proved difficult because of their work schedule and routines. This group was important in this study as they are key decision-makers. To bridge this gap, the researcher sought assistance from the corporate affairs department, which in turn liaised with the relevant department to create space in their busy schedules for the completion of the instrument.

Last but not least, the study faced challenges presented by the advent of COVID-19, which presented new ways of conducting business. The primary strategy was social distancing which limited movement and face-to-face interactions.

7.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

From the outline of the limitations cited for the study, several implications for future studies are proffered. The study focused on CSR as a management strategy. Future studies can focus on the CEO and board of directors as the key decision-makers of mining firms. This group was difficult to access during the current study. Further research can also pursue performance and reputation variables, which can be verified through further studies. In this regard, examples include considering the direct relationship between the CSR factors cited in this study and performance.

Furthermore, future studies can also test for the mediating effect of corporate reputation on the relationship between CSR and performance. Other areas of interest that can be considered are demographic variables such as company size and the number of employees, focusing on how these affect relationships on CSR factors. These areas remain key and of interest as performance is affected in many ways that can either be negative or positive. In addition, future work can also use mixed methods that include questionnaires and interviews on CEO, BOD and senior management to get an insight into the perception of CSR in Zimbabwean business organisations.

Further research can be conducted on variables that could not be supported to predict CR through regression analysis. These variables, including PCSR, economic performance, ENCSR and SOCSR, could be used to come up with new findings and check whether the results of the studies remain consistent with the results of this study. Furthermore, causal mechanisms linking CSR to sustainable mining leading to competitive advantage can be pursued. Last but not least, further studies can be conducted on a comparative basis with another regional country like South Africa with a robust and diverse mining sector on how CSR has improved stakeholder involvement.

7.9 CONCLUSIONS

This study sought to establish the influence of CSR practices on corporate reputation and performance in mining firms in Zimbabwe. From the findings obtained from the study through descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, correlation and regression analysis, it was noted that the selected mining firms are conscious of CSR practices; hence the levels of CSR, CR and performance in mining firms in Zimbabwe are still at formative stages. This made the influence of CSR on corporate reputation and performance being at very low levels. Therefore, it can be concluded that mining firms under this study are aware of CSR as a management

strategy and are observing CSR practices regardless of their impact on reputation and performance.

In addition, it was noted that CSR practices could build images and identities in organisations capable of building either positive or negative reputations. In this regard, most mining firms are yet to impress on stakeholders to earn positive reputation reviews. Another key point was that stakeholders form a vital cog of any mining firm, especially regarding issuing a social licence by this constituency. Closely related are ethics, which denote morality based on acceptable norms and values. In this regard, findings concluded that ethics anchor stakeholder interests, especially those that directly affect them; hence mining firms have obligations to address stakeholder interests fairly. Furthermore, the findings also revealed that mining firms have environmental sustainability programmes in place to maintain and revitalise both the physical and social environments.

These findings revealed that reputation and performance are components that can be achieved by addressing stakeholder concerns and interests. These must be anchored on a firm ethical base that mining firms can strengthen their competitive advantage over rivals through CSR practices. This resonates well with the outcome of regression analysis results, which showed some not hypothetically supported variables to predict the future value of reputation (PCSR, SOCSR, ENCSR, economic performance). This justified the assertion that reputation and performance are areas that need to be worked on to impact CSR over time. However, despite this negative outcome, the variables in question remain key to the success of CSR in the mining sector hence the need for mining firms in Zimbabwe to embrace CSR to attain the required levels fully. CSR practices in Zimbabwe need to be harmonised across the mining sector organisations in interpretation and implementation, leaving strategy uniqueness to individual organisations depending on policy and availability of resources. This has left an influence on corporate reputation and performance with a gap that needs to be pursued further. It, therefore, implies that further interrogation and clarity on CSR can be used to address stakeholder challenges.

To this end, the findings revealed that CSR is now a ubiquitous business phenomenon that responsible business organisations are using the world over. In this regard, the study concludes that CSR is a robust management strategy that can be used by mining firm managers in reaching out and addressing stakeholder concerns and interests. In addition, CSR has implementation guidelines that have to be followed based on set criteria to meet the minimum requirements.

Furthermore, CSR reporting is now a requirement for all mining firms to inform the public and stakeholders on their operations. The results impress the need to have national CSR guidelines set by the central government or through regulatory bodies like the Zimbabwe Chamber of Mines, Zimbabwe Mining Development Corporation that set the regulatory framework for implementation.

These findings further articulated that CSR is a shared value that can be implemented through stakeholders anchored on a solid ethical base. This highlights that the involvement of stakeholders is key to the nurturing and development of CSR practices that result in a competitive advantage for mining firms. This CSR development process must be underlined by openness, disclosure and transparency. This calls for a cultured ethics policy that values and promotes trust, dependability and equity among stakeholders. Such a relationship spurs operational efficiencies resulting in the quality of goods and services. This implies that mining firms' responsible behaviour can create shared value as stakeholders want to be associated with responsible organisations. However, this shared value has to be invested in. This entails intensive capital injection at inception, gradually gaining ground and significantly impacting organisational performance. In this context, it can be concluded that most mining firms in Zimbabwe are observing CSR practices. Furthermore, the findings indicated the existence of some CSR practices in all selected mining firms despite the variations due to the availability of resources and implementation strategies.

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APPENDIX 1

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



Vaal University of Technology

Your world to a better future

Faculty of Management Sciences
Research conducted by
Mr Joseph Zuva
Cell: 0773 304 948
Email: jtzuva@gmail.com

Dear Respondent,

You are requested to participate in an academic research study conducted by Mr. Joseph Zuva a PhD student from the Department of Logistics at the Vaal University of Technology in South Africa. The purpose of the study is to gather information on corporate social responsibility, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. You have been chosen to participate in the study based on your experience of working in the mining sector. It is therefore believed that you will provide relevant information.

Please take note of the following:

1. This study will provide an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
2. Your participation in this study is very important. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
3. Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible.
4. The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. You will be provided with a summary of the findings on request.
5. Please contact the research supervisor, Prof Chenedzai Mafini, chenedzaim@vut.ac.za if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

You have the option of signing this letter to indicate that:

- You read and understood the information provided above.
- You consent to participate in the study voluntarily.

Respondent's signature (optional)

Date

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In this section, we would like to find out a little more about you. Please insert a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

A1	Gender	(1) Male	(2) Female
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A2	Age	(1) Under 20 years	(2) 21-30 years	(3) 31-40 years	(4) 41-50 years	(5) 51-60 years	(6) 61 years and above
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A3	Highest qualification	(1) Ordinary level	(2) Advanced level	(3) Certificate	(4) Diploma	(5) Degree	(6) Postgraduate	(7) Other (Please specify)
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A4	Position in organisation	(1) Clerical/Administrative	(2) Skilled professional	(3) Junior management	(4) Middle management	(5) Senior management
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A5	Employment period	(1) Under 5 years	(2) 6 - 10 years	(3) 11-15 years	(4) 16-20 years	(5) 21 years and above
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A6	Occupational area	(1) Marketing	(2) Supply chain/logistics	(3) Operations	(4) Human resource	(5) Finance/Accounting	Other (please specify).....
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SECTION B: ORGANISATION PROFILE

In this section, we would like to find out information about your organisation. Please put a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

B1	Number of employees	(1) Less than 50	(2) 51 to 100	(3) 101 to 150	(4) 151 to 200 or more
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B3	Number of years in operation	(1) Less than 2 years	(2) Between 2 and 5 years	(3) Between 5 and 10 years	(4) Between 10 and 15 years	(5) More than 15 years
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B4	Type of mineral	(1) Diamonds	(2) Nickel	(3) Platinum	(4) Gold	(5) Chrome
		(6) Tin	(7) Asbestos	(8) Lithium	(9) Emeralds	(10) Other (please Specify).....

B5	Turnover per annum (millions)	(1) Less than USD 10m	(2) Between 11m to 20 m	(3) Between 21 to 30 m	(4) Between 31 to 40 m	(5) Between 41 to 50 m and above specify.....
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SECTION C: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

We would like to find out your views and experiences regarding corporate social responsibility, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 7 (Strongly Agree).

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Political Corporate Social Responsibility (PCSR)								
PCSR1	Our firm is involved in organising community based political programmes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PCSR2	Our firm helps in raising awareness of political developments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PCSR3	Our firm supports activities organised by civil society groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PCSR4	Our firm has a good working relationship with the government through honest disclosure of its activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PCSR5	Our firm has plans that result in harmony among public sector groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PCSR6	Our firm has support from government through its philanthropic work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stakeholder Corporate Social Responsibility (SCSR)								
SCSR1	Our firm has a good relationship with its suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SCSR2	Our firm has a good relationship with its customers							
SCSR3	Our firm prioritises employee training needs							
SCSR4	Our firm employs locals from surrounding communities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SCSR5	Our management consults the board of directors before making decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SCSR6	Our firm addresses customer complaints promptly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SCSR7	Our firm is concerned with local community development program	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SCSR8	Our firm pays all taxes due to regulatory authorities and government as required.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Production Corporate Social Responsibility (PSCR)								
PRCSR1	Our production trends have been increasing upwards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PRCSR2	Our firm's production processes are ISO certified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PRCSR3	Our firm's production targets are based on strategies adopted by management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PRCSR4	Our firm's work environment is of a high standard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PRCSR5	Our firm has strict adherence to health and safety regulations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PRCSR6	Our firm has business alliances that have boosted production	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PRCSR7	Our firm has training programs aimed at developing employee competencies to improve production	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Environmental Corporate Social Responsibility (ENCSR)								
ENCSR 1	Our firm is involved in environmental awareness programmes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ENCSR 2	Our firm assists communities to take care of the environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ENCSR 3	Our firm initiates environment sustainability programmes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ENCSR 4	Our firm adheres strictly to environmental laws and regulations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ENCSR 5	In our firm, waste management strategies are being implemented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ENCSR 6	Our firm promotes and organises conservation programmes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ethical Corporate Social Responsibility (ETCSR)								
ETCSR1	Our firm is known for honesty, fairness and integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ETCSR 2	Our firm employs fair labour practices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ETCSR 3	Our firm's procurement follows laid down procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ETCSR4	Our firm spends a significant percentage of its profits on community development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ETCSR5	Our firm is an equal opportunity employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ETCSR6	Our firm is guided by the labour laws of the country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ETCSR7	Our firm uses the least harmful processes to protect people and animals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social Corporate Social Responsibility (SOCSR)								
SOCSR 1	Our firm promotes employee motivation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOCSR 2	Our firm has regular staff development programmes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOCSR 3	Our firm invests on employee motivation and social welfare	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOCSR 4	We have attractive remuneration packages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOCSR 5	Our firm's social responsibility programmes are designed in consultation with the community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOCSR 6	Our firm donates in cash or in kind to surrounding local communities as a gesture of social support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SOCSR 7	Our firm participates in social change programmes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Corporate Reputation (CR)								
CR1	Our firm is known for high quality service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CR2	Our firm emphasises courtesy to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CR3	Our firm is known for customer satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CR4	Our firm addresses the concerns of its business partners	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CR5	Our firm is known for transparency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CR6	Our firm has competitive remuneration packages its employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Economic Performance (EP)								
EP1	Our firm has increased its profitability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EP2	Our firm has increased its investments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

EP3	Our firm has experienced lower capital costs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EP4	Our firm has a healthy financial position	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EP5	Our firm has increased investor confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EP6	Our firm has experienced a high sales growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EP7	Our firm has been able to service its debts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Operational Performance (OP)								
OP1	Our firm has reduced operational costs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OP2	Our firm has experienced high operational cash flows	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OP3	Our firm has a high machinery capacity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OP4	Our firm has achieved low unit material consumption	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OP5	Our firm's operations are transparent to all stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OP6	Our firm's board of directors are guided by corporate governance guidelines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social Performance Corporate Social Responsibility (SPCSR)								
SP1	Our firm has long term plans for social development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SP2	Our firm involves the community in out sourcing materials and consumables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SP3	Our firm works with other development partners in improving social amenities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SP4	Our firm discloses its social responsibility programmes in the media	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SP5	Our firm's participation in social development programmes is based on a set budget	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SP6	Our firm engages in social change programmes as part of its set objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire. Your views are much appreciated.

APPENDIX 2

MINISTRY OF MINES AND MINING DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY LETTER

All correspondence should be addressed to

"THE SECRETARY"
Telephone: 777022/9
Facsimile: 752786/777044
Private Bag CY 7709, Causeway, Harare



ZIMBABWE

Ministry of Mines and Mining
Development

ZIMRE CENTRE
Cnr Nkwame Nkulumah and L.Takawira
Harare

Ref: Zuva. J

18 September 2020

Mr. Joseph Zuva
10 Nhema Close
Msasa Park
Hharare

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH ON CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, REPUTATION AND PERFORMANCE IN THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE: MR. JOSEPH ZUVA: VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY STUDENT

The above matter refers

Please be advised that the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development approves your request to carry out a research entitled **"Corporate Social Responsibility, Reputation and Performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe"** in this ministry. However the authority granted is for only our parastatals and as for private mining companies, you approach them on your own.

Also, be further advised that at the conclusion of your research, you are requested to submit a copy of the research project to this office for our information.

Onesimo Mazai Moyo

PERMANENT SECRETARY FOR MINES AND MINING DEVELOPMENT



APPENDIX 3

THE CHAMBER OF MINES

Telephone: 263-4
334507/334517/33
6318

E-mail:
[info@chamines.co](mailto:info@chamines.co.zw)
.zw



OF ZIMBABWE

20 Mt Pleasant Drive
Mt Pleasant, Harare

*Please address all
correspondence to the
Chief Executive*

30 January 2020

Vaal University of Technology

Department of Logistics: Faculty of Management Sciences

RE: ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF RESEARCH STUDY

This letter serves as an acknowledgement of the academic research study being conducted by Joseph Zuva (Student Number: 218279582) a PhD candidate at Vaal University of Technology in South Africa.

This office acknowledges receiving notification of the research study with the title; **Corporate social responsibility, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe.**

Yours Faithfully



Isaac Kwesu

Chief Executive Officer

APPENDIX 4

ETHICS CLEARANCE LETTER



Vaal University of Technology

Your world to a better future

30 April 2020

RESEARCHER: Mr. J Zuva

SUPERVISOR: Prof C Mafini

PROJECT TITLE: *Corporate social responsibility, reputation and performance in the mining sector in Zimbabwe*

Decision: Approved

Ethics Reference Number:
FRECMS-18032020-026

Dear Mr. J Zuva

Thank you for submitting the above-mentioned project for ethical consideration. The application was detailed and provided useful information. You may commence with your data collection. This clearance is valid for three years from the date of this letter.

Please also note the following:

The Ethics Reference number, as stated above, should be used in all correspondence regarding this research project.

As the primary researcher you undertake to:

- Only follow the procedures for which approval has been given.
- Inform the Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) of any significant deviations that may occur in the research project which directly influences what has been approved.
- Report any adverse events that might occur, within 14 days of the event, to the FREC. (Refer to the Ethical Guidelines as to what procedure you will need to follow in such an event).
- Submit annual progress reports to the FREC.
- Inform the FREC once the research project has reached completion and the findings have entered the public domain.

The FREC would like to take this opportunity to wish you well with your research project.

Kind Regards

Dr FE Mahomed

Faculty Research Ethics Committee Chair

Faculty of Management Sciences

APPENDIX 5

DECLARATION BY LANGUAGE EDITOR

EDITING CONFIRMATION

To whom it may concern:

This memo serves to confirm that the manuscript/research project detailed below has been language-edited and proof-read.

Best Regards,



F. Saruchera (Ph.D.; Cert. Lang. Ed.)
Professional Editor
sarucheraf@gmail.com

Manuscript Title:

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, REPUTATION AND PERFORMANCE IN
THE MINING SECTOR IN ZIMBABWE

Author:

JOSEPH ZUVA

Issued on:

October 26, 2021

Disclaimer:

The editor/proofreader makes no claim as to the accuracy of the manuscript contents nor the objectives of the author. While all possible efforts have been made to ensure the text as edited is readable and grammatically correct, the author(s) have the option to accept or reject suggestions and trackable changes made to the document before submission.



Sarchcot Language Editors

sarchcot@gmail.com

APPENDIX 6

TURNITIN

JOSEPH ZUVA PHD THESIS TURNITIN

SIMILARITY INDEX			
10%	8%	1%	7%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

MATCHES		
1	Submitted to Vaal University of Technology Student Paper	2%
	Internet Source	2%
3	Submitted to University of the Western Cape Student Paper	2%
4	library.fes.de Internet Source	1%
5	www.eajournals.org Internet Source	1%
6	mafiadoc.com Internet Source	1%
7	digiresearch.vut.ac.za Internet Source	1%
8	www.researchgate.net Internet Source	1%
9	unrisd.org Internet Source	1%