

University of KwaZulu-Natal

**TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING
SUSTAINABILITY OF CORPORATE SOCIAL
RESPONSIBILITY PROJECTS**

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DECLARATION

I, Suvera Boodhoo, declare that:

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ABSTRACT

Corporate social responsibility refers to the responsibilities that business has towards the societies they operate in. The focus is on how business responds to the social demands and pressures put on them by the various stakeholders. Typically these stakeholders are shareholders, customers, suppliers, employees and the community. A heightened expectation of the business sector, globalization and increased media attention on the role of business in society sheds an intense spotlight on this issue. As a result, pressure has built on business to play a larger role in bringing about socio-economic development of many local communities in which they operate.

This study sought to establish the perception of target communities on the sustainability of corporate social responsibility projects. The study was undertaken in schools that are in and around the City of Durban, in an area in which corporate social responsibility projects take place. Educators in the areas of Durban North, Effingham and Red-hill are part of the community who are beneficiaries of these corporate social responsibility projects. Their view on the sustainability of these corporate social responsibility projects was the focus of this study.

A total of one hundred and fifty educators responded to a structured questionnaire that was self administered, and that was the sample size of this study. The questions asked were related to the initiatives that many conglomerates were assisting the communities with. These were issues such as basic needs, equal distribution of resources and environmental degradation.

The results from this study indicated that even though there are corporate social responsibility projects taking place, the communities did not view them as sustainable. The majority of the respondents were not optimistic about the sustainability of the projects they benefited from.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|------|---|
| APPA | Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Act |
| BSR | Business for Social Responsibility |
| CEO | Chief Executive Officer |
| CFO | Chief Financial Officer |
| CSR | Corporate Social Responsibility |
| EIA | Environmental Impact Assessment |
| GHG | Green House Gases |
| ISO | International Organizations for Standards |
| MNE | Multinational Enterprises |
| NEMA | National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998 |
| NGO | Non-government Organization |
| NIE | New Institutional Economists |
| NSW | New South Wales |
| ROD | Reporting Obligations Database |
| WCED | World Commission on Environment and Development |

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The view that organizations have an obligation towards society began when organizations were seen as enjoying unprecedented levels of power, especially over citizens, while participating in little or no social responsibility (Carroll, 1979; Wood and Jones, 1995; Carroll, 1999). In modern society, the amount of power and prominence that business functions and roles have in the twenty first century has come under close scrutiny. The central issue faced by companies is how they define themselves to the outside world especially to local communities. Even though, traditionally, companies have been involved in philanthropic gestures, they are now engaging with communities to a broader extent. This extended engagement is done by aligning business interests with their community involvement activities and, when designed and executed strategically, these activities enhance the quality of many within the community and the reputation of the company (Mak'ochieng, 2003). It is considered necessary by many for organizations to define their roles in society and apply ethical and social standards to their business practices, as corporate social responsibility has moved to reality from ideology (Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig, 2004).

A wide range of issues, which are situated at the heart of social responsibility, include the effects of decisions on employees, customers and the environment, as the primary objective of social responsibility is the enhancement of the welfare of society through policies, procedures, actions and philosophies (Galombik, 1980). In business as in life, deciding between right and wrong in any given situation does not always involve making a clear cut choice. Firms have many responsibilities to society as a whole, to investors, to customers and to employees. Sometimes, as a result, conflict arises in attempting to serve these separate constituencies together with their different needs, as the ethical values of executives and individual employees at different levels can influence the actions and decisions taken by business (DuBrin, 2009).

Social responsibility is advocated in two basic arguments. The first is that, according to timeless moral principles, promoting social justice is a moral duty and there should be fair use of power. The second view is that there are concrete benefits in social responsibility as it creates loyal customers, motivates employees, leads to innovative strategies and products, avoids regulations, protects reputations and strengthens surrounding communities (Steiner and Steiner, 2008).

Those opposing corporate social responsibility such as Friedman (1962), Davis (1973), Carr (1996) and Okpara and Wynn (2002) believe it to be an unwarranted cost which causes confusion of economic goals, creates administrative costs, depletes social welfare and distracts executives, especially when corporations are less efficient. Shareholders own corporations and managers' fiduciary responsibility is to maximize profits for them. Managers who take on social projects or charities are seen as using money from shareholders' pockets, thereby cheating them. In addition, social justice has no definitive meaning, and reasonable people, from progressives to conservatives, differ on what the corporation must do to promote it (Steiner and Steiner, 2008).

According to Edwards and Rees (2006) the agenda on corporate social responsibility is centered on progressive ideology and based, therefore, on the goals of a movement that is at the heart of dubious capitalism. Corporations should be directed by markets and not by politics. The view is that when markets fail, they should be corrected by the policies of a representative government and not by activists or unelected executives. The new, global dimension of corporate social responsibility makes it the duty of multinational corporations to compensate for international and developing country regulatory deficits. The home country should first extend its standards outwards to foreign operations and to its supply chain by following a growing body of international norms, despite their having no basis in law. This added dimension of corporate social responsibility has put down strong roots, because it has value across much of the corporate, social responsibility, political spectrum. It is preferred, and it appeals to activists as a substitute for the new regulatory laws that they are unable to get and also, in a way, overcomes the failure of governments in the fight against poverty, pollution and corruption.

1.2 Background of the Study

For the past fifty years, in one form or another, corporate social responsibility has been present (Wayman, 2009). Included in society's aims were rising standards of living and material welfare, which were realized with the help of the business world. As a result, the business world came to be regarded as a valuable social institution. To most western communities, it does not seem logical to have a high standard of living in the midst of inadequate social progress and a deteriorating physical environment. It is for this reason that the business world is placed under great pressure to reconsider its role in society, especially with regards to ethical business practices, damage to the environment, affirmative action, social responsibility, sustainable development and consumerism (Küpers, 2011). As a broad term, social responsibility highlights the need for responsibility in many divergent spheres of business, for example, poor working conditions, dumping of hazardous waste or investment firms that abuse peoples' savings to enrich themselves. Communities insist that business should, in every respect, be a "good corporate citizen", one that makes safe products, combats pollution, respects the rights of employees and customers, assists the disadvantaged and simultaneously produces profits for its owners and investors. In short, promoting the interests of society is an expectation of business and the crux of social responsibility (Van den Ende, 2004).

When dealing with corporate social responsibility, a variety of terms such as business ethics, corporate citizenship, corporate accountability and sustainability are sometimes used interchangeably. In its simplest term it is: what you do, how you do it and when and what you say. Corporate social responsibility also means addressing the legal, ethical, commercial and other expectations that society has of business and making decisions that fairly balance the claims of all stakeholders. In this sense, whenever a company conducts business and includes the responsibility for current and past actions, as well as for future impacts, corporate social responsibility is then viewed as a comprehensive set of policies, practices and programs. A company's corporate social responsibility issues may vary by business, by size, by sector and even by geographic region. Corporate social responsibility includes issues that are typically related to: business ethics; community investment; the environment; governance; human rights; workplace; and marketplace (Van den Ende, 2004).

The field of corporate social responsibility has grown exponentially in the last decade and is viewed as a conscience effort which is driven by management at the highest level. Organizations are training their people to present a congruent message to the general public, customers and stakeholders (Taggart, 2008). Together with corporations, universities and government entities are training their people and managing efforts of all sizes; and for the past several years, trade schools and universities have been actively educating students on business ethics even though, within the universities, business ethics classes are dwindling and the real education only begins in a corporate setting (Stoll, 2008).

Due to the growing body of evidence that corporate social responsibility has a positive impact on business economic performance, more companies than ever before are engaging in serious efforts to define and integrate corporate social responsibility into all spheres of their business. Amidst the on going debate about whether and how to formulate legal corporate social responsibility requirements for companies, new voluntary corporate social responsibility standards and performance management tools continue to proliferate, for example, as a set of standards for social responsibility, ISO 26 000 is being actively created by the International Standard Organization. Companies are being asked to be accountable, not only for their performance but for the performance of their entire supply chain, and for an ever changing set of corporate social responsibility issues, by their shareholders, which include analysts, activists, labour unions, community organizations, regulators, employees and the media. All of this takes place against a backdrop of an ever changing complex global economy with continuing economic, social and environmental inequities (Van den Ende, 2004).

The rising conflict between what is best for business and society is a result of modern economic and political systems, which make it impossible for firms to operate in a fully responsible and sustainable manner. As a consequence, these conflicts drive environmental and social declines, as well as create growing problems for business. However, these are the unintended consequences of said systems. Dixon (2007: 4) postulates that the main reason for well-intended systems to produce unintended consequences is the failure to think systematically; for example, “everything on Earth is part of one interconnected and interdependent system. It is difficult for the human mind to contemplate all the details of the whole Earth system at once. As a result,

human systems, whether economic, political or social, were developed in simplified, reductionist ways that exclude many relevant, interconnected aspects of society, thus creating these unintended consequences”. Dixon (2007: 4) further postulates that “many ideas that appear to be correct at the individual, company or country level are actually counter-productive at the systemic level. It is important to optimize first, at the whole systems level, because individuals ultimately cannot prosper if the system that supports them does not prosper, this where sustainable development comes in”.

During the western industrial revolution between the 17th century and 19th century, a vast growth in potential energy, such as coal and fossil fuel, was seen and, as a result of the numerous material benefits that were being enjoyed, by the 20th century it became evident that there were associated environmental costs (Meadows, Meadows, Randers and Behrens, 1972). The concept of sustainable development began in the 1980’s, as an increasing number of institutions began to express their growing concern at the accelerating deterioration of the earth’s natural resources and the human environment and the negative effects of that deterioration on social and economic development. In 1987, the World Commission on Environment and Development, chaired by Gro Harlem Brundtland, responded by applying the concept of sustainable development to address the challenges of environmental degradation, social and economic development by recognizing that environmental and economic goals are inextricably linked (Brundtland and Lebel, 1987).

By the 21st century, sustainability had become a mantra, as it embodies the promise of a societal evolution that works towards a more equitable and wealthier world, where the natural environment and our cultural achievements are preserved for generations to come. Having, guided and challenged scores of scholars in the past, this promise touches upon elementary hopes and fears. For the majority of the past one hundred and fifty years, the quest for social equity and economic growth has been a pressing concern. The carrying capacity of natural systems adds to this concern, therefore, sustainability ties together the main challenges currently facing humanity. Over the past four decades, all three problems have had extensive work done, but it was the 1992 at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro that initiated the widespread acceptance by

business leaders, politicians and non-government organizations (NGO's), that none of the three problems can be solved without solving the other two (Keating, 1993).

1.3 The research problem

According to Küpers (2011), companies are now considered liable to and responsible for the impact they have on the internal and external environments in which they operate. However, it is emphasized that becoming socially responsible does not mean that a company must abandon its primary economic mission but rather balance all its responsibilities. Our time has been characterized by a lack of responsibility, particularly in relation to professional settings. The constant degradation of natural resources, and the recent financial crisis and its effects on global society, economy and corporations, have been another reminder that the stability, and ultimately the very existence, of the social and market systems depend on responsible practices, sustainable business models and proactive management of the impact of business on society. Sustainable development or sustainability is now becoming an intrinsic part of commercial dialogue and practice. The causes and parameters of the above mentioned crises show direct links to issues and forms of corporate social responsibility. Küpers (2011: 138) further states that, "in spite of the awareness of the existing environmental and social problems that are faced, environmental and social conditions are declining rapidly in many areas, indicating humanity is becoming more unsustainable".

To reverse this situation, ensure ongoing business prosperity and secure the well-being of future generations, a higher level of work is needed. It is in light of the above that this study has been conceptualized. It is to establish what initiatives companies can implement in order to ensure socially sustainable development and, by so doing, ensure the well-being of future generations.

1.4 Research question

The main research question that this study seeks to answer is: How do organizations' corporate social responsibility initiatives contribute to sustainable development in the communities they target?

1.4.1 Sub-questions

In answering the above question, these sub-questions need to be answered:

- To what extent does corporate social responsibility contribute towards economic sustainability?
- How does corporate social responsibility contribute towards the attainment of social sustainability?
- Does corporate social responsibility contribute towards environmental sustainability?
- The specific activities and nature of corporate social responsibility and how these contribute to the sustainability of corporate social responsibility projects?

1.5 Research objectives

In order to answer the above research question, the following objectives have been identified:

- To establish how corporate social responsibility assists in the attainment of basic needs for societies,
- To ascertain if corporate social responsibility contributes to the equal distribution of resources for sustainable development in societies, and
- To ascertain if corporate social responsibility contributes to curbing environmental degradation.

1.6 Hypotheses

1.6.1 Hypothesis 1

There is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the basic needs questions.

1.6.2 Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the equal distribution of resources questions.

1.6.3 Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the environmental degradation questions.

1.7 Methodology

Burns and Grove (1993) advise that to test and describe relationships and also to examine cause and effect of interactions among variables, a quantitative research approach is most suitable. It is in line with this guidance that this study followed a quantitative research methodology.

This research study has adopted an explanatory research design to assist all stakeholders concerned and affected by corporate social responsibility and sustainable development to understand the importance, requirements and the relationship between sustainable development as well as the potential solutions and benefits of corporate social responsibility and sustainable development.

1.8 Significance of the study

In many instances corporation perform corporate social responsibility initiatives to enhance their corporate image. Therefore very few corporations actually follow up on their corporate social responsibility initiatives to ensure sustainability. This study would become a conscience for many corporations and individuals alike who embark on corporate social responsibility initiatives for reputation building only. This study will also serve as an awareness tool to the communities that might not be aware of what corporate social responsibility is all about, and how best they can access financial assistance or funding for the betterment of their communities.

The study will contribute to the growing body of literature on corporate social responsibility and sustainable development and its impact on South African communities.

1.9 Limitations of the study

In conducting this study the following limitations were encountered:

- Due to financial constraints, questionnaires could only be distributed in nearby schools. Not all teachers in Durban, let alone KwaZulu-Natal could be covered.
- Yes and No questionnaires may not have been adequate perhaps open ended questions would have been sufficient.
- Inferential Statistics (Chi-square) could not be performed as more than 20% of the cells in the Table have expected cell counts of less than 5 and/or less than 1 which makes Chi-square invalid. However the Table would be included in Appendix 14 for verification.
- The sample was drawn from a majority Indian and White area. Perhaps an area that is mainly populated by Africans would have yielded different results.

1.10 Structure of the thesis

This study has been organized in five chapters as follows:

Chapter one is the introduction of the study. This chapter presents the background of the study, the research problem to be solved, the research question to be answered and the objectives to be attained.

Chapter two is a review of literature on corporate social responsibility and sustainable development. Detailed understandings of the conceptual frameworks for social sustainability are presented as well as the sustainability challenge.

Chapter three discusses the research methods used in this particular study. A quantitative research approach was adopted which entailed data being collected by using a structured questionnaire.

Chapter four presents and discusses the results of the data collected. The research findings are also discussed here.

Chapter five is the concluding chapter that summarizes the whole dissertation. Recommendations regarding corporate social responsibility issues covered in this study are also presented. Proposed areas for further research are also identified and highlighted in this chapter.

1.11 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has introduced the problem faced by today's businesses. Today's business corporations are perceived as being economic, social and political entities and thus, can no longer justify their existence in purely economic terms. Our modern society's pluralist nature calls on business to broaden its role in society and rethink its strategy by embracing social issues into corporate goals. Business needs corporate social investment programmes that are more focused on community development and are strategically aligned to long-term core values of the firm. The problem to be addressed in this study has been provided as well as the main research question that the study seeks to answer. The objectives have also been given. The next chapter is an in-depth look at the concepts of corporate social responsibility and sustainable development.

CHAPTER TWO

CSR AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews scholarly work on the constructs under review, namely corporate social responsibility and sustainable development. On the hot list of emerging concepts, corporate social responsibility needs to be addressed and understood by organizations, as it carries significant implications for business to succeed and every sector of business faces significant responsibility issues. Corporate social responsibility originated in media revelations of malpractice by businesses and the resultant insistence of society on restricting such malpractice through regulation. Thus the theories and strategies that are advocated for meaningful social actions by companies are put forward in this chapter. In this regard, Carroll's (1991) pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility (hereinafter referred to as CSR) forms the basis of the approach in this analysis.

Social responsibilities, according to Carroll (1991) are economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic, which, as the author advises, must inform all CSR strategies in the corporation. This analysis will begin by describing each of the components of Carroll's (1991) pyramid and this will be followed by arguments supporting CSR and criticism of CSR. This chapter is also dedicated to sustainable development. Firstly, it introduces the history of sustainable development moving on to conceptual framework of social sustainability. Due to the fact that the world continues to face ecological scarcity problems such as the loss of myriad benefits or services, which are exploited for human use and activity, issues facing global ecosystem degradation are also addressed. The transition from CSR to sustainable development is also discussed in this chapter.

2.2 Corporate social responsibility

As indicated above, Carroll (1979) developed the most commonly accepted and used four-part definition of the concept of CSR. Carroll (1991) has portrayed the definition of corporate social responsibility in the form of a pyramid, with economic responsibilities being the most basic

function. These responsibilities are at the base of the pyramid followed by legal responsibilities, ethical responsibilities and then philanthropic responsibilities at the top.

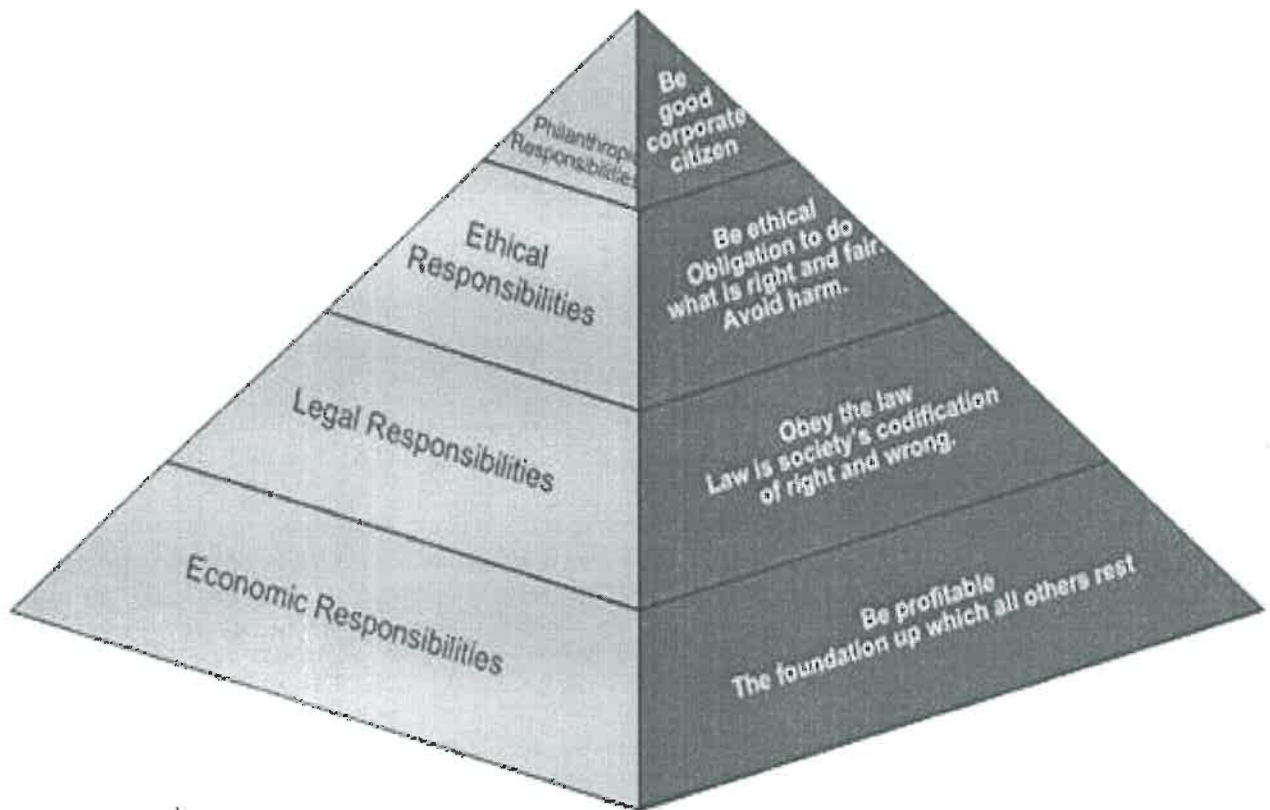


Figure 2.1: Carroll's (1991) pyramid of corporate social responsibility adapted from Da Piedade and Thomas (2006: 58).

2.2.1 Economic responsibilities

In Carroll's (1991) view, society has expectations of business and, as a result, business is seen as an economic institution whose orientation is to produce goods and services, sell them at a fair price and provide business with a profit, which is a true reflection of fair practice to ensure its growth, perpetuation and ability to reward its investors. Therefore, the basis of all other components of his model is profit making.

Agreeing with Carroll's (1991) assessment of being profitable is Drucker (2006), who has identified three vital functions that profit performs. These include measuring the effectiveness of activities performed by business; providing a necessary risk premium in order for organizations to remain operational; and retaining the supply of capital for the future. The objective of profitability provides a measure for the minimum profit that must be produced and not the maximum profit that a business can produce.

There are however, some authors such as Moir (2001), who oppose Carroll's (1991) view on economic responsibilities. Moir (2001) asserts that the only responsibilities that are to be undertaken by business are the provision for the payment of tax, and employment. According to Barnett (2007), excessive financial performance, such as rising profits, can lead to decreasing the ability of a company to influence its stakeholders. When a firm is extracting more from society than it is returning, by exploiting some of its stakeholders in order to favor upper management and shareholders, it results in untrustworthiness to stakeholders looking to establish or maintain relationship with the firm. Barnett (2007) further argues that the principle of maximizing shareholder wealth is not in the interest of shareholders.

While tension remains between these two views on profit making, the notion of an economic responsibility, in terms of financial profit to stockholders, is accepted and required by both views. It may even be argued that maximizing shareholder wealth in the long run is an underlying principle of both views. The real difference lies in that the classical economic view fails to appreciate the long-term negative effects of the application of the maximization principle in the short-term. In contrast, the opposite view applies the maximization principle for long-term benefits, which means that the same principle may be suppressed in certain short-term considerations. Just as society expects business to make a profit for its efficiency and effectiveness, society also expects business to obey the law (Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

2.2.2 Legal responsibilities

According to Carroll (1991), whilst pursuing the profit motive, a company has to obey the rules as well. Its legal responsibilities are the ground rules and laws which represent the basic rules by which business is expected to function. Legal responsibilities reflect the view of

codified ethics in the sense that they embody the basic notion of fairness, as established by our law makers. It is business's responsibility to fulfill its economic objectives within the legal framework of requirements, which is set forth by society's legal system.

Some authors such as Carroll and Shabana (2010) advocate that the scope of legal responsibilities should expand to encompass more regulations because for the fulfillment of CSR, regulations are necessary. It is argued by De Schutter (2008), that CSR rests on certain presuppositions about markets and the business environment, which should be affirmatively created by a regulatory framework for CSR. It is agreed by most commentators that legislation itself cannot increase socially responsible behaviour and that organizations should work towards developing a culture of corporate responsibility (Morrison, 2001; Sarre, Doig and Fiedler, 2001; Weaver, 2001; Calдини, Petrova and Goldstein, 2004).

The two above mentioned opposing views continue to present their arguments to justify the need for the expansion or contraction of the legal requirements imposed on business. Advocates of regulation question the ability of the free market mechanism to support CSR activities. Carroll and Shabana (2010) contend that market failure and the business environment are not rewarding firms who engage in CSR activities. In contrast, opponents of regulation such as Bernstein (2000) argue that the free market mechanism promotes the interest of individuals, and in turn society, by rewarding CSR activities that are actually favoured by individuals. CSR activities that are not rewarded by the market are those activities that individuals do not value and are therefore unwilling to support. The merit of CSR activities should, therefore, be determined by the free market mechanism (Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

2.2.3 Ethical responsibilities

Ethical responsibilities embrace activities and practices that are expected or prohibited by societal members, even though they are not codified into law. Embodied in ethical responsibilities is a wide range of standards, norms and expectations that focus on the concern for what the community, consumers, employees and shareholders regard as just, fair or in keeping with the respect for or protection of stakeholders' moral rights. Justice, rights

and utilitarianism are the implied levels of ethical performance which take into consideration the great ethical principles of moral philosophy (Carroll, 1991). As a shared set of values and guiding principles, which are deeply ingrained throughout the organization, ethical behaviour is seen as a mirror image of a organization's culture (Paine, 1994; D' Amato, Henderson and Florence, 2009).

Most organizations' corporate responsibility proponents are defined from a stakeholder's perspective which is based on analysis and engagement. As a result, many managers are left to face the challenge of determining who their stakeholders are and to which of their demands or needs they should respond. To manage this challenge, Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997), developed a model of stakeholder identification and salience based on stakeholders' attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. Based on this model, organizations would be expected to pay the most attention to legitimate stakeholder groups who have the power and urgency, and who can be divided into primary and secondary stakeholders.

Primary stakeholders are generally understood to be shareholders, investors, employees, customers and suppliers, together with what is defined as the 'public stakeholder group' namely, government and communities, who provide infrastructure and markets, whose laws and regulations must be obeyed, and to whom taxes and obligations are due. Between the primary stakeholders and the organization, a high level of interdependence exists, since damage to this relationship affects the survival of the organization. A broader view of stakeholders is based on the premise that organizations have a responsibility to society beyond their primary stakeholders. Opinions regarding the extent of this responsibility vary and some theorists believe that companies are being forced into a broader notion of stakeholders, due to increasing pressure that is being put on companies by secondary stakeholders, such as activists, non-governmental organizations, communities and other governments (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). Lantos (2001) builds on Carroll's (1991) work by classifying CSR into three categories, namely: ethical, altruistic and strategic. To the public, ethics is seen as the minimum and mandatory fulfillment of a corporation's legal, ethical and economic responsibilities.

Lantos (2001) has also identified strategies as one of the three categories of CSR. These strategies are designed with ethical considerations.

i. Stakeholder strategies

Amalric and Hauser (2005) argue that the criterion for making the necessary trade-offs among various stakeholders' interests is the long-term value maximization of the organization. In Jensen's (2001) analysis, value maximization provides managers with a single objective that is necessary for purposeful behaviour. His criticism of the stakeholders' theory is that it contains no conceptual specification as to how to make trade offs between the competing, and often conflicting interests of various stakeholders. The basic premise of enlightened value maximization is that managers cannot maximize the long-term market value of an organization if managers ignore or mistreat any important constituency. Value maximization provides management with a way to assess trade-offs and demands by allowing principled decision-making to be independent of personal preferences of managers and directors. In terms of this theory, managers and employees are motivated to seek value by instituting those changes and strategies that are most likely to increase organizational value. In line with Lantos (2001), the strategies that organizations should adopt are divided into short-term strategies and medium to long-term strategies, as follows:

a) Short-term strategies

Werther and Chandler (2006), have identified specific steps that are also discussed by other authors, such as Grunig (1979), Hosmer (1991), Donaldson and Preston (1995), Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2001), Jackson and Bundgard (2002) and Middlemiss (2004). The previously mentioned authors offer short-term strategies which include the creation of a framework for CSR, comprising of top down commitment; position statement for CSR; CSR audit and report; awareness creation; and CSR ombudsman.

- **CSR framework**

Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002: 111) state that "a structural report is required for CSR, as CSR should be at the same executive level as other key corporate governance issues".

Ideally, to gain sponsorship and visibility, the position of the CSR officer should be held by a company executive and must be supported by the chief executive officer (CEO).

- **Top down commitment**

According to Donaldson and Preston (1995: 70) “when integrating CSR into an organization’s operational culture, it should begin with top management, preferably the chief executive officer (CEO) or other top organizational leaders, such as the vice president of corporate responsibility”. Donaldson and Preston (1995: 71) further state that “top management should collaboratively establish the necessary components for an efficient and effective CSR policy and institutionalize it within the firm, using the standards for the assessment of organizational, individual and unit effectiveness”. To this end, a stakeholders’ perspective should be taken in leadership, instead of an input or output approach to strategic management.

- **CSR position statement**

Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002: 118), state that “with the active support of the chief financial officer (CFO) the CSR position statement should involve the organization’s key stakeholders and their perspectives”. The CSR position statement should contain a conflict resolution process that seeks solutions, which are mutually beneficial. It also reinforces the importance of CSR by providing practical guidance on sanctions and rewards, and by specifying how CSR is to be implemented on a daily basis. Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002), further suggest that, from a business perspective, the CSR process needs to be connected to the company’s moral response to pressure, and needs to set clear objectives and means of measurement, core competencies and core values.

- **CSR audit**

Grunig (1979: 748) reported that “one of the earlier efforts in public relations was to manage and facilitate the CSR audit process, and explain communication, behaviour and attitudes towards issues of CSR that were raised by the public”. Grunig (1979) made use of a situational theory in, which the study essentially assisted managers on the selection of certain social issues for attention and auditing, as well as to develop and devise a communication

program to inform the public about responsible corporate acts. In consultation with stakeholders the method of using survey methodologies has been considered an effective method in this procedure as it has resulted in CSR audits being published, with results showing future awareness among internal and external stakeholders (Jackson and Bundgard, 2002).

- CSR annual report

The CSR annual report should be in line with the triple bottom line thinking which entails environmental, social and financial performance. For an ideal CSR annual report, Middlemiss (2004) suggests that the annual report take into account the demands from stakeholders. This annual report focus should be on management systems that: refrain from listing numerous detailed indicators; be limited to fifty pages in length; be no more than thirty minutes reading time; be complemented by the internet and special publications; be written in a business-like fashion that is sparsely illustrated; and still be able to reveal its key message clearly within.

• Financial report

The ability of a firm to generate a profit in a preferred manner which demonstrates and is in line with standards of responsibility is appreciated by financial stakeholders. Organizations justify their favorability for investments by designing and managing some mutual funds that feature CSR standard (Homer, 1991). Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002: 119) state that “such claims are further strengthened when they demonstrate how improved ethical standards increase profits, especially by avoiding increased amounts of regulatory constraint, operating efficiently, increasing market share and limiting legal liability”.

Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002: 119) further observe that “companies sometimes realize that, by improving their engineering standards for instance, they can use more of the feedstock materials they purchase while reducing environmentally damaging wastes and emissions, thereby avoiding unnecessary regulatory constraints”. Companies have the power to insist on the reduction of raw material use, improve processes to cut down on environmental impacts, lower accident rates and use other practices that are in line with

financial and ethical improvements. They can also stay clear of crises that are associated with discoveries such as, economic colonialism, practices of child labor and sweatshop conditions.

- **Online reports**

Traditionally, to insist upon an organization's CSR standard and accomplishments, printed reports have been circulated. However, many of these printed documents or reports never get circulated or only reach individuals who are not particularly interested in such reading. As a result, many organizations today summarize such reports but make a full report available through a link on their corporate home page. In this venue, organization can view their CSR standards with text and even pictures, including videos (Hosmer, 1991).

According to Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002: 113), "due to these online versions that are available around the clock, rather than languishing on the shelves of public relations practitioners, the interested reader can simply follow a link to find additional comments by the organization which positively comment on the focal point of the organization's standards and achievements and links can be used as a bridge between a business and its non-profit partners in CSR". According to Donaldson and Preston (1995: 72) "it is wise to report continually on company progress and be willing to combat unsupported or biased claims to the contrary. This online venue can allow for CSR accomplishments to be attached to related messages, such as marketing and organizational history".

- **Employee communication**

Another means of communicating CSR to company employees is indicated by Hosmer (1991). It lies in an array of vehicles that include the intranet and executive statement. Vital to the manner in which employees conduct themselves and perform their work is the culture of an organization; this culture is also important in the ability of the organization to achieve CSR.

- **Advertising and other promotional options**

Promotional tools can integrate CSR claims into product and service advertising, as well as arguments by government agencies for funding, and by non-profits for fund-raising. Such

claims demonstrate how an organization's actions truly benefit its stakeholders (Hosmer, 1991).

b) Medium to long-term strategies

After the above basic conditions are created, Hess, Rogorsky and Dunfee (2002: 73) state that "organizations may engage in more long-term strategies such as stakeholder involvement, corporate governance and managing key messages". Not all of these strategies should or can be managed by public relations practitioners but they can add value to internal discussions and planning, and are essential to external communication.

- **Stakeholder involvement**

Under stakeholder involvement, public relations practitioners can change the focus to include social issues and relationship building from financial reporting and investors' relations. It has been indicated by Smith (2003: 58) that "such stakeholder engagement should be at the core of designing any CSR strategy, as a legitimacy gap can be produced through the lack of awareness of a firm's obligation towards its stakeholders". Smith (2003: 58) states that "stakeholder engagement is, therefore, more likely to lead into informed management thinking and decision making. Given the foreseeable difficulties that will be experienced in the process, due to the lack of skills and openness of management, diverse management of stakeholders' perspective and the unwillingness of certain stakeholder groups to engage in such dialogues have encouraged some firms to hire talent from the non-profit sector".

- **Corporate governance**

Corporate governance indicates the policies and procedures applied by firms to attain certain sets of objectives, corporate missions and visions with regard to suppliers, stockholders, customers, employees, different regulatory agencies and the community at large. The role of governance is to maximize shareholder's wealth. Corporate governance depends on managerial performance as well as a consideration of social responsibility, the socio-cultural-environmental dimension of business procedure, legal and ethical practices with a focus on customers and other stakeholders of an organization (Wise and Ali, 2009). Smith

(2003: 57) states that “transparency and accountability are key words in driving and increasing reform in the area of corporate law in shareholder activism”.

- **Manage the message and measure social performance**

According to Smith (2003) as a requirement for strategic CSR, stakeholders’ expectations need to be met in reality and there should be avoidance of excessive self-promotion. If these requirements are not met, CSR efforts will fail to demonstrate other interests or the orientation of mutual interests. Smith (2003: 70) further suggests that “there should be a development of appropriate metrics, which are specifically benchmarked for measuring social environmental performance and goal setting”.

- **Communication strategy guidelines**

In order to frame strategies for the communication of corporate responsibility, Sims (2003) offers the following sage bit of advice: be as realistic as possible and do not give false promises, especially if the organization or industry cannot deliver on them; encourage organization or industry-wide input into the standards and the best means for accomplishing them, as well as the stumbling blocks; make room for diversity; allow whistle blowing provide training in ethics; recognize the ambiguity that is inherent in ethical standards and their implementation, and; integrate ethical decision-making into employee and operating unit appraisal. Once an organization has its strategic design in place, it can go ahead and implement it into its business strategies. Once this has been accomplished, the next step would be to implement their CSR.

Strategic corporate responsibility is more than simply giving away money; it refers to companies making a conscious investment in worthy social causes from, which companies expect to receive a return in the future. In other words, there is a strong ‘strategic’ link between charitable giving and the corporation’s bottom line. This definition of strategic CSR denotes that such activities are strategic because they give a return to the business involved. In other words, the fact that the business derives some tangible bottom line benefits makes these activities strategic. Strategic CSR is also seen as something that occurs when a company aligns its corporate giving with its business interests in areas that take

advantage of their core competencies and support their business objectives (Gillis and Spring, 2001).

This study differs from Gillis and Spring's (2001) definition of strategic CSR by arguing that aligning business interest per se with CSR activities does not make these activities strategic. For a company, said to be conducting CSR from a strategic level, its social investment activities must be connected to its strategic planning process and aligned with its core values, culture and conduct. Grayson and Hodges (2001), comment that organizations are often confused about where to draw the line on their external involvement and that business should use cultural and societal norms as a guide for the role in the communities in, which companies operate in a particular region. They recommend that managers focus on community issues that show a direct link to business needs, an interest among employees, relevant corporate expertise and other resources that can be deployed. As Moir (2001:17) states: "whether or not a business should undertake CSR, and the forms that responsibility should take, depends upon the economic perspective of the firm".

Put differently by Mak'ochieng (2003), CSR is said to be strategic when a company incorporates community involvement activities into its strategic planning process and operations. This requires that a company incorporate external environmental concerns found in society into its strategic concerns. The company then searches for appropriate responses to these concerns instead of merely regarding them as constraints on commercial activity. This involves a constant information flow and a process of validation between business and community. All this implies that strategic CSR is a long-term engagement in corporate social investment initiatives and must, therefore, be incorporated into the strategic planning process of a company. This is the understanding that will be employed in this study.

From the discussion thus far, it is arguable that different companies find themselves at different levels of engagement in CSR. It is assumed here that companies are moving towards greater accountability and thus towards a strategic level of engagement with their various stakeholders with regard to CSR activities. The more a company adopts strategic

CSR as spelt out above, the more socially responsible it is deemed to be (Mak'achieng, 2003).

Further discussed by Basu and Palazzo (2008: 130) “are ways in which an organization can implement CSR into their organizational business functions. How organizations implement CSR depends on how they define it, whether as a moral obligation or as a rational approach to stakeholder satisfaction. It serves best when it is part of the organization’s culture, planning, and management. It also has implications for budgeting, return on investment and measures of effectiveness”. Basu and Palazzo (2008: 131) argue that “public relations practitioners not only participate in the dialogue to define CSR standards, but they also play a crucial role in helping markets, audiences and the public to be aware of the standards client organizations are willing and able to implement”.

CSR requires a comprehensive approach that, according to Basu and Palazzo (2008: 130), “features the classic troika of human nature which involves: (1) Cognitive: matters of identity and legitimacy that define what and how firms think, (2) Linguistic: matters of justification, positioning and transparency that define what firms say and (3) Conative: matters of posture, consistency and commitment that define how firms behave. Practitioners can participate in the cognitive, linguistic, and conative aspects of their organizations to foster the alignment of mutually beneficial interests in society”.

- **Cognitive**

Organizations seek to legitimize organizational activities by communicating the benefits of organizational involvement and the changing perceptions about business activities. As noted by Lindblom (1994), organizations are not limited to follow a passive approach when seeking to gain legitimacy; however, they can employ such an approach for broad legitimizing strategies when threats loom near: 1) in order to improve performance and educate stakeholders about the intention of the organization; 2) encourage the organization to change its perspective of the event; 3) distract attention away from the issue of concern, and 4) seek to change external expectations about its performance. Suchman (1995: 578) identifies three challenges to legitimacy management, namely: gaining, maintaining and repairing

legitimacy. According to Suchman (1995: 578), “the success or failure of legitimacy management initiatives relies heavily on communication and the effectiveness of corporate communications”. Organizations not only earn legitimacy but are expected to use the power granted to them responsibly or such power will be withdrawn by society. Suchman (1995) equates this to an organization being at a strategic stage of learning.

Through issues of monitoring, public relations can come to play a vital role in assisting the organization to become aware of and, to think about changing CSR standards and the means for achieving them. Basu and Palazzo (2008: 125) state that “beyond scanning for changes in stakeholders’ expectations and assisting to create a matrix of multidisciplinary players to learn about and analyze such changes, the reality, however, is that public relations is not an expert on numerous matters that are at the core of CSR standards and performance management”. There are others in management who need to commit to a strong CSR program, for example, according to Basu and Palazzo (2008: 127) only a few key disciplines such as, “accountants must recognize, appreciate, and implement higher financial management standards, as must general counsel, engineers, process experts, human resources specialists, nutritionists and environmental impact specialists”.

According to Basu and Palazzo (2008: 130) “effective public relations and CSR require every discipline within an organization to understand how an organization can improve, how that improvement enhances stakeholder relationships, and how it can be communicated as well”. Basu and Palazzo (2008: 130) further state that “such planning often requires practitioners to convince management that stakeholders are calling for higher engineering standards and processes to achieve employee or product safety, or, an even more daunting task, of sustainability. Practitioners may not know what is required in terms of engineering standards or accounting practices, however, they can ascertain that strains occur when key stakeholders’ expectations are not being met or, when they are being met, stakeholders are not aware of the fact”.

- **Linguistic**

Kenneth Burke (1973) a famous language theorist, observed that people are interested in meanings that are co-created. Human experiences can never be completely free from the terminologies that operate in any given moment, which filter views of physical and social realities, including standards of corporate responsibility. Burke (1973) reasoned that one must use terministic screens, since one cannot say anything without making use of terms, which ever term is used, as it constitutes a corresponding kind of screen. Burke (1973) looked thoroughly for cracks in the armor of communication and warned that if language is viewed as the fundamental instrument of human cooperation, and if there exists an 'organic flaw' in the nature of language, one can expect to find this organic flaw revealing itself through the textures of society.

Clark (2000) explored the interconnection of communication and management, for example in public relations and CSR, and, through her exploration, she observed that these two disciplines have very similar objectives in that both disciplines seek to enhance the quality of an organization's relationship with its key stakeholder groups and that doing so makes excellent business sense. When drawing her conclusion, Clark (2000) noted that questions remain as to the chosen message and how it affects the reputation or perception of an organization as being responsible. A good organization and its socially responsible position on key issues are defined by the terms of relevance to reputation and issue position. In such cases, meaning matters. From this linguistic perspective, public relations can play a leadership role in being conversant with the terminology or linguistic changes in the communities where each organization operates outside-in thinking.

No discussion of CSR can ignore the terminological challenges and the role of public relations in such efforts. In any process of institutionalization, meaningfulness is never a 'given' but has to be struggled for, has to be secured, even against the resistance of others (Clegg, Courpasson, and Phillips, 2006). According to Clark (2000: 366) "public relations help to define key terms that become part of the general dialogue which, in turn, influences how the ideology and evaluation of CSR performance is conceived in each society in any era. Therefore, practitioners should be specifically and especially trained and positioned to

understand, appreciate, and respect the development of idioms that are current in the thinking and decision-making of the private and public sectors”.

- **Conative**

Even though CSR and public relations are not identical, in order to be effective, there is a need for them to remain interdependent. Being a good organization is a prerequisite for being a good communicator. In truth, few articles exist on CSR that focus on how it can be communicated. Clark (2000: 367) therefore, “sought to correct this flaw by demonstrating the parallels that exist between CSR and communication management approaches to public relations, which feature the identification of problems, resolution of conflict and the quality of relationships”. These add scope to Clark’s (2000) argument and show public relations as having a dynamic role to play in the process by which organizations advance their CSR performance, as they seek to strengthen the relationship they have with stakeholders.

A model was conceptualized by Black and Hartel (2004) which was tested empirically to better understand the connections between the concepts and the way in which public affairs and CSR can make organizations more effective:

- Value-attuned behavior and dialogue can be supported by public relations,
- Ethical business behavior and accountability can be defined and supported by CSR,
- Organizations that are more socially aware, exhibit a higher commitment and ability to achieve genuine dialogue and engagement with stakeholders,
- A committed, caring atmosphere and higher standards of business ethics are exhibited in the workplace of an organization that has a higher CSR, and
- Employees’ beliefs about the value of accountability are fostered.

Organizations under attack can smooth their relationships instead of reducing the honest hostility of critics, by making true changes. Advocacy as a cognitive variable can, and probably should, be seen as a positive communication option, since it addresses from many perspectives the key issues upon which standards of corporate responsibility are forged and framed.

According to Black and Hartel (2004: 128) “the standards of CSR are enacted by organizations in all that they say and do. The operational enactment of each organization’s standards of corporate social responsibility occurs when it puts its money where its mind and mouth are. This enactment opens the door for another key role of public relations which is to assist the organization to communicate its various standards and goals, both internally and externally”. Companies believe that the best practice is transparency, which includes stating their CSR goals and then reporting on how well they meet those goals. Such statements can help reduce any legitimacy gap by demonstrating how organizations meet or exceed the expectations of others. In this way, effective public relations can foster mutually beneficial relationships which, Heath and Coombs (2006) reasoned, exhibit the following characteristics:

- Transparency and openness: allowing others to see whether the organization has sound CSR principles in place and whether it meets them,
- Trustworthiness: demonstrating that the organization practices CSR principles that will be viewed as dependable, reliable and non-exploitative,
- Cooperation: enacting collaborative decision-making regarding the standards that should be met and the measures which are needed to achieve them,
- Alignment: demonstrating that the organization is responsive, responsible and able to achieve rectitude through shared goals, interests and rewards with its stakeholders,
- Compatibility of views or opinions: co-creating or socially constructing, through dialogue, standards and implementation of CSR, and
- Commitment: planning and operating in ways that achieve a balance between the interests of the organization and interests of the persons whom the organization affects and whose support the organization needs for its success.

Public relations can help organizations to make society more fully functioning by solving collective problems rather than merely managing relationships. Having a good relationship does not mean that organizational standards of CSR will be raised. Heath (2006: 97) states that “in fact, an antagonistic relationship is more predictive of the kind of change that has led to higher standards of corporate social responsibility”. Heath (2006: 98) further states that

“such relationships have been forged through heated debates (issue communication, focusing on fact, value and policy) by various groups engaged in power resource management at various times, often not with a genuine consideration for the good of society as a whole, but merely for the good of a sector of the society, perhaps to the disadvantage of some other sector”.

According to Heath (2007a: 47) “businesses in crisis demonstrate that often an organization that seems to enjoy the best relationships with stakeholders is not actually adhering substantively to high CSR standards”. The paradox is of image driving substance rather than substance driving image. The quality of such relationships needs to be based on solid principles and the willingness and ability of each organization to meet or exceed stakeholder expectations over the long term. “Sometimes and, there are ample cases to demonstrate this point, organizations foster positive relationships to seem to be good when those relationships actually mask a crisis in the making” (Heath, 2007a: 48).

Heath (2007a: 50) further states that “once the crisis manifests itself, the relationships are not only demonstrated to be based on false assumptions and performance standards, but the damage of falsely built relationships makes crisis response and recovery difficult, and even impossible. A sound foundation of CSR commitment can help an organization recover from crisis. In sharp contrast, if the crisis results from inadequate or fraudulent CSR commitment, it is very likely to be even more damaging”. Discussing the conative dimension of corporate social responsibility, Basu and Palazzo (2008: 127) reason that “it is a focus on matters of posture, consistency and commitment that defines how firms tend to behave”.

2.2.4 Philanthropic responsibilities

Philanthropic responsibilities are business’s voluntary, discretionary or altruistic responsibilities. These are activities that are guided only by the business’s desire to engage in social activities that are not required by law, not generally expected of business in an ethical sense and not mandated. Such activities might include giving to charitable causes, providing day care centre’s for working parents, initiating adopt-a-school programs, conducting in-house programs for drug abusers, and establishing loaned executives programmes in the

community. It needs to be emphasized that concern for profit does not necessarily translate into concern for society. However, where it is the case, there is a concern about the company's moral behaviour. A focus on the entire pyramid as a collective whole is required by the organization to simultaneously fulfill its component parts when it engages in actions, programs and decision-making (Carroll, 1991).

Even though philanthropic responsibilities are conducted on a voluntary or altruistic basis, organizations still need to have a game plan of how they intend to carry them out. Like any of business other activities in, which it has adopted a strategic manner in which to operate, it makes sense for an organization to adopt strategies when conducting philanthropic responsibilities. Kanter (1999) observes that traditional business practices, such as technological innovation, are not key to winning in the business world today, however, CSR in a strategic capacity is seen as a form of corporate innovation, as several leading companies are beginning to discover (Mak'ochieng, 2003).

In Kanter's (1999) view, tackling CSR from a strategic point of view forces companies to stretch their capabilities to produce innovations that have business as well as community pay-offs. When companies tackle social problems in this manner, companies now have a stake in the problems, and treat the effort the way in which it would treat any other project central to the company's operation. They use their best people and their core skills. Clearly this work cannot be seen as charity; it is a strategic business investment. It can be argued, therefore, that the transition from a purely philanthropic vision of community involvement to a strategic corporate involvement requires a shift in mind-set, whereby the company then views the community as one of its key organizational stakeholders.

King (2000:12) argues that "of the three models to CSR, it is the strategic level of CSR that offers the most promise for any substantial shift in corporate culture and social change because it is based on the principles of sustainability and the triple bottom line concept". Also, as corporate reputation becomes increasingly important for business success, corporate citizenship is becoming a mainstream business activity. Increasingly, CSR is now being regarded as an essential and integral part of business mission, strategy and operations. In fact,

according to Business for Social Responsibility (BSR, 2000), issues of CSR, long considered business “externalities”, are now integral to corporate operations and directly contribute to brand reputation and financial performance. Corporate social investment is in the midst of a significant evolution as it moves beyond charity and philanthropy towards a far more social and strategic model.

2.2.5 Arguments supporting CSR

Davis (1973) has put two arguments in favour of CSR, which include ‘business has the resources’ and ‘let business try’, which views maintain that, because business has a reservoir of management talent, functional expertise and capital, and because so many others have tried and failed to solve social problems, business should be given the chance. It has been argued that business should engage in CSR because the public strongly supports it. Today, the public believes that, in addition to its pursuit of profits, business should be responsible to their workers, communities and other stakeholders, even if making things better for them requires companies to sacrifice some profits (Bernstein 2000).

As a result, both business and society can benefit from the CSR initiatives in which an organization participates. The scale and nature of the benefits of CSR for an organization can vary, depending on the nature of the enterprise, and can be difficult to quantify, though there is a large body of literature exhorting business to adopt measures beyond financial ones. Orlitzky, Schmidt, and Rynes (2003), found a correlation between social performance, environmental performance and financial performance. However, businesses may not be looking at short-run financial returns when developing their CSR strategies.

Within the organization, the definition of CSR can vary from a strict ‘stakeholders impact’ often used by many CSR advocates, to that of a philanthropic one, which often includes charitable efforts and volunteering. An organization’s CSR initiatives may be based within the human resources department, business development or public relations department, or it may be given a separate unit altogether which reports to the CEO, or in some cases directly to the board. Organizations may also implement CSR-type values without a clearly defined

team or program. The business case for CSR within a company will likely rest on one or more of these arguments:

i. Risk management

According to Kytte and Ruggie (2005), managing risk is a central part of many corporate strategies. Reputations that take decades to build up can be ruined in hours through incidents such as corruption scandals or environmental accidents. These can also draw unwanted attention from regulators, courts, governments and media. Building a genuine culture of doing the right thing within a corporation can offset these risks.

ii. Brand differentiation

In crowded market places, companies strive for a unique selling proposition that can separate them from the competition in the minds of consumers. CSR can play a role in building customer loyalty based on distinctive ethical values. Several major brands, such as The Co-operative Group, The Body Shop and American Apparel are built on ethical values. Business service organizations can benefit too from building a reputation for integrity and best practice (Paluszek, 2005).

iii. License to operate

Corporations are keen to avoid interference in their business through taxation or regulations. By taking substantive voluntary steps, they can persuade governments and the wider public that they are taking up issues such as health and safety, diversity or the environment; that they are good corporate citizens with respect to labour standards and impacts on the environment (Paluszek, 2005).

iv. Human resources

A CSR programme can be an aid to recruitment and retention, particularly within the competitive graduate student market. Potential recruits often ask about a firm's CSR policy during an interview, and having a comprehensive policy can give an advantage. CSR can also help to improve the perception of a company among its staff, particularly when staff can

become involved through payroll giving, fundraising activities or community volunteering (Bhattacharya, Sen and Korschun, 2008).

Organizations that are located in or near communities can aid communities by employing individual from within the community. The statistics on the labour force in South Africa is collected by the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) which is a household-based sample survey conducted by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). It collects data on the labour market activities of individuals aged 15 years and above who live in South Africa. However, it only covers labour market activities of persons aged 15 to 64 years and presents the key findings of the Quarterly Labour Force Survey conducted from January to March 2012, the first quarter of 2012 (www.statssa.gov.za).

The number of persons in the labour force increased by 207 000 between the fourth quarter of 2011 and first quarter of 2012. Employment decreased by 75 000 in the first quarter of 2012 and the number of unemployed persons rose by 282 000 on a quarterly basis. Employment normally declines following seasonal gains in employment ahead of the December festive period. The number of the not economically active population decreased by 91 000, an increase of 20 000 in the discouraged work seekers and a decrease of 111 000 in the 'other not economically active'. This resulted in the unemployment rate increasing by 1.3% points to 25.2% (www.statssa.gov.za).

Formal sector employment declined by 107 000 jobs while the informal sector employment decreased by 28 000 jobs. Employment in private households rose by 33 000, the second consecutive quarterly rise while in agriculture, employment increased by 26 000 in the first quarter of 2012. Compared to a year ago, employment increased by 2.3% (304 000), unemployment increased by 3.7% (162 000), the number of discouraged work seekers increased by 5.0% (112 000) and other (not economically active) decreased by 0.8% (106 000) resulting in the not economically active as a whole remaining virtually unchanged (a net increase of 6 000) (www.statssa.gov.za).

Employment expanded by 304 000 on an annual basis in the first quarter of 2012. This is the third successive quarter in which a significant growth on a year-on-year basis was observed. The robust employment growth over the last two quarters on an annual basis implies that the economy has created 447 000 jobs in the first quarter of 2012 since the trough or lowest level in the number of employed persons in the third quarter of 2010, a recovery of close on half of the million jobs lost over the period of the fourth quarter of 2008 to the third quarter of 2010 (www.statssa.gov.za).

Employment per industry between the fourth quarter of 2011 and the first quarter of 2012, saw the largest employment losses that were observed in the Construction (71 000) and Manufacturing (67 000) industries, while employment expanded in Private households (33 000) and Agriculture (26 000). Compared to the same period last year, employment increased by 304 000 jobs, with Finance and other business services, Trade, and Community and social services together accounting for 88% of the rise in employment, contributing 110 000, 95 000 and 63 000 jobs respectively. Job losses were observed in Manufacturing and Construction industries, as employment declined by 81 000 and 45 000 respectively in these industries between the first quarter of 2011 and the first quarter of 2012 (www.statssa.gov.za).

Employment per province between the fourth quarter of 2011 and first quarter of 2012, saw employment decreased in five of the nine provinces, with the highest declines observed in Eastern Cape (47 000), KwaZulu-Natal (43 000) and Free State (16 000). There were job gains in Gauteng (25 000) and Limpopo (11 000) over the same period. Compared to a year ago, employment increased in six of the nine provinces, but declined in Eastern Cape (46 000), Free State (43 000) and North West (18 000) (www.statssa.gov.za).

Employment per occupation between the fourth quarter of 2011 and first quarter of 2012, the largest decrease in employment was observed in Clerical occupations which decreased by 104 000, followed by Craft and related trade (32 000) and Managerial (28 000) occupations. The largest job gains were observed among Elementary (50 000), Technician (34 000) and Domestic worker (18 000) occupations. Compared to a year ago, the majority of jobs were

created in Elementary (162 000), Clerical (78 000), and Technical (71 000) occupations. Employment declined in the Managerial (34 000), Plant and machine operator (28 000) and Craft and related trade (16 000) occupations (www.statssa.gov.za).

There are numerous benefits that society can reap from businesses which engage in CSR activities, which include environmental protection, programmes that target life and work issues, community redevelopment projects and increased quality of life. These will be discussed below.

v. Environmental protection

Many companies take the initiative to preserve the natural environment in a way that pleases environmental groups (e.g. Greenpeace). As a result, the company works in partnership with a group who is intent on such purposes as reducing carbon dioxide in the air, preserving forests or protecting a species of fish or animal. Environmental protection is at present a major social responsibility initiative with business enterprises, large or small (DuBrin, 2009).

Another key aspect of environmental protection is the prevention of pollution rather than the control of wastes after they have surfaced. For example, a company might eliminate the use of mercury in electrical switches and, instead substitute a metal such as copper that is less toxic to the environment. The concern is that when the switch is discarded, the highly poisonous mercury could eventually work its way into the ground. Recycling also helps prevent pollution because recycled products are resources in use rather than resources decaying in dumps or land-fills. In addition to top-level management taking the initiative to protect the environment, companies often trigger many employees into thinking about environmental protection in ways such as car pooling, being a good recycler, and not littering (DuBrin, 2009).

vi. Work and life programs

According to DuBrin (2009), organizations take a major social responsibility initiative when they establish programmes that help employees balance the demands of work and personal

life. The intention of a work-life program is to help employees lead a more balanced life, and be more satisfied and productive on the job.

vii. Community redevelopment projects

As a large-scale social responsibility initiative, business firms invest resources in helping rebuild distressed communities. Investing in the community is but one aspect of philanthropy, or charitable giving. Investments could mean constructing offices or factories in an impoverished section of town, or offering job training to residents from these areas (DuBrin, 2009).

DuBrin (2009) observed that a specific goal of some community redevelopment projects is to replace a crime-ridden development with new housing that is associated with less crime and more community pride. Despite the contribution of community redevelopment, this social responsibility initiative does have its drawbacks. Tenants may be forced out of their homes to make way for new development, which cannot accommodate all previous tenants. Community redevelopment can also be done on a small scale by an enterprise investing in the community in which it is located, or giving back.

Providing housing to surrounding communities can be viewed as part of community redevelopment projection. Housing can play an instrumental role in the development of a community as many communities have minimal forms of housing or none at all. According to the census, 269,000 households in KwaZulu-Natal 12% of households in the province lived in informal settlements in 2001, 19.38% lived in enumeration areas classified as urban settlements and a further 38% in informal settlements classified as tribal settlements. KwaZulu-Natal province accounts for 24% of all households in informal settlement in the country and it accounts for 19% of all households overall.

In 2007 community survey, 141,000 households approximately 6% of households in KwaZulu-Natal live in shacks not in backyards, which are down from 177,000 households which are 8% of households in 2001 as reported by the census. In terms of absolute numbers there was a decrease of around 36,000 in the number of households living in shacks not in

backyards between 2001 and 2007 (www.statssa.gov.za). The community survey conducted in 2007 further states that roughly 12% of households in shacks not in backyards live in this province and roughly 18% of all households in the country live in this province. Survey based provincial estimates of the number of households who live in shacks not in backyards vary, sometimes quite significantly. For instance, in 2007 the community survey estimates around 141,000 households living in shacks not in backyards in KwaZulu-Natal while the 2007 the general household survey estimates around 172,000 such households. Estimates based on the general household survey indicate an annual growth of 1% between 2002 and 2009, while estimates based on the census and community survey indicates an annual growth of 4% between 2001 and 2007 and at just under 105,000, eThekweni has the highest number and proportion of households living in shacks not in backyards of all municipalities in KwaZulu-Natal (www.thehda.co.za).

viii. The quality of life area

Certo and Certo (2006) believe that the measurement of quality of life should focus on whether the organization is improving or degrading the general quality of life in society. Producing a high-quality of goods, dealing fairly with employees and customers, and making an effort to preserve the natural environment are all indicators that the organization is upholding or improving the general quality of life. As an example of degrading the quality of life, some people believe that cigarette companies, because they produce goods that can harm the health of society overall, are socially irresponsible.

2.2.6 Criticism of CSR

As there are arguments rooting for CSR, there are also arguments that are not as favorable towards CSR. Discussed below are the arguments that are critical of CSR.

i. Maximization of profit

Criticisms of CSR begin with Friedman (1962) who argues that management has one responsibility and that is to maximize the profits of its owners or shareholders. Friedman (1962) argues that social issues are not the concern of business people and that these problems should be resolved by the unfettered workings of the free market system. His view

holds that, if the free market cannot solve the social problems, it falls not upon business, but upon government and legislation to do the job. However, Friedman (1970) did recognize a spectrum of moral and ethical responsibilities, positing that the social responsibility of corporations is to make as much money as possible while conforming to the basic rules of the society, both those embodied in law and those embodied in ethical custom.

ii. Ill equipped to handle social activities

Davis's (1973) objection to CSR has been that business is not equipped to handle social activities. This position holds that managers are oriented towards finance and operations and do not have the necessary expertise (social skills) to make socially oriented decisions. Rowe and Schlacter (1978) argue that the vagueness of the term has played a key role in corporations being hesitant to embrace CSR. Measuring the manifestation and effects of CSR has proved to be another difficult factor that has deterred managers from embracing the concept. Jones (1980) concurs with Rowe and Schlacter (1978) in that the conceptualization of CSR is that the term is too inclusive and too vague to be useful.

iii. Obey the law

Some economists have also gone so far as to argue that the only social responsibility corporations have is to obey the law (Carr, 1996). Similar to Carr's (1996) view, Klonoski (2001) notes that Friedman offered the dominant and well-known view representing the economic approach which separates social functions from business functions; he argues that the business of business is business. Adam Smith (1863 cited in Lantos 2001) was perhaps the first to espouse the market value maximization perspective when he argued that by pursuing profits, corporations produce the greatest social good because the invisible hand of the capitalist market ultimately helps solve society's problems. Lantos (2001) used the term 'Economic CSR' to refer to profit-oriented CSR activities which absolve corporations from social contributions because they pay taxes and wages to employees, rather than enslaving them. Contrary to the view of the proponents of the business and society approach, classical economists assert that the basic responsibility of business is to maximize shareholders' value (Okpara and Wynn, 2002).

2.3 From CSR to sustainable development

Being largely driven by various stakeholders such as shareholders, non-profit organizations and trade unions, is the current wave of CSR. A few studies conducted by D' Amato, Henderson and Florence (2009) and Cuthill (2010), have thus far attempted to analyze the link between CSR and sustainable development (Jenkins, 2005). Key to sustainable development is a strongly enforced and well implemented CSR policy. As a comprehensive notion, CSR takes into account environmental, economic and social concerns and, at the same time, protects the interest of all stakeholders by requiring greater transparency.

The understanding among corporate managers is inherent in the social responsibility of corporations in that their business decisions must be made with a consideration of a wider range of constituents than shareholders, and thus they ought to consider the implications of their actions on employees, consumers, suppliers, the community, and the environment. Also included under stakeholders is other non-government organizations (NGO's) and civil society. The view of stakeholders on a corporation's social responsibility requires a constant dialogue between the companies' various stakeholders and corporate decision makers (Jenkins, 2005).

In the end, a well enforced and well implemented CSR strategy that utilizes a constant dialogue with stakeholders should result in improvements in the quality of human life, global alliance creation, empowerment of communities to care for their surrounding environment, care and respect for the community of life, provisions for a global framework for integrating conservation and development and change in practices and personal attitudes (Herrmann, 2004).

Improvements in the quality of life have led to long-term value creation for the corporation, its stakeholders and the communities in which it operates. However, it is important to note that the implementation of a CSR policy will initially cause the corporation to incur additional costs, with no immediate return. That is, the corporation may have to choose more expensive inputs and production techniques to protect the environment, or pay labourers more and provide improved working conditions, all of which consume resources and detract from the bottom line by increasing operating costs. CSR may also require the corporation to forego certain opportunities that are not aligned with the company's values and principles, as found in its CSR

policy. Having a set of clearly stated values, principles and policies, and mechanisms for measuring performance and ensuring internal and external accountability for these, is crucial to the corporation's contribution to sustainable development in the globalized world. Managers should seek to ignore the short term costs of instituting and adhering to a CSR program in favour of thinking about the long-term benefits thereof, both for the company and the world. Although CSR policies will vary among industries and among companies within those industries, three main areas that CSR policies will influence have been identified (Herrmann, 2004).

CSR first requires the implementation of socially responsible core business activities that minimize negative impacts and optimize positive impacts. This includes compliance with international standards concerning the environment, labor, and human rights. Companies can also be more proactive in controlling the risks and social costs associated with their activities. Second, companies should institute poverty-focused social investment and philanthropy programs, such that company's contributions to host communities and social causes become integral to the company's strategy. Third, CSR requires corporations to become engaged in public policy dialogues and institution-building with the goal of fostering an environment that is conducive to both profitable business and sustainable development. This requires the establishment of trade and business associations or corporate leadership networks that will address issues beyond immediate commercial interests. However, as stated previously, Multinational Enterprises (MNE's) cannot be relied upon to implement CSR policies individually, due to concerns for commonality among protections, implementation and evaluation mechanisms. Furthermore, short-term profit motivations will be a countervailing force to the adoption of CSR policies for all but the most community-minded corporations (Herrmann, 2004).

Mondol (2010) argues that CSR is perceived by government and business communities as a bridge connecting business and development. Increasingly, CSR programs are discussed in terms of their contribution to development. According to Wambura (2010) corporations play a very critical role through CSR activities by supporting broader social and economic development, businesses can turn the poor into customers and employees, and neglected areas into new markets and new sources of supply. Also, by improving local communities, companies obtain

greater quality and reliability from their partners in local supply chains. Therefore, there is a business sense in the virtuous circle. It is, therefore, significant to highlight how the two stakeholders in question (that is, businesses and the poor community) stand to benefit so as to establish a rationale regarding the value of this union (Wambura, 2010).

While the language of social sustainability is still relatively new, responses to date suggest it is a concept that is readily understood and enthusiastically embraced; however, there is uncertainty with the broad-scale acceptance of any new concepts". Social sustainability's strong marketing point lies in its strategic and preventative approach to social issues which addresses the causes rather than just treating the symptoms. As previously mentioned in this dissertation, there has been great emphasis and effort placed on the understanding of economic and environmental sustainability; however, there is a lack of understanding on the social dimensions of sustainable development which is highlighted in the case of rapid urban growth in western democracies (Cuthill, 2010).

Be it from individual citizens to communities, public interest groups and government, stakeholders are exerting pressure for the improvement of the sustainability of products and the production process. Clouding and complicating the picture, is the ever-growing fact that we are living in a world that is continuously growing more densely populated and more complex in culture, politics, economics and geographic. This is due to our interactions globally and the ever-expanding impact of humans on earth. There has been an increase in radical and disjointed change as a result, and there seems to be multiple causal irritants of problems. In the face of chaos, old answers are distressingly simplistic, as yesterday's certainties are fast becoming today's anachronisms (Porter and Derry, 2012). Even to the most stalwart optimist, with the rapid overturning of commonplace realities it can be quite daunting to need more sustainable products and practices. Sustainability can become a favorable or unfavorable issue for an organization in the following ways:

- From the beginning, it may become a priority and will be incorporated into the company's mission statement,
- It could arise as a desired aspect and outcome of the other goals and objectives,

- It may be given importance, due to the change in regulations or standards in industry, and
- It can be seen as an innovative source of competitive advantage as sustainability may result from unforeseen crises that target the company as a polluter or social oppressor.

When any one of these conditions is present, organizations begin to entertain the integration of how their products and production process affects the social and natural environment. The sense of responsibility and the implementation of this growing awareness in protecting and preserving natural resources have placed individuals and organizations on a path which recognizes the fact that we share in locally and worldwide by which we either prosper or decline together. New insight and knowledge in the twenty first century practice of management is required in order to respond to the contemporary growing awareness of sustainability, as traditional tool kits for solving managerial problems have become ill-equipped to capture and respond to sustainability issues (Porter and Derry, 2012).

As a conventional norm, a reductionist approach was used which characterized problems by chunking a discrete analysis of parts, subsequent synthesis and the reassembling of the now improved system. This conventional perspective favours top-down planning which includes the omniscient mastery of the facts and for an optimized solution, normative plans were used to satisfy everyone. These traditional approaches have a flow which lies in their shared modernist, Newtonian assumptions of equilibrium, linearity and a version of the truth which is singular, all of which fails to fully mirror our contemporary experiences. Prioritizing the over-exploration of processes requires modernist problem solving, which leans heavily on the metrics of outcomes and performance, as a valid measure of viable solutions (Porter and Derry, 2012).

In doing so, intermediate processes are discounted and all but conventional performance measures are relegated to a black box of unknowable cause and effects. There is no doubt that valuable information is provided by linear analysis, however, these methods offer little in the representation of an non-equilibrium conditions that have now generally become commonplace in the world, particularly in issues of sustainability. A further iteration of the conventional approach is the ever finer contingency models which are likely to inspire new understanding of the dynamic complexities of environmental and social systems. Multiple stakeholders are

involved in contemporary organizations which are assessed through multiple levels of analysis, frequently operating on multiple geographic and political scales. They are not reducible to the simple models of boxes and arrows popularized by twentieth-century organizational theory. Complex and convoluted feedback loops closely represent the dynamic flow of ideas, knowledge and productivity which evolve into stories, power plays and dynamic updating of part or entire systems that could fall apart, even in the most taken-for-granted assumptions. The social and relational perspective of complexity theory and thinking offers new and exciting resources for understanding adaptive management systems (Porter and Derry, 2012).

2.4 Sustainable development

Sustainable development can be defined as the development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). Another definition of sustainable development is “when human beings strive for enhanced life conditions without diminishing the meaning of life itself namely our children's future, one calls this development sustainable” (www.3mfuture.com).

Since the extensive discussion and use of the concept, there has been recognition of three aspects of sustainable development. According to Redclift (2005) and Kunz (2006) the balance between the environmental, economic and social “pillars” of social development is attained through consideration and has now been incorporated into the mainstream political discourse. Gebreselassie (2010) concurs, stating that sustainable development is concerned with three main areas: environmental sustainability, economic sustainability and socio-political sustainability. Harris (2000) identifies the key aspects of sustainable development as follows:

2.4.1 Economic

“Continuing to produce goods and services is what an economically sustainable system must do by being able to maintain and manage levels of government and external debt, and keep clear of extreme sectoral imbalances which damage industrial and agricultural production” (Harris, 2000: 5).

2.4.2 Environmental

“It is a must for an environmentally sustainable system to be able to maintain a stable resource base by avoiding over-exploitation of environmental sink functions and renewable resource systems and the depletion of non-renewable resources. To some extent investments are made to adequately substitute the following: the maintenance of atmospheric stability, biodiversity and other ecosystem functions which are not ordinarily classified under economic resources” (Harris, 2000: 6).

2.4.3 Social

“A socially sustainable system must achieve adequate provision of social services and distributional equity which include gender equity, political accountability, education, participation and health” (Harris, 2000: 6).

2.5 Social sustainability

The general definition of social sustainability is the ability of a social system, such as a country, to function at a defined level of social well-being indefinitely. This level should be defined in relation to the goal of *Homo sapiens*, which is, or should be, to optimize the quality of life for those living and their descendants (www.thwink.org). Harris (2000) defines social sustainability as a system that must achieve distributional equity and adequate provision of social services including, health and education, gender equity, political accountability and participation. Cuthill (2010) describes social sustainability as enabling and maintaining the quality of life for people, by protecting the mental and physical health of all stakeholders, encouraging community involvement, treating all stakeholders fairly, and providing essential services. It is also critical that essential services are effectively delivered to anyone who may need them.

There are two aspects that reflect social sustainability. These are: environmental sustainability and economic sustainability. Environmental sustainability problems are, first and foremost, social problems. In essence, it is the people who impact on the natural environment who are managed, not nature itself. One of the pressing issues that affect environmental sustainability is the continuous polluting of oceans and rivers which has arisen from the demand for water. This demand for water is due to the fact that the world population has grown to an alarming figure for

example, the province of KwaZulu-Natal has grown to approximately 10,645,400 people in 2010 (Statistics SA 2010:4) from approximately 9,557,165 people in 2001. These estimates are the medium scenario of Statistics South Africa population projections which include the effects of HIV-AIDS and in and out migration i.e. the projections are not only of natural growth. The number of people in 2010 increased by approximately 1.88%, a decrease of 1.52% from 2009 but an increase compared to the year-on-year growth figures prior to 2009 (www.statssa.gov.za).

Economic sustainability means to serve people, rather than the view that people serve economic interest. This is especially relevant in relation to equitable distribution of resources. Environmental sustainability and economic sustainability are reflected in the social sustainability framework which describes a self-reinforcing and interdependent relationship between four key components: social justice and equity, social infrastructure, engaged governance and social capital. The following diagram, adapted from Cuthill (2010), depicts these components which will be discussed thereafter.

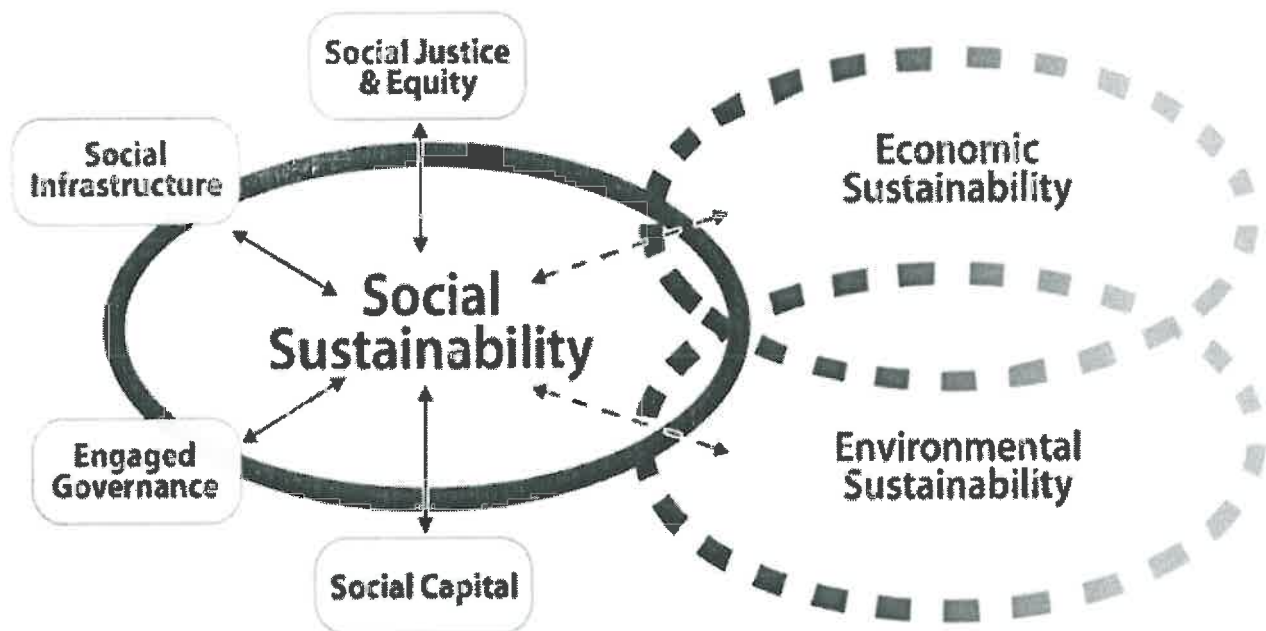


Figure: 2.2 Conceptual Frameworks for Social Sustainability adapted from Cuthill (2010: 366)

2.5.1 Social justice and equity

Social justice is based on a principle of solidarity and equality that values and understands human rights and recognizes the dignity of every single human being. Based on the concept of equality and human rights, social justice involves a greater degree of economic egalitarianism through even property distribution, progressive taxation and income distribution. Social equity further implies fair access to self-determination in meeting fundamental needs, resources, full participation in the political and cultural life of the community, and education and livelihood (Zajda, Majhanovich and Rust, 2006).

When formulating and implementing social sustainability strategies and policies, the concept of social justice and equity provides an ethical foundation, as it is a critical consideration for social sustainability. Gotlieb (1996) argues that there is a pressing need to consider those that are worse off in our communities. While oppression, disadvantage and poverty are issues that are closely associated with developing countries, a considerable amount of the populations of advanced industrial countries populace are residing in similar deprivation, even though equity and social justice are considered to be applicable to the entire population. Cuthill (2010: 363) states that “at a local level of developed and developing countries, pressing need translates into provision of housing, health services, food and sustenance, and affordable and appropriate education. In addition, there are guarantees of individual and community safety and the required opportunity to genuinely participate in civil and social life”.

Cuthill (2010: 363) states that “provision of basic human needs sets a foundation where all people have the opportunity to live fulfilling, safe and healthy lives. As such, it is suggested that fulfillment of basic human needs must be seen not only as a fundamental of social sustainability, but as a prerequisite for sustainable development itself”. For example, in Australia, some policy responses are being developed, such as the Local Government Association of New South Wales (NSW) (2004) cited in Cuthill (2010: 368) presented a social justice framework based on application of the following four principles: equity, rights, access and participation.

Firstly, equity refers to the fairness in the distribution of resources, particularly to those who require it the most, for example, in practice this might mean that not only are there public transport services, but these services provide equitable access for those who are less well off financially, people with disabilities and older persons. According to Cuthill (2010: 364) “there is also equitable access to appropriate employment opportunities that exist within the local communities, affordable housing, appropriate information and a range of health services, government processes and policy that provide appropriate resources to assist individuals and groups to develop their skills, knowledge and abilities and participate in social and civic networks, education and community services”.

Second on the social justice framework is rights, which entails the equality of rights promoted and established for all people within a country, these rights also extend to the disabled as the province of KwaZulu-Natal has a national average of 5.0% of disabled people whilst Gauteng and Western Cape had the smallest proportions of disabled people which could imply that the disabled stay in the less urban provinces while the able bodied moved to the more industrialized provinces in search for work. At almost 7% of the provincial population, Free State had the highest proportion of disabled people (<http://www.info.gov.za>).

Access is the third principle in the social justice framework and it includes the fair access for all people to economic resources, rights and services essential to their quality of life. In response to social issues and needs in the United Kingdom, public policy were implemented by the government however; it has been criticized for using ‘top down’ approaches which devalue the very people it seeks to serve. The engagement of communities and citizens in governance, around the world, is now becoming an important focus of many governments (United Nations, 2007).

Participation is the fourth and final principle in the social justice framework. This involves the opportunity for all people to genuinely participate in the community and be consulted on decisions that affect their lives. People are increasingly expected to be able to be involved and have a real say in decisions that impact on their lives (Cuthill, 2010). Cuthill (2010:

364), states that “more and more governments are responding with a renewed commitment to be effectively engaged in order to deliver better outcomes for citizens and communities. As such, it is argued that engaged governance provides a methodological foundation for social sustainability”.

2.5.2 Social infrastructure

Braddon (1999) defines social infrastructure as a system of networks, social services and facilities that support the people and their communities. These include income, leisure, recreation, cultural expression, health, safety and shelter.

From the perspective of social sustainability, soft infrastructure might include provisions for building the ‘capacity’ of citizens and community groups that work together with government towards a sustainable community, and community services that respond to the identified needs of communities. Emerging from capacity building are outcomes which include the development of active and informed citizens and a civil society which contributes to strong local governance. Having the potential to provide broad benefits, such responses result in a net return on public investment (Gaventa, 2001; Lyons, Smuts and Stephens, 2001).

According to Lyons, Smuts and Stephens (2001) the British government visibly addresses the challenges of social infrastructure, for example, in eighty eight local government areas; England has addressed the chronic under-provision of infrastructure. These social and community infrastructure items are urgently required, however, they are under-funded in their allocations and the less tangible ‘soft’ infrastructure is virtually neglected. As noted earlier, it is apparent that neglect has implications relating to negative local governance, economic and social outcomes. Lyons, Smuts and Stephens (2001: 1237) state that “investments in soft infrastructure, as an operational basis for building social sustainability, results in a net return on investments which include: a benefit-cost ratio of over two to one for some pre-kindergarten education programs, and benefit-cost ratios of up to eleven to one for some youth development programs in the United States”. For every dollar invested in

community services and networks in the United Kingdom, ten dollars were saved to better employment outcomes, and reduce crime and health costs (Karoly and Bigelow, 2005).

Soft infrastructure components are just as important as hard infrastructure and a balance should be achieved in provision for both (Casey, 2005). According to Cuthill (2010), with regards to soft infrastructure requirements of communities, there is a clear need to develop more effective operational and strategic responses, as the distribution of infrastructure, resources and services must be underpinned by consideration of social justice and equity.

2.5.3 Engaged governance

Defined as an institutional arrangement, engaged governance links citizens more directly into the decision-making processes of a state, so as to enable them to influence the public programmes and policies in a manner that impacts more positively on their economic and social lives. The concept of engaged governance, in its broadest context, is part of a wider discussion about democracy that extends over nearly 3000 years and, as a governance norm, in most countries it is yet to be fully realized within the existing political culture. It is argued by some that government citizen engagement is fundamentally a political activity and therefore, is a strong normative element required at the starting point of engaged governance which includes, at its core, the democratic ideals of political equality and the public good. As an approach, engaged governance is expected to enable the co-ordination and expression of civic, political and administrative interests for the achievement of sustainable development, social justice, policy coherence and equity (Guthrie, 2003).

According to Bloomfield, Collins and Munton (1998) in a contemporary context, the effectiveness of a primarily representative democracy is increasingly being challenged. There are assumptions that are being made of representative democracy. Representative democracy is where citizens of a country elect one of their own to represent their collective voice in government. However, this may have more meaning in smaller communities which are faced with relatively slow change. Bloomfield, Collins and Munton (1998) argue further that, during the decision-making process, there is a need to include a wide range of knowledge and provide a context for calls for a democracy that is more participating in

nature, where citizens are engaged and active in the issues of the day, instead of being withdrawn and passive (Epstein, Wray, Marshall and Grifel, 2000).

According to Cuthill (2001: 187) “engaged governance is seen as somewhat problematic, in that it requires, to various degrees, those who ‘have’ power to devolve it to those who have none”. Such a situation might be viewed as a threat to considerations of wealth, privilege and centralized governance (Crush, 1995). Rather, as Amalric (1998:5) argues that, “such processes must not be directed at control of power, but rather at building countervailing power; power that is based on a collaborative approach to governance, involving all stakeholders working together for the common good”. As such, implementation of a more engaged form of governance provides a foundation for stakeholders to be more closely involved in decision-making and informed action relating to social sustainability (Cuthill, 2001; Cuthill and Fien, 2005).

It is suggested by Cuthill (2010: 366) that, “for institutions looking to strengthen their efforts, a more explicit emphasis on engaged governance as an important first step is required for a foundation of social sustainability. It is important, however, to note that the framework for social sustainability emphasizes a self-reinforcing and interdependent relationship between the four earlier identified components”. These are social justice and equity, social infrastructure, engaged governance and social capital; all four components are to be strongly emphasized, explicitly addressed and recognized.

Due to the lack of attention paid to social sustainability, compared with economic and environmental sustainability, it is easy to understand why there is still a relatively unsophisticated understanding of the social dimension of sustainable development. Cuthill (2010: 370) suggests that “an investment of an equivalent effort in developing and implementing a regional level social sustainability framework would generate significant outcomes, not only with regards to social issues but towards enhancing prosperity and facilitating both positive environmental outcomes and a more effective and equitable form of governance”.

2.5.4 Social capital

Defined by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), social capital is the sum of the potential and actual resources available through, embedded within and derived from, the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital is thus comprised of both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network. Described by the World Bank (1998), social capital includes the attitudes, relationships, values and institutions that govern interactions among people and contribute to social and economic development.

As a starting point for social sustainability, social capital identifies concepts such as trusts, norms, civic engagement and social networks. Social capital is also the glue that holds them together as it includes the shared common sense of 'civic' responsibility that makes society more than just a collection of individuals and not simply the sum of institutions which underpin society. According to Cuthill (2010: 368), "from a historical perspective, a similar notion to the social discussion on 'civic virtue' can be traced as far back as the political philosophy of Ancient Greece. The current dialogue on social capital can therefore be viewed from the latest incarnation of varied and lengthy discussions relating to the wellbeing and health of communities. It is argued that high levels of social capital in communities provide democratic, social and economic outcomes which contribute to community well-being". As a precondition for economic development, as well as for effective governance, social capital needs to be embodied in the networks and norms of civic engagement (Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2000).

There has been a steady building of evidence relating to the benefits of social capital, that there is now a diverse and substantive body of literature around social capital which discusses the concept and its policies and theoretical and operational implications. There also appears to be increasing support for a useful theoretical concept relating to building healthy, resilient, strong and socially sustainable communities. Individual health and community well-being must be considered when addressing social capital through public policy, processes and other resources. The social sustainability framework seeks to build a more sophisticated understanding of the link between social and other factors, for example,

having high levels of social capital clearly does not alleviate the need for appropriate social infrastructure that caters to community needs (Cuthill, 2010).

2.5.5 Economic and environmental sustainability

The term economic sustainability is used to describe the promotion of the use of resources that are both responsible and efficient, and likely to provide long term benefits. Regarding business operations, economic sustainability calls for making use of resources, in order for business to continue functioning over a number of years, while consistently returning profits (www.wisegeek.com). Environmental sustainability can be defined as the maintenance of the factors and practices that contribute to the equality of the environment on a long-term basis (www.businessdictionary.com).

Conflict between business and society is created when business is not held fully responsible for negative social and environmental impacts. There is no easy way in an Earth system which is a closed system. Dixon (2007: 8) states that “the negative impact of business on social and environmental realms results in returns for business that cause problems and impact negatively in the form of activist campaigns, lawsuits, opposition to opening new facilities and stores, and market rejections”. In the infinite earth system, as the scale of economic activity increases, feedback loops are shortened and business receives push-backs for negative impacts more quickly. As a result, this causes social and environmental issues to become more financially relevant to business and investors, and a growing financial relevance is driving mainstream, socially responsible investing and corporate responsibility (www.instituteforpr.org).

Traditional corporate responsibility goes beyond regulation and seeks to reduce the negative social and environmental impacts by firms who are not held responsible. Regulations regarding the elimination of some of their pollution and other social and environmental impacts are often required of some firms, but not all. Voluntary corporate responsibility in thousands of cases has proved to place firms in a competitive position that enhances their reputations, reduces energy, increases brand value and employee morale, increases profitability, generally securing rights to operate, reduction in material and waste disposal

costs, greater access to new markets and easier facilitation of site approval (www.instituteforpr.org). However, Dixon (2007:9) states that “voluntary corporate responsibility very rarely allows business to fully mitigate negative impacts and thus act in a fully sustainable and responsible manner. Beyond a certain point, companies attempting to fully mitigate impacts see increases to costs relative to firms that are not fully mitigating. If a company tries to act responsibly by going too far beyond regulations and attempting to mitigate all of its negative impact on society, it will eventually put itself out of business”.

In a competitive market, firms cannot remain in business and act in a fully responsible manner. Over time, only holding firms fully responsible in a practical way will make firms fully sustainable and responsible on the profit-maximizing path. Until it becomes unprofitable to do so, traditional approaches of corporate responsibility tend to go beyond regulations and mitigate negative impacts. Going further would violate the obligation to maximize shareholder return and, as a result of going through the mechanism, firms are compelled to degrade social and environmental systems (www.wisegeek.com). Dixon (2007: 3) states that “if political and economic systems cannot evolve into forms that better service society, business and investors’ cumulative negative impact will force system change, almost certainly in a disruptive manner. It is highly likely, given the rapid escalation of global social and environmental problems, that disruptive system change will occur sooner rather than later and companies we will have few, if any options, if they wait until the issues are fully upon them”.

These issues need to be addressed in the near-term, to effectively improve human systems. The need to begin developing and implementing solutions has become a short-term issue, even though there may be no short-term solutions. To business leaders, the complexity of improving political and economic systems is not as daunting as it would be to everyone else, as business is in the best position to lead system improvement efforts, because its experience in operating in regulatory and economic systems gives it much practical knowledge. In other words, those who understand systems best are best able to improve them and, in addition, business has the ability to develop and implement successful system change strategies with its vast creative and innovative potential. Finally, by business

arguably (Dixon, 2007) being the most powerful human force on earth, voluntary system improvement almost certainly will not happen if business does not drive it (Dixon, 2007).

True environmental responsibility encourages the responsible use of resources, however, this does not only involve ensuring that business is turning a profit but that business operations are free from creating environmental concerns that could potentially harm the balance of local ecology. Business has the ability to choose raw materials that are more environmentally friendly by being mindful of the impact that their operations have on the local community and by designing and implementing effective waste disposal strategies that do not damage local environments. Attention to the above mentioned types of details in the long run have the potential to increase community investments in the continued operations of business and improve the chances of remaining a viable operation for a longer period of time (www.wisegeek.com).

The concept of economic sustainability is straightforward, however, in different companies potential obstacles may be found such as, resistance to change, which can often lead to less than efficient use of available resources. The failure to justify expenditure and track expenses will also have adverse effects on the long-term stability of a company and, as a result, limit its potential for economic sustainability. To ensure improvement in the sustainability of a company's operations, companies sometimes make use of outside consultants, who can evaluate with relatively little bias and point out what needs to be done. The goal of economic sustainability is to establish long-term profitability because a profitable business is much more likely to continue and remain stable, operating one year after the other. From this perspective, economic sustainability is seen as a tool which can ensure that business does have a future and continues to contribute to the financial welfare of employees, the owner of the business and to the community in which the business is located (www.wisegeek.com).

2.6 Sustainability challenges

The consensus reached by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), is the starting point for most interpretations of sustainability. Sustainable development is defined

by The World Commission on Environment and Development (1987) as the development that meets the needs of the present, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Economists are most comfortable with the broad interpretation of sustainability, as it is easily translatable into economic terms, as an increase in well-being today should not reduce the well-being of tomorrow as a consequence. Barbier (2011: 237) states that “this means that future generation should be entitled to at least the same level of economic opportunities and thus at least the same level of economic welfare that is currently available to present generations. Consequently, economic development today must ensure that future generations are left no worse off than present generations or, as some economists have succinctly put it per capita welfare should not be declining over time”.

According to the above mentioned view, society must decide how best to use the total stock of capital employed by the economic system including natural capital, which determines the full range of economic opportunities. With an increase in current economic activities and welfare, it is important to establish how much of natural capital is needed to be saved and accumulated for tomorrow and ultimately, for the well-being of future generations. However, it is not necessarily that the aggregate stock of capital in the economy that may matter but rather its composition, in particular whether present generations are using one form of capital to meet the needs of today (Pezzey, 1989).

Mäler (1995: 218) states that, “the interest in sustainable development has arisen out of concern for the current economic development which may be leading to the rapid accumulation of human and physical capital, but at the expense of excessive degradation and depletion of natural capital. The major concern has been that, by depleting the world’s stock of natural wealth irreversibly; the development path chosen today will have detrimental implications for the well-being of future generations”. Barbier (2011: 238) states that “from an economic stand point, the critical issue of debate is not whether natural capital is being irreversibly depleted, but whether individuals today can compensate future generations for the current loss of natural capital and, if that is possible, how much compensation is required for this loss”.

Economists are concerned with this problem and appear to be divided into two views over the special role of natural capital in sustainable development. Barbier (2011: 238) states that “the main disagreement is whether natural capital has an essential or unique role to play in sustaining human welfare and whether there is a requirement for special compensation rules to ensure that further generations are not left worse off today by the depletion of natural capital”.

There are two contrasting views which are generally referred to as weak sustainability versus strong sustainability. The view on weak sustainability is essential meaning that there is no inherent difference between natural and other forms of capital, therefore the same rules of compensation ought to apply to both. The value of aggregate stock comprising human, physical and the remaining capital will continue to increase over time, as long as the natural capital that is currently being depleted is replaced with an even more valuable human and physical capital. To attain sustainable development, enhancing and maintaining the total stock of all capital alone is sufficient (Pearce and Barbier, 2000).

Barbier (2011: 237) states that “in contrast to weak sustainability, proponents of strong sustainability argue that human and physical capital cannot be substituted for all the environmental resources that comprises the natural stock of capital or all the ecological services that are performed by nature”. The proponents of strong sustainability consequently question whether, on the one hand, natural capital and on the other, physical and human capital can effectively comprise a single homogeneous total stock of capital. Proponents of strong sustainability instead maintain that essential to human welfare are some forms of natural capital, particularly unique environments, irreplaceable natural resource attributes such as biodiversity, key ecological services and goods and natural habitats (Barbier, 2011).

Due to the value that future generations may place on the above mentioned important assets, uncertainty lies in the life span of these assets to add value towards human welfare. As a result of placing value on these assets, these assets can become increasingly scarce, which limits our ability to determine whether for further generation these assets can be adequately compensated, for the irreversible loss that is experienced in such essential natural capital today. Therefore, according to Barbier (2011: 238) “the view on strong sustainability suggests that environmental

resources and ecological goods and services which are essential for human welfare, cannot easily be substituted by human and physical capital therefore, it should be protected and not depleted. The only satisfactory compensation rule for protecting the welfare of future generations is by keeping essential natural capital intact, which entails increasing or maintaining the value of the total capital stock over time. This requires, in turn, the keeping of non-substitutable and essential components of natural capital constant over time”.

Pearce and Barbier (2000) further argue that important environmental values have not been reflected in markets, despite much rhetoric to the contrary, and are routinely ignored in policy decision making. A vicious cycle is at the core of unsustainability growth, whereby excessive environmental degradation is the result of environmental value failures which are reflected in the policy and market decisions that have led to economic development. As a result of environmental values not being reflected in policy and market actions, an increase in ecological scarcity will also be ignored in the decision making process. As a further result, the vicious cycle will be reinforced and the current pattern of economic development will continue on its unsustainable path. In order to effectively reverse the process of unsustainable development, it is crucial to stop this vicious cycle.

It is not easy to reconcile the debate between weak and strong sustainability, however, what is agreed upon by economists on both sides of the debate is that the type of natural capital that is especially at risk is ecosystems. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) provided an important indicator on the growing ecological scarcity experienced worldwide. It was discovered that sixty percent of the world’s major ecosystem goods and services were degraded and used unsustainably. Falling under this category are some important benefits to human kind which include, wild foods, water purification, fresh water, waste treatment, captured fisheries, wood fuel, genetic resources, spiritual, religious and aesthetic values, bio-chemicals, pests, the regulation of regional and local climate, natural hazards, pollination and erosion.

Barbier (2011: 235) explains that “increasing costs associated with the rising ecological scarcity is one major difficulty that is not reflected routinely in markets, however some goods, such as fresh water, wood fuel, captured fisheries and wild foods are often marketed commercially but,

due to poor management of the ecosystems and biological resources, which are the source of these goods, are not reflected as over exploitation and unsustainable use in the market prices”. Nor have there been any development of institutions and adequate policies to handle the associated costs with worsening ecological scarcity globally. Failures and policy distortion all too often compound these problems by encouraging environmental degradation and wasteful use of natural resources. With today’s rising ecological scarcity, the unique challenge posed is to overcome a vast array of institutional failures, market and policies that have prevented the recognition of the economic significance of this worldwide scarcity (Barbier, 2011).

Presently, South Africa occupies only 2% of the world's surface area but is home to nearly 10% of the world's plants which is approximately 24 000 species, around 7% of the world's vertebrate species and 5.5% of the world's known insect species only about half of the latter have been described. In terms of the number of endemic species of mammals, birds, reptiles and amphibians, South Africa ranks as the fifth richest country in Africa and the 24th-richest in the world. Marine biological diversity is also high. Over 11 000 species are found in South African waters, which is about 15% of global species, with more than 25% of these marine species (or 3 496 species) being endemic to South Africa. A high proportion is threatened, especially in river ecosystems (82%) and estuaries (77%) (www.info.gov.za).

Three internationally recognized biodiversity hot spots are found in South Africa: the Cape Floral Kingdom (equivalent to the Fynbos Biome), Succulent Karoo Biome (shared with Namibia) and the Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany Centre of Plant Endemism, which stretches from the Albany Centre in the Eastern Cape, through the Pondoland Centre of Plant Endemism and KwaZulu-Natal, the eastern side of Swaziland and into southern Mozambique and Mpumalanga. The Succulent Karoo Biome is one of only two arid biodiversity hot spots in the world, the other being the Horn of Africa (www.info.gov.za).

As Dasgupta (2008: 3) explains: “ecosystems are capital assets. Like reproducible capital assets such as, machinery, buildings and roads, ecosystems depreciate if they are over used or are misused”. However, they differ from reproducible capital assets in three ways:

- Due to the fact that ecosystems can collapse without much prior warning, rising ecological scarcity is therefore a clear indication that there is rapid, irrevocably depletion of ecosystems and, as a result, present and future economic welfare is affected,
- Depreciation of natural capital is often irreversible or sometimes the system takes a longer period of time to recover, and
- In an extremely limited sense, it is impossible to replace a depleted or degraded ecosystem with a new one.

As a consequence, current and future economic welfare is affected by the rising scarcity of ecology, which is indicated by the irrevocably ecosystems. This can be due to current global development being unsustainable, resulting in increasing ecological scarcity which places current and future generations at risk because important sources of natural capital are being irreversibly degraded instead of being kept intact (Dasgupta, 2008).

It is important to mention that many organizations' are guilty of the following with regards to environmental degradation:

- Lack of adequate monitoring,
- Air emission exceedances,
- The undertaking of unauthorized scheduled processes,
- Exceedances in relation to production and use of raw materials,
- ROD contraventions,
- Unauthorized waste disposal sites,
- Environmentally harmful activities that could be prevented or rehabilitated in terms of the South African National Environmental Act (NEMA) duty of care,
- Improper storage of crushed fluorescent tubes and spillages of hazardous material in unlined areas,
- Non-reporting of emergency incidents to authorities,
- Disposal of contaminated water in unlined dams,
- Poor storm water management on site,
- Fugitive emissions from the material stockpiles,

- Non-reporting of emergency incidents,
- Storage tanks without required permits,
- Decommissioning activities without required Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) authorization,
- Storage of hazardous chemicals in unbounded areas,
- Storage of hazardous waste without the required authorizations,
- Potential water and soil pollution from improper storage of hazardous waste,
- Significant non-compliances to conditions of the Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Act, 1965 (Act No. 45 of 1965) (“APPA”) permit,
- Operation of the facility without the required waste permit,
- Incomplete combustion of the medical waste,
- Lack of proper storm water management, and
- Emissions of black smoke from the stack causing air pollution(www.environment.gov.za).

There are three important steps involved in curbing irreversible degradation. Firstly, policy analysis and environmental valuation requires improvement to ensure policies and markets that incorporate complete benefits and costs associated with environmental impacts. Fully integrated into economic development strategies and policies must be accounting and environmental valuation for depreciation of natural capital. As has been argued previously by Barbier (2011), components of natural capital that are most undervalued are ecosystems, and the services and goods that they provide. It is fundamental to ensure the sustainability of global economic development efforts, yet it is not an easy task to value ecosystems services and goods (Sukhdev, 2008 cited in Barbier, 2011: 236).

Secondly, in order to control excessive environmental degradation, the role of policy requires appropriate and effective implementations of infrastructure, institutions, information, incentives and investments. The requirement for better information on the state of ecosystems, biodiversity and the environment, is essential for both public and private decision-making in determining the allocation of natural capital for economic development. Barbier (2011: 235) states that “in order to internalize the information into everyday economic allocation decisions, the role played by appropriate regulatory measures uses market based instruments in the creation of markets. Such

instruments are important for correcting policy and market failures, as these failures distort the economic incentives for improved ecosystem and environmental management". It is also critical to encourage more effective support for local communities through good governance and rights, as this overcomes institutional distortions. In many countries it is important to reverse excessive environmental degradation and this is accomplished by providing effective and appropriate infrastructure through ecological transition, fostering new knowledge and technologies that are necessary for improving the restoration of ecosystems and biodiversity conservation, devising new incentive mechanisms such as payment for ecosystems services, public investments and protecting critical ecosystems (Sukdev, 2008 cited in Barbier, 2011: 236).

Lastly, Polasky and Segerson (2009: 418) state that "as a result of environmental degradation and continued ecological landscape conversion, the functioning of diversity, resilience of ecological systems and the goods and services they supply are affected". These goods, services and ecological scarcity have potentially long-term impacts on the stability and health of ecosystems, which are difficult to value and quantify. It requires an increasing collaboration between economists, environmentalists and ecologists to monitor and assess these impacts (Polasky and Segerson, 2009).

Through economic and interdisciplinary ecological analysis it is necessary to identify and assess the associated problems of increasing ecological scarcity. According to McCann, Easter, Kasterine and Kuperan (2005: 528) "in order to further progress in reversing unsustainable development, more widespread calls for interdisciplinary collaboration are needed, in order to analyze complex problems of ecosystem decline, environmental degradation and loss in biodiversity". To overcome the institutional, market and policy failures that are contributing to ecological scarcity requires the articulation of steps that are relatively straight forward; however, it still proves difficult to implement these steps. This problem may lie within the intransigence of social structure, mechanism and institutions for ordering the means of production and economic behaviour within society (McCann, Easter, Kasterine and Kuperan, 2005).

The lack in recognizing ecological scarcity is the one of the reasons why ecological scarcity problems are mounting. It is argued that this is the result of numerous institutions, policy and

market failures (Williamson, 2000). Overcoming market failures is proving to be difficult, maybe because of what new institutional economists (NIE) view as the tendency of many important social institutions to be highly invariant over long periods of time. This rigidity can be referred to as institutional inertia which is equivalent to what North (1990) referred to as institutional path dependence.

Institutions are all the structures and mechanisms for ordering the behaviour and ensuring the cooperation of individuals within society. The existence of formal and informal rules are there to organize and govern social relationships and behaviours, including reinforcing the existing social order which is a stable system of structures and institutions that, for a considerable amount of time, characterize society. As society develops and becomes more complex, institutions are more difficult to change. Influencing the development of institutions is the manner in which goods and services are produced and, in turn, institutions help structure the means of production, in other words this is a mutually reinforcing or cumulative causative process. A reason for this self-reinforcing process is that institutions and social order become geared towards reducing the transaction costs. These are costs other than money, which are incurred in the exchange of goods and services of existing production and market relationships. Typical transaction costs, for example, include decision costs, research costs and information costs. It has been well documented well that the role of such transaction costs hinders the successful implementation of environmental policies. Noted by Krutilla (1999: 250), “transactions costs terminology has also been construed more broadly to refer to any costs associated with establishing, administering, monitoring or enforcing a government policy or regulation. These broad transaction costs are responsible for the institutional inertia or path dependence that is thwarting wholesale policy change towards sustainable development”.

According to Boettke, Coyne and Leeson (2008: 332), “path dependence emphasizes the increasing returns to institutions, which ‘lock in’ particular institutional arrangements that have emerged in various places for unique historical reasons. The economy uses the endowment of natural capital which is included in the means of production. This endowment is used in a manner that follows existing systems of social institutions with the result that the structure of the social order thus becomes fixed around a stable set of economic institutions, including how

production is organized and how all combined inputs are used. This also includes how natural resources and the environment are combined and used together with other inputs, such as knowledge and technology in production". Despite rising ecological scarcity, ecosystems goods and services continue to be exploited and used in the same manner as before by the economy. "The transaction costs of developing, using and finding completely different ways of using natural resources and the environment, or novel ways of substituting other inputs for scarce ecosystem goods and services are extremely high" (Boettke, Coyne and Leeson, 2008: 527).

Our social order and institutions are not orientated towards the reduction of these new transaction costs, but are instead built up around reducing the transaction costs of existing production and exchange relationships. In turn, these relationships depend on perpetuating the use of ecosystem good and services, in the same way which is in combination with their inputs. From a social perspective, it is more cost-effective to continue using the same pattern of production, including the replication of using, finding and exploiting the same set of natural and environmental resources. Becoming more aware of the rising ecological scarcity is a consequence associated with perpetuating the same economic development patterns, including the over reliance on ecological degradation. Making the necessary corrections to institutional, policy and market failures involves a relatively high transaction cost and seems prohibitive, compared with perpetuating the same pattern of environmental and production use (Boettke, Coyne and Leeson, 2008).

The correction of institutions, policies and market failures are often means instigating policies that contribute to environmental problems, and creates magnitude of problems. There are costs that will occur when implementing a new policy such as additional market transaction costs in the form of research and information costs, establishing a new protected area or license for resource harvest, tax on pollution, bargaining costs, enforcement costs and policing costs (Grubb, Chapus and Ha Duong, 1995). Michaelowa and Jotzo (2005: 518) report that the "trading mechanisms at some market-based instruments should be established such as, tradable permit systems and taxes. The new environment markets which involve payment for ecosystem services further require the establishment of property rights allocation to facilitate these market based

instruments, it is also important to set up administrative procedures and new public agencies to enforce, record and monitor trade”.

According to Schwoon and Tol (2006) if additional change in the legal system and institutional environment is still required, transaction costs will remain high and will continue to grow if new types of mechanisms are required at the global level, such as the implementation of an international payment scheme for ecosystem services. Exit barriers exist to implement a broad range of environmental policies, which all three types of transaction cost have proven to be. They may be especially relevant to promote the long-run transition to a low carbon economy and to combat global warming. Transaction costs are attributed to inhibiting or delaying the implementation of tradable permits or carbon taxes, thus adding to the costs of greenhouse gas (GHG) abatement and reducing the effectiveness of clean development. Schwoon and Tol (2006: 28) state that “without the successful implementation of policies to spur research and development into clean energy technologies, disseminate these technologies globally and control greenhouse gas emissions, economies will continue to remain fundamentally dependent on fossil fuel energy for some time to come”.

To ameliorating freshwater scarcity, transaction costs have been especially problematic. For tackling water scarcity, most policy recommendations emphasize the need for more efficient water trading and allocation to moderate demands and conserve supplies (Easter and Archibald, 2002). Growing globally is the use of market-based reforms and water markets for a broad range of water sector application. The United States, Australia and Canada are emerging active markets as well as South Africa, Morocco, Brazil, China, Chile, Turkey and Mexico, including many other regions and countries, but the incidence and magnitude of associated transaction costs with such allocation are often significant (McCann and Easter, 2004). Hellenes and Perry (2006: 80) state that “enforcing and establishing water trading schemes and rights as well as putting in place mechanisms to resolve conflict over water use and rights are some of the more prohibitive costs to establishing effective water markets and trading”.

For example, establishing irrigation water supply in Indonesia, Egypt and India, has proven to be less successful than in Morocco. Hellenes and Perry (2006: 80) report that “the one reason why

this has occurred is that irrigation systems in the former countries are not designed for the use of volumetric charges and tradable water rights, whereas the system in Morocco is; also, there are no existing, legally defined groundwater rights in India and Egypt. In Ukraine, relative to the larger block supply of irrigation water, problems exist with the smaller scale of privatized farms”.

Finally, farmers in many countries are resistant to switching to water markets when the predominant method of allocation has been the rationing of irrigation water, which does not involve charges to recovery costs. These examples indicate transaction costs associated with correcting, institutional, policy and market changes are not insurmountable, but nevertheless significant. More research is clearly needed to illustrating the consequences of ecological scarcity. What is also needed is more policy analysis and valuation of the effects of failing to incorporate the value of ecosystem goods and services in policy and market decisions. Further research into how the “five i’s” can assist in the alleviation of excessive ecosystem loss and environmental degradation with current economic development patterns is needed (Hellenes and Perry, 2006).

2.7 Sustainable systems implementation

Democracy and capitalism’s primary purpose is the enhancement of society. In many ways, it is clear that these systems accomplish this; however, unintended consequences are also produced in providing many people with high quality, affordable services and products. These unintended consequences include: rising standards of living that consume and use more resources, thus producing more pollution. Dixon (2007: 7) reports that “as a result of these unintended consequences, environmental systems that ensure human survival are being degraded rapidly in many areas such as, wetlands, biodiversity, fertile soil, clean water, forest, clean air, aquifers, stable climate and fisheries”. In addition, there is growth in social turmoil and unrest in many regions, as it is being driven by the widening gap between the rich and the poor. As a result, in developing countries, disruption of traditional lifestyles occurs and in developed countries, there is an increase in life dissatisfaction and emptiness, as indicated by rising use of antidepressants, obesity and compulsive behaviour (Dixon, 2007).

Due to the challenges being so widespread, only a few individuals hold only a part of the answer. The successful evolution of human systems into sustainable forms can only be achieved through a collaborative process, such as sustainable systems implementation. Dixon (2007: 7) further states that “the goal of sustainable systems implementation is to make progress on the most complex challenges being faced by society and business sustainability. To make some progress, the most important requirement of sustainable system implementation is to just begin and once on the path of system improvement, additional actions and answers will emerge and there will be an increase in clarity (Dixon, 2007).

Sustainable system implementation brings together leaders who have the power to drive change from business and all other segments of society, along with experts who have good ideas for system change. As a result, there have been developments in system change but they have low implementation rates. The goal of sustainable system implementation seeks to drive good system improvement ideas to a far higher level of implementation. This process involves planning and implementation. However, there exist many good ideas that have been developed but are not being widely implemented. The focus of sustainable system implementation is on action and implementation, hence, the name sustainable system implementation. Since sustainable systems implementation is a collaborative process, specific goals and strategies will be agreed upon and developed as the program progresses (Dixon, 2007).

The following sustainable systems implementation principles have been adapted from Dixon (2007) which include: system thinking, simplicity, inevitability, evolution not revolution, be willing to question everything, abide by laws of nature, non-judgment, do not expect change in others, carrot not stick, responsibility, focus on results, simultaneous success, visionary and courageous leadership.

i. Systems thinking

As noted above, by Dixon (2007: 8) “the main driver of humanity’s unsustainability is the inability to think systematically, which essentially means the failure to consider all relevant factors, as sustainability can only be achieved through systematic thinking by evolving human systems and ideas”. As everything is relevant from a system perspective, this greatly increases

complexity. Dixon (2007: 8) further states that “there are, however, several things that can be done effectively in isolation, for example the successful evolution of economic system can probably be achieved if it is only done in tandem with evolving social, political and other systems, however, this is difficult but not impossible as different system thinking approaches can be applied by taking a systematic approach to all barriers along the path of success and can be addressed effectively”. These barriers will often include public regulation and awareness that make responsible corporate behavior possible (www.globalsystemchange.com).

ii. Simplicity

As system change is so vast, great effort must be made to achieve simple and clear communication. The greatest barrier to system change is the lack of public awareness about the systematic drives of social and environmental problems. Rendering discussions down to simple concepts and terms will help facilitate the expansion of public awareness greatly, for example, most people are of the belief that children of today and generations beyond them should survive and prosper. This is a unifying and simple concept that clearly shows how current political and environmental systems threaten our children’s future and this awareness can motivate action (www.globalsystemchange.com).

iii. Inevitability

During the discussions on system change, intentional or unintentional excuses for inaction are often displayed. Dixon (2007: 10) states that “this argument for inaction usually results from the perspective that systems should remain the same. The work on system improvement might seem unnecessary however; as we better understand the dynamic nature of an ever changing human society. Conflict exists with natural systems especially when we realize that by not changing would not be an option. As a result, only two options remain which are voluntary or involuntary system change and it is therefore understood that involuntary system change would be disruptive to society and business as well as unfair to future generations”. Understanding the inevitability of system change greatly increases the willingness to deal with complexities and the commitment to take action. As a result, it becomes evident that only one option truly remains (www.csrwire.com).

iv. Evolution not revolution

The intention of sustainable system implementation is to evolve human systems. It is quite possible that revolutionary change can change the evolutionary approach to system change, which is based on the idea that committed leaders working together with a larger society can identify reasonable and practical ways to evolve our system into sustainable forms. The goal is to do as humans have always been doing, namely, to improve and not go back to unworkable systems but to combine ideas that were formulated in the past that did work, with new ideas, and develop something new and different. As a result, this approach will maximize the well-being of society and business and, in the mean time, minimizing disruption as the transition to sustainable system occurs (www.globalsystemchange.com).

v. Be willing to question everything

To meaningfully achieve system change, a willingness to question all human systems and ideas must exist. As in the past, many systems that were intended to benefit society were not beneficial but destructive, and it is possibly arrogant and illogical to assume that the same mistake is not being made today, as human systems and ideas are always evolving. Dixon (2007: 8) states that “no system (social, economic and political) or idea should be viewed as unquestionable. Human systems should exist only if the system serves and protects life over a long period of time and if the systems do not, the system should evolve into forms that do”.

vi. Abide by the laws of nature

The most powerful force on earth is nature, and humans have no choice but to live on the outside of the laws of nature. However, it could be said that there are laws of nature on the inside which are basic human rights and on the outside are environmental restrictions. A misalignment between human systems and ideas with nature’s law will result in the disappearance of these systems and ideas because all other human systems that were not aligned with reality and nature have disappeared (www.globalsystemchange.com).

It is believed by many indigenous groups that their actions should be aligned with nature, as nature is seen as the sustainability of all life which should be respected and revered, rather than simply being seen as a source of raw material. Given the sustainability and effectiveness of many

indigenous economic practices and ideas, these should be taken into consideration when seeking to improve human systems (www.globalsystemchange.com).

vii. Non-judgment

When one takes into consideration the destruction of environmental life support systems, unhappiness and inequity in the world, it is easy to become angry, especially when one considers what this entails for one's children. However, anger is often not the appropriate response, in part because it blocks progress and polarizes different groups. In a sense, mankind can be described as children learning to walk, as our collective actions show that society as a whole has not yet learned how to live sustainably on this planet, as the advancements of human systems and ideas have not kept pace with the rapid advancement of technology. For example, never before seen substances are now produced, such as genetically engineered foods, more than 80 000 synthetic chemicals and nano-materials, many of which tend to disperse into the water, land and air and eventually accumulate in humans, causing cancers, growing reproductive problems and other illnesses (www.csrwire.com).

A contributing factor to the many previously mentioned illnesses is the lack of safety tests which is due to the fact that the firms that manufactured these never before seen substances mentioned above, have the ability to influence the regulation process. As a result, political and business leaders are criticized and are given a bad reputation for this and many other socially and environmentally damaging activities. However, according to Dixon (2007) none of these leaders had the intention to damage society as they are well intended people, who were operating in a system that compelled them to do incorrect things. The enemy in society is not individual leaders or firms but rather our short-sighted ideas and resulting systems. In the same way that a child is not criticized for not knowing how to walk, business should not be criticized for doing what systems compel it to do, to improve our systems and ideas we should work together (www.csrwire.com).

viii. Do not expect change in individuals

The purpose of socially sustainable systems is to improve systems and not make unilateral change; therefore, there should be no exception that individuals or firms will action this. Due to

most people being focused on just surviving, they do not have the luxury of taking into consideration long-term issues such as sustainability. There are, however, people who will adopt socially and environmentally responsible lifestyles, regardless of whether they cost more, as they feel that it is the correct thing to do. On the flip side, there are most who will not adopt a socially or environmentally responsible lifestyle. This is the result of systems becoming sustainable and the full costs of socially and environmentally damaging products and business practices will be included in the price. The sole intention of socially sustainable systems is to drive system improvement that encourages firms and all people to act in a more responsible manner (www.globalsystemchange.com).

ix. Carrot not stick

Sustainable systems implementation does not intend to take away anything from anyone or force firms and individuals to change. The goal is to develop and create more effective and appealing systems that motivate firms and citizens to move towards more responsible activities and practices. Dixon (2007: 10) states that “a better system will allow for a more satisfying lifestyle while at the same time producing more sustainable business performance. This approach is by far the more complex because all voices must be heard and considered in practice. There are some firms who are not committed to full responsibility and might resist change, but the principle of developing a system that is appealing with reasonable transition strategies should minimize resistance to system change”.

x. Responsibility

The failure to hold firms fully responsible for the negative social and environmental impacts is probably the most important flaw of contemporary political and economic systems. When this occurs in a competitive market, firms cannot remain in business and, at the same time fully mitigate impacts. Holding firms fully responsible aligns what is best for business and what is best for society. Acting in a sustainable and fully responsible manner gives firms incentives, by making such actions the profit-maximizing path. Firms often complain about regulatory burden but more responsibility does not mean more regulations. Regulatory burden is due to inefficient cumbersome regulations resulting from inappropriate influence of the regulatory process (www.globalsystemchange.com).

Dixon (2007: 10) states that “as a higher principle prevails for full responsibility, simplified and far more effective regulatory strategies can be implemented, especially if firms are given the flexibility to determine how to achieve full responsibility, as noted above”. If firms are not held fully responsible, negative impacts result and this creates a growing problem for firms and investors. Overtime, it will benefit society and business if firms are held fully responsible in a practical way (www.globalsystemchange.com).

xi. Focus on results

The key aspects of sustainable system implementation is planning, developing and dialogue systematic solution, however, the main focus is on generating quick wins that build support and enthusiasm for addressing more long-term complex issues (www.csrwire.com).

xii. Simultaneous success

Another intention of sustainable system implementation is to enhance existing systems’ current business performance while at the same time proactively positioning firms for success, as more sustainable systems are implemented to minimize costs. The participation of sustainable systems implementation requires relatively little time management and actions developed under sustainable system implementation should be practical and should support simultaneous success; having an advantage is built by promoting regulatory change (www.globalsystemchange.com).

xiii. Visionary and courageous leadership

Business leaders operate in fixed structures and systems. While working to improve these systems, a high degree of uncertainty is involved when contemplating how these systems might be improved. Dixon (2007: 7) states that “it is far easier to remain safely within existing systems, as it takes courage to step back, observe the bigger picture and evaluate how overarching systems create problems for society and business as well. Society benefits from business greatly, by leading the effort to reasonably and practically improve human systems; however, this may only occur if business leaders have the vision and courage to make it happen”.

2.8 Summary of the chapter

The above discussion on CSR and sustainable development has revealed that over the past ten to twenty years a complex interweaving of interrelated issues, such as declining infrastructure provision, structural changes in the economy and workforce, and rapid demographic and social changes, has placed a negative strain on individuals and communities. According to Cuthill (2010: 367) “while the impact on individuals and communities can be devastating, it should be noted that failure to invest appropriate efforts to strategically manage social needs and issues will see these issues continue to draw heavily on the public purse, and impact on future generations”. It is evident that contemporary approaches to development have not provided equitable outcomes for all and in some situations, have contributed to the breakdown of communities (Greider, 1997; Saul, 1997). Dixon (2007: 7) states that “there is clearly a pressing need to develop a stronger conceptual understanding of the social dimension of sustainable development that links to and is grounded in real life policies and practices”.

In today’s world, as a result of many forces, the private sector is propelled towards greater incorporation of sustainability in their business models and strategies. Resource depletion, social inequities and cultural breakdowns have been widely recognized as the problems that affect everyone today (Pringle 2009; Rodriguez, Delwiche and Kaoosji, 2009). Pringle (2009: 67) states that “the concept of social sustainability provides a visionary umbrella under which ideas of social infrastructure, social capital, and social justice and equity can be explored”. Rodriguez, Delwiche and Kaoosji (2009: 127) state that “it is argued from a methodological perspective that engaged governance supports each of the previously mentioned concepts and, in turn, these concepts relay the processes of engaged governance to support diverse stakeholders to collaboratively develop informed local responses. Engaged governance provides a pathway for working together and also facilitates the development of shared understanding, commitment and ownership, all of which helps to build human and social capital”. Cuthill (2010: 364) states that “collectively, the social, economic and democratic benefits for communities provide a clear rationale for investing in policy, strategy and operational responses to build socially sustainable communities”.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and methodology used in this study in order to address the research question and establish the research objectives. The geographical area where the study was conducted, the study design and the population and sample are described. The instrument used to collect the data, including methods to maintain validity and reliability of the instrument are also described.

3.2 Research objectives

In order to answer the overarching research question, the following objectives were identified in order to understand and explain how corporate social responsibility contributes towards sustainable development:

- To establish how corporate social responsibility assists in the attainment of basic needs for societies,
- To ascertain if corporate social responsibility contributes to the equal distribution of resources for sustainable development in societies, and
- To ascertain if corporate social responsibility contributes to curbing environmental degradation.

3.3 Research design

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2002), define research design as the overall plan for relating the conceptual research problem to relevant and practicable empirical research. The authors further advise that the quality of empirical research is greatly influenced by the underlying research design.

3.3.1 Types of research design

Research designs, according to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) have two essential components. The first is observation and the second is an analysis of the relationship between variables. The latter is about observing the effect of certain variables on others. Thus, a number of types of research designs, which are briefly described hereunder, have been identified.

- **Exploratory study**

According to Sekaran (2003: 119) “an exploratory study is undertaken when not much is known about a situation at hand, or no information is available on how similar problems or research issues have been solved in the past”. In such instances, extensive preliminary work is needed to gain familiarity with the phenomena in the situation, and understand what is occurring, before we develop a model and set up a rigorous design for comprehensive investigation. In essence, exploratory studies are undertaken to better comprehend the nature of the problem since very few studies might have been conducted in that area.

- **Descriptive study**

A descriptive study is undertaken to ascertain and be able to describe the characteristics of the variables of interest in the situation. For instance, a study of a classroom in terms of the percentage of members who are in their senior and junior years, sex composition, age groupings, number of semesters left until graduation, and number of business courses taken, can be considered as descriptive in nature (Sekaran, 2003).

- **Explanatory study**

The term explanatory research implies that the research in question is intended to explain, rather than simply to describe, the phenomena studied. Explanatory studies look for explanations of the nature of certain relationships. Hypothesis testing provides an understanding of the relationships that exist between variables (Maxwell and Mittapalli, 2008).

Seeing that this study explains how CSR initiatives contribute towards sustainable development, this study was thus explanatory in nature.

3.3.2 Research philosophy

The research philosophy in this study was positivist. This was because quantitative analytical tools and techniques were used. Furthermore, quantitative research is very useful and appropriate when describing relationships and examining cause and effect of interactions among variables, which was the case in this study (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

It is important to note that had statistical procedures or other means of quantification not been used, the study would have been qualitative.

3.3.3 Setting of the study

Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 114) report that “research can be done in the natural environment where work proceeds’ normally, that is, in non-contrived settings or artificial, contrived settings”.

A non-contrived setting is the natural environment in which events normally occur. Studies conducted to establish cause-and-effect relationships using the same natural environment in which for example, employees normal function are call field experiments. A field study is carried out with minimal interference from the researcher (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

By contrast, Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 114) report that “the contrived setting is the creation of an artificial environment in which the events are strictly controlled. The researcher is looking to establish a cause → effect relationship beyond any reasonable doubt. For this reason, the study participants will be carefully chosen and the stimuli manipulated. Many social psychological studies use artificial teams or activities as in leadership study”.

In order to understand and explain how CSR contribute towards sustainable development, this study was conducted in natural setting. A natural setting was used to ensure that there was minimal interference from the researcher.

3.3.4 Time horizon

Time horizon entails the number of times that data will be collected for a specific study. This could be a one shot case study or a longitudinal study.

A one shot case study, also known as a cross-sectional study is a study where data is gathered just once, perhaps over a period of days or weeks or months, in order to answer a research question (Sekaran, 2000).

A longitudinal study, on the other hand, is where people or phenomena are studied at more than one point in time in order to answer the research question. For instance, the researcher might want to study employee behavior before and after a change in the top management, to learn the effects of the change. Here, because data are gathered at two different points in time, the study is not cross-sectional or of one-shot kind, but is carried longitudinally across a period of time. Such studies, as when data on the dependent variables are gathered at two or more points in time to answer the research question, are called longitudinal studies.

In this study data was collected over a period of a week as respondents were only available at one specific time. Thus the study was a one shot case study.

3.4 Sampling design

It would be ideal to include every relevant subject in a study but this is usually impossible, for example because of the economics related to size, time and cost (Polit and Hungler 1997). As such, the following sampling design was followed:

3.4.1 Population and sample

A population, as defined by Burns and Groves (1993) comprises all elements, be it individuals, events and objects that meet the same criteria for inclusion in the study. The population for this study consisted of communities in and around Durban. Bearing in mind that the focus of this study was on initiatives that were aimed at sustainable development, it was advisable to target communities that had organizations situated close to them. These were communities who needed and received the altruistic gestures of the neighbouring

companies. The perceptions of the members of the communities on how these initiatives would continue to benefit them in the long term were central to this study.

In view of the above mentioned, seven schools were targeted in the city of Durban. Schools were targeted for the simple reason that the educators are part of the community. The schools were three Primary Schools and four High Schools, in the areas of Durban North, Effingham and Red-Hill. All permanently employed educators from the targeted schools formed the target population. Apart from the schools being a part of the community, they were also reasonably and easily accessible. The issue of travelling was also considered and Google Earth was used to establish the distance to each school. The distances are tabulated hereunder. The number of respondents from each school is also presented on the table below.

Table 3.1: Proximity to researcher

| Name of School | Proximity to Researcher | Number of Respondents |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Avoca Secondary School | 0.700 km | 30 |
| 2. Chelsea Preparatory School | 3.7 km | 29 |
| 3. Effingham Primary School | 2.3 km | 24 |
| 4. Effingham Secondary School | 2.5 km | 25 |
| 5. Northwood Boys School | 3.7 km | 18 |
| 6. Our Lady of Fatima School | 3 km | 1 |
| 7. St Michaels Primary School | 0.130 km | 23 |
| Total | 16.03 km | 150 |

3.4.2 Sampling technique

Once a population has been identified, a sample needs to be drawn from the population. Mouton (1996) defines a sample as elements selected with the intention of finding out something about the total population from which they are taken. A convenient sample consists of respondents who happen to be at the right place the right time. There are two main sampling techniques that researchers can adopt which are, probability and non-probability sampling.

- **Probability sampling**

Probability or random sampling occurs when the probability of including each element of the population can be determined. It is thus possible to estimate the extent to which the findings based on the sample are likely to differ from what would have been found by studying the whole population that is the accuracy of the generalization from sample to the population (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

- a) **Simple random sampling**

Simple random sampling provides equal opportunity of selection for each element in the population. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) state that “the most common techniques of simple random sampling is the lottery technique, where a symbol for each unit of the population is placed in a container, mixed well and then the ‘lucky numbers’ drawn that constitute the sample”.

- b) **Systematic sampling**

Systematic sampling is also known as interval sampling and is very similar to simple random sampling however, the technique of selection, instead of relying on a random number table, is based on the selection of elements at equal intervals, starting with a randomly selected element on the population list (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

- c) **Stratified random sampling**

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) the principle of stratified random sampling is to divide a population into different groups, called strata, so that each element of the population belongs to one and only one stratum.

- d) **Cluster sampling**

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) suggests that the principle underlying cluster or multi-stage sampling is to begin by sampling a population which is much more general than the final one. In the second stage, on the basis of the first sample, a new population is considered, one which is less general than the first one, and a new sample is subsequently determined. The procedure is continued until the population to be investigated is reached and a final sample

is drawn. At each stage, sampling is done in a random way, using one of the three previously mentioned sampling techniques.

- **Non-probability sampling**

Non-probability sampling on the other hand refers to the case where the probability of including each element of the population in a sample is unknown for example; it is not possible to determine the likelihood of the inclusion of all representative elements of the population into the sample. Some elements might even have no chance of being included in the sample. It is thus difficult to estimate how well the sample represents a population and this makes generalization highly questionable (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

- a) **Convenience sampling**

Convenience sampling involves collecting information from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it (Sekaran, 2000).

- b) **Judgement sampling**

This sampling method is based on the judgement of the researcher regarding the characteristics of the representative sample. A sample is chosen on the basis of what the researcher thinks or judges to be an average person. The strategy employed here is to select units that are judged to be typical of the population under investigation (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

- c) **Quota sampling**

Quota sampling can be considered as being the non-probability equivalent of stratified sampling. The purpose here is to draw a sample that has the same proportions of characteristics as the whole population but the sampling procedure, instead of relying on random choice, relies on accidental choice (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

- d) **Snowball sampling**

A snowball sample is inappropriate to use in research when the members of a population are difficult to locate. A snowball sample is one in which the researcher collects data on the few

members of the target population he or she can locate, then asks those individuals to provide information needed to locate other members of that population whom they know (www.about.com).

e) Self – selection sampling

Self-selection sampling occurs in any situation in which individuals select themselves into a group, causing a bias sample. It is commonly used to describe situations where the characteristics of the people which cause them to select themselves in the group create abnormal or undesirable conditions in the group (Zilial and McCloskey, 2008).

The type of sampling method employed in this study was non-probability sampling, in particular convenient sampling. Due to such an extremely large population size of more than 80 000 teachers in the province of KwaZulu-Natal as indicated by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (2006) it was deemed impossible to conduct this study with the entire population therefore it was practical to select a sample from the population.

3.4.3 Access to sample

In order to gain access to the target population, permission was requested from the Department of Education and the principals of each target schools. The telephone numbers of the target schools were obtained from the Internet by making use of the search engine 'Google'. Once the information needed was acquired, the Principals were contacted telephonically to make an appointment to visit them. In this conversation the nature and purpose of the study were explained. When the Principals granted the permission, a time and place in which to approach the respondents was negotiated. It was established that the most convenient time and place to approach the respondents would be during the morning and afternoon staff meetings that took place in the school board room.

3.4.4 Sample size

The determination of the sample size was a compromise between two considerations, the statistical and economic views. From the statistical point of view, a larger sample was important as this would improve the quality of the statistical results. On the other hand the

economic consideration was the cost of analyzing the amount of data therefore in order for this study to be meaningful; a sample size of 150 respondents who were conveniently selected was viewed to be adequate. The characteristics of the sample were:

- Educators of all racial groups who were in full time employment of the Department of Education,
- Males and females,
- Aged 20 and over, and
- University graduates.

3.5 Data collection method

There are several data collection methods that a researcher can utilize during the process of data collection. These methods include; face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, self-administered questionnaires, mail questionnaires and observational studies. The questionnaires were collected immediately after completion therefore there were no delays in the data collection process.

The remaining data collection methods were excluded for the following reasons:

- Face-to-face interviews, are difficult to get respondents to open up, difficult to standardize and analyze and may introduce interviewer bias,
- Telephone interviews, may introduce sampling bias and researcher requires training,
- Mailed questionnaires, may result in respondent's responses being difficult to interpret. It is difficult to check that respondents understand the questions and the response rate is normally very low, and
- Observational studies are time consuming.

3.5.1 The measuring instrument

To address the objectives, the research instrument for this study was a structured questionnaire which was used to gather primary data. This questionnaire was undisguised and self-administered. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) some of the advantages

of using a questionnaire are that it is easily standardized, it has a low drain on time and finances and requires very little training of the researcher.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections namely; sections A, B, C, and D. Section A enlisted the respondents' demographic profile which included: gender, age, race and educational qualification. In sections B, C and D a dichotomous scale was used to address the objectives of the study. A dichotomous scale was used because the respondents were approached during working hours. The time constraints they would have were considered. This scale would thus make it easy for them to complete, whilst the necessary information would be obtained.

Section B was constructed to determine the perceptions of the respondents' on the CSR initiatives that contributed to basic needs. To ascertain these perceptions the following closed ended questions were asked:

- (i) Do you know of any organization that has assisted your community with the following:
- Financial support
 - Housing
 - Educational projects
 - Access to clean water
 - Employment

Section C was designed with the intention of addressing the perceptions of the respondents regarding equal distribution of resources. To ascertain these perceptions the following closed ended questions were asked:

- (ii) Do you know of any organization that has provided your community with training in the following:

- Any other projects not mentioned above
- The planning stages of the projects
- The implementation of projects
- The maintenance of projects after completion
- People with disabilities in the community

In section D the questions were designed to address the perceptions of the respondents regarding environmental degradation. To ascertain these perceptions the following closed ended questions were asked:

(iii) Do you know of any organization that has informed your community of the following:

- The products they manufacture
- The safety of your health from their products
- The development of new products
- The protection of the environment from their production methods
- The protection of the environment

3.5.2 The pilot study

A pilot test was conducted to assess the feasibility of the research study, the practical possibilities to carry it out, the correctness of some concepts, the adequacy of the method and instrument of measurement. The pilot study was conducted with one school that was situated close to the researcher and easily accessible. The questionnaire was administered to five teachers who were present in the staff room at the set time that was agreed upon by the principal. There were no changes to the research instrument in the pilot study, thus the instrument was validated.

3.5.3 Administration of the questionnaire

For the purpose of this study a self-administered questionnaires was used. A self-administered questionnaire is a questionnaire that is personally administered by the researcher (Sekaran, 2000). The self-administered questionnaire was adopted because the

schools were located in close proximity to one another and to the researcher. Respondents could be easily assembled in a staff or board room and if respondents needed some clarification, this could be immediately provided.

Questionnaires were handed out to respondents. No time limit was given towards the completion of the questionnaires. However, as was observed in the pilot study, it would take about ten minutes to complete the questionnaire. This was indicated on the questionnaire. Once questionnaires were completed they were collected by the researcher. It has been stressed on the cover page of the questionnaire that anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained throughout the study and respondents were advised that participation is purely on a voluntary basis.

3.5.4 Reliability and validity tests

- **Reliability**

Polit and Hungler (1993) refer to reliability as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure. There are several different forms of reliability tests that can be done and these are:

- a) **Test-retest reliability**

According to Sekaran (2000: 205) "test-retest reliability occurs when a questionnaire containing some items that are supposed to measure a concept is administered to a set of respondents now, and again to the same respondents at a different time, then the correlation between the two scores obtained at the two different times from the same set of respondents is referred to as test-retest coefficient".

- b) **Equivalent-form reliability**

This method of assessing reliability is sometimes referred to as parallel-form reliability, which is very similar to the test-retest method but it tries to address the problem of reactivity by changing the original test slightly at the second testing (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

c) Split-half reliability

Split-half reliability reflects the correlations between two halves of an instrument. Split-half reliability estimates would vary depending on how the items in the measure are split into two halves (Sekaran, 2000).

d) Interitem consistency reliability

According to Sekaran (2000) this test involves the consistency of respondents' answers to all the items in a measure. To the degree that items are independent measures of the same concept, they will be correlated with one another. The most popular test on interitem consistency reliability is the Cronbach's coefficient alpha which is used for multipoint-scaled items:

Interitem consistency reliability was used. For the purpose of this study internal consistency reliability will be established. For this Cronbach's coefficient alpha will be computed. Cronbach coefficient alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another. Cronbach coefficient alpha is computed in terms of the average inter-correlations among items measuring the concept. The closer Cronbach coefficient alpha is closer is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability (Sekaran, 2000)

• Validity

The validity of an instrument is the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Polit and Hungler, 1993). The following validity tests have been identified:

a) Content validity

Sekaran (2000) maintains that content validity entails ensuring that the measures include an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept. The more the scale items represent the domain or universe of the concept being measured, the greater the content validity. In other words, content validity is a function of how well the dimensions and elements of a concept have been delineated.

b) Criterion-related validity

Sekaran (2000: 207) maintains that “criterion-related validity is established when the measure differentiates individuals on a criterion it is expected to predict”.

c) Construct validity

According to Sekaran (2000: 208) “construct validity testifies to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed”.

d) Face validity

The other three forms of validity discussed thus far are somewhat different from face validity in the sense that face validity is concerned with the way the instrument appears to the respondents. It is of utmost importance that a research instrument be tailored to the needs of the respondents to whom it is intended (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995).

e) Factorial validity

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 327) “factorial validity can be established by submitting the data for factor analysis. The results of factor analysis (a multivariate technique) will confirm whether or not the theorized dimensions emerge. Factor analysis reveals whether the dimensions are indeed tapped by the items in the measure, as theorized”.

For the purpose of this study construct validity will be established. For this Factor analysis will be computed. Factor analysis involves assisting to reduce a vast amount of variables for example, all the questions tapping several variables of interest in a questionnaire to a meaningful, interpretable and manageable set of factors (Sekaran, 2000).

3.6 Data Analysis

As a result of the study being quantitative, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data.

3.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics includes statistical procedures that are used to describe the population that is being studied. The data could be collected from either a sample or a population, but the results assist in organizing and describing the data. Descriptive statistics can only be used to describe the group that is being studied. That is, the results cannot be generalized to any larger group (www.about.com).

- **Frequencies and percentages**

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 313) “frequencies and percentages simply refer to the number of times various subcategories of a certain phenomenon occur, from which a percentage and the cumulative percentage of their occurrence can be easily calculated”.

- **One sample chi-square test**

A chi-squared test, also referred to as chi-square test is any statistical hypothesis test in which the sampling distribution of the test statistic is a chi-squared distribution when the null hypothesis is true, or any in which this is asymptotically true, meaning that the sampling distribution (if the null hypothesis is true) can be made to approximate a chi-squared distribution as closely as desired by making the sample size large enough (Bagdonavicius and Nikulin, 2011).

- **Kuder Richardson**

The Kruder Richardson for reliability formula is used for dichotomous items. The higher the coefficients, the better the measuring instrument (Sekaran, 2003).

3.6.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics on the other hand is concerned with making predictions or inferences about a population from observations and analyses of a sample. That is, the results can be taken of an analysis using a sample and can be generalized to the larger population that the sample represents (www.about.com).

- **Correlation**

Beyond knowing the means and standard deviations of the dependent and independent variable, it is often interesting to know how one variable is related to another especially in a research project that includes several variables. The significance, nature and direction of the bivariate relationship of the variables used in the study would like to be seen. In other words the relationship between any two variables among the variables tapped in the study. This is accomplished with a Pearson correlation matrix which will indicate the strength, direction and significance of the bivariate relationships of all variables in the study (Sekaran, 2000).

- **T-test**

There are many instances where one would be interested to know whether two groups are different from each other on a particular interval-scaled or ratio-scaled variables of interest. For example, would men and women express their need for the introduction of flextime at the workplace to the same extent, or would their needs be different? In order to find answers to such a question, a t-test is done to see if there are any significant differences in the means for two groups in the variable of interest (Sekaran, 2000).

- **Analysis of variance (ANOVA)**

Sekaran (2000: 405) indicates “whereas the t-test would indicate whether or not there is a significant mean difference in a dependent variable between two groups, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) helps to examine the significant mean differences among more than two groups on an interval or ratio scaled dependent variable”

3.7 Ethical considerations

Conducting research requires not only expertise and diligence, but also honesty and integrity. This is done to recognize and protect the rights of human subjects.

3.7.1 Ensuring participants have given informed consent

To render the study ethical, the rights to self-determination, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent were observed. Burns and Grove (1993) define informed consent as the

perspective subject's agreement to participate voluntarily in a study, which is reached after assimilation of essential information about the study.

3.7.2 Ensuring that permission is obtained

Written permission to conduct the research study was obtained from the Department of Education (see appendix 1) Verbal permission was obtained from the Principals of each school and from the educators in each school. Respondents were informed about the purpose of the study, the procedure that would be used to collect the data, and assured that there were no potential risks or costs involved.

3.7.3 Ensuring confidentiality and anonymity

Anonymity and confidentiality were maintained throughout the study. Burns and grove (1993) define anonymity as when subjects cannot be linked, even by the researcher, with his or her individual responses. In this study, confidentiality was maintained by keeping the collected data confidential and not revealing respondents identities when reporting or publishing the study. No identifying information was entered onto the questionnaires, and the questionnaires were only numbered after data was collected (Polit and Hungler, 1995).

The ethical principle of self-determination was also maintained. Subjects were treated as autonomous agents by informing them about the study and allowing them to voluntarily choose to participate or not. Information was provided about the researcher in the event of further questions or complaints.

3.8 Summary of chapter

This chapter has explained the research design and methodology that was followed to answer the research questions address the objectives of the study and collect data. The details of the research instrument were explained and the sampling procedure was also presented. In this chapter, the tools used to analyze data were explained. The next chapter records and interprets the data received from the questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the results of the survey. The gathered data was processed to address the research problem and objectives that were presented in chapter one of this dissertation. The purpose of interpreting the gathered data is to reduce it to an interpretable and intelligible form so that the relation of the research problem, question and objectives can be studied, tested so that a conclusion can be drawn accordingly. The research was of a quantitative analytic nature, entailing a research methodology based on questionnaires and sampling techniques, the appropriate form of statistical quantifications in the analytical program, statistical package for social scientists (SPSS) version 21, for this a statistician was used and interpretations of results in terms of parameters of significance projected by SPSS.

4.2 Reliability and validity

4.2.1 Reliability

Since the response format of the questionnaire used in this study was dichotomous, the Kuder Richardson Formula 21 was used to establish the reliability. The results are shown in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Reliability statistics

| Variable | KR 21 |
|---|-------|
| Basic needs (Q7-Q11) | 0.63 |
| Equal distribution of resources (Q12-Q16) | 0.83 |
| Environmental degradation (Q17-Q 21) | 0.84 |
| Total reliability (Q7-Q 21) | 0.88 |

4.2.2 Validity

Validity was established using face validity. The questionnaire was given to teachers at a specific school. They indicated that the questionnaire measures what it is supposed to measure.

4.3 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics using frequencies and percentages was used to establish the profile of the sample, as well as the cross tabulations in terms of the biographic variables and the responses to the questions for each dimension.

4.3.1 Profile of the sample

The results of the composition of the sample are shown in Table 4.2 overleaf.

Table 4.2: Profile of the sample

| | | Count | % |
|----------------------------|----------------------|-------|--------|
| Gender | Male | 43 | 28.7% |
| | Female | 107 | 71.3% |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0% |
| Age | 20-29 | 29 | 19.3% |
| | 30-39 | 27 | 18.0% |
| | 40-49 | 54 | 36.0% |
| | 50 years and over | 40 | 26.7% |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0% |
| Educational Qualifications | Grade 10-12 | 7 | 4.7% |
| | Diploma Certificate | 30 | 20.0% |
| | Undergraduate degree | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Postgraduate degree | 84 | 56.0% |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0% |
| Race | Black | 8 | 5.3% |
| | Coloured | 2 | 1.3% |
| | Indian | 105 | 70.0% |
| | White | 35 | 23.3% |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0% |
| Years in current position | Less than 1 year | 10 | 6.7% |
| | 1-5 | 41 | 27.3% |
| | 6-10 | 14 | 9.3% |
| | 11 or more | 85 | 56.7% |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0% |
| Years in School | Less than 1 year | 14 | 9.3% |
| | 1-5 | 50 | 33.3% |
| | 6-10 | 21 | 14.0% |
| | 11 or more | 65 | 43.3% |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0% |

a. Gender

As indicated in chapter three, a questionnaire was circulated among a population of 150 (the questionnaire consisted of 21 questions and six demographic topical questions) and 150 responses were received with 150 responses. 71.3% (107) of the respondents were females, and 28.7% (43) of the respondents in the study were males. Table 4.2 shows the compositions of respondents in terms of gender.

The female majority is in line with the 2005 gender distribution of educators which showed that women dominated the profession with respect to numbers. According to the Department of Education (2006a: 21) there were 256 782 female educators in the ordinary school sector in 2005. Based on this figure, female educators constituted 67.2% of the 382 133 educators in the country.

Although a worldwide trend, the growing dominance of female educators concerns the Department of Education (2005: 42) because it is indicative of “an inadequate presence of male role models in the field of teaching”. According to the Department of Education (2005: 43), female educators accounted for “between 67% and 75%” of educators at primary school level by province in 2004, but at secondary school level the gender distribution was almost equal. In spite of this, women are under represented in management positions especially in secondary schools. According to the Department of Education (2005: 43), “pre-primary schools and primary schools are largely under the managerial responsibility of women” (www.statssa.gov.za).

b. Age

The ages of respondents range from 20 years to 50 years and older. 19.3% (29) of the respondents ages ranged between 20-29 years and 18.0% (27) of the respondents' ages ranged between the ages of 30-39. 36.0% (54) of the respondents fall within the ages of 40-49 year old category and 26.7% (40) respondents are over the age of 50. The overall response is 100% of the sample (150) indicating that each and every respondent responded to the questionnaire.

Table 4.2 indicated that more than half the respondents were 40 years and over however, this is not in line with statistics from the Department of Education. According to the Department of Education (2005: 45), only a fifth of 375 000 or “21 %” of all South African teachers were under the age of 40 in 2004. A recalculation of the number and distribution of educators by age group published showed that more than half, 57.0% of the educators were 41 years or younger in 2004 (Department of Education, 2005: 45). According to Arends (2007) 47.9% of all educators were 40 years or younger in 2005. A further 37.2% fell within 41 to 50 year age group and 14.0% within 51 to 60 year old age group.

c. Educational qualification

The educational qualifications composition of the respondents in this study was as follows: 56.0% (84) of the respondents were post-graduate degrees; 20.0% (30) of the respondents were post-matric diploma or certificate, 19.3% (29) of the respondents were baccalaureate degrees, and 4.7% (7) of the respondents were grade 12 (matric, STD 10). It must be noted that of all 150 responses received from the circulated sample, all respondents completed the questionnaire and indicated their educational qualifications.

In terms of the Norms and Standards for Educators, published in 2000, educators who had obtained a three-year post-school qualification (REQV213 level) were regarded as adequately qualified (Department of Education, 2005:47). The 2007 National Policy Framework for Teacher Education, however, has set the minimum entry level for all new educators joining the teaching profession at REQV 14 level. The two recognized pathways are:

- The four year professional Bachelor of Education degree and
- A three year junior degree followed by a year-study of a post-graduate diploma (RSA 2007: 13-14).

Less than half, 47.9% or 171 976 of 359 260 educators had an REQV 14 qualification in 2004. A further 37.4% or 134 509 educators had an REQV 13 level qualification. Only 14.7% or 52 775 educators could be regarded as under-qualified because they had an REQV 12 or lower qualification. Although 14.7% indicates a small percentage, it is still of concern that in 2004 more than 50,000 teachers were still under qualified. It is not clear at this stage how much of a dent the National Professional Diploma in Education for upgrading under qualified teachers has made, as the programme is still continuing (www.statssa.gov.za).

Enrolments in the field of Education at universities suggest that South African educators are eager to better their qualifications; this is in line with this study's findings as it is clear from the findings that the respondents are well educated. However even though 56.0% of respondents indicated having post graduate degrees not many of them were aware or had any knowledge of CSR initiatives performed by corporations.

d. Race

The study's findings were as follows: 70.0% (105) of the respondents were Indian, 23.3% (35) were Whites, 5.3% (8) of the respondents were Black, and the remaining 1.3% (2) of the respondents were Coloured. The higher percentage of Indians and Whites is due to the sample being drawn from a majority Indian and White area as it was situated close to the researcher. However, according to Statistics South Africa (2005) the representation of the population groups in the profession reflects the demographics of the country, whereby Blacks are the majority. In terms of race, approximately 79.3% of all educators are Black, 7.9% are Coloured, 2.9% are Indian and 9.9% are White.

e. Number of years in current position

The respondents' duration of employment with the Department of Education ranged from less than 1 year to more than 11 years of service. 56.7% (85) of the respondent's duration of employment ranged from 11 years and more, 6.7% (10) of the respondent's duration of employment was less than 1 year service of employment. 27.3% (41) of the respondents fall within 1-5 years of working experience within the Department of Education and 9.3% (14) of the respondents have spent between 6 to 10 years of service with the Department of Education. It must be noted that the responses to this question, were answered by all 150 respondents.

f. Number of years in school

The respondent's tenure in the school they are employed in ranged from less than 1 year to 11 years and more. 43.3% (65) of the respondents were in their present school for 11 years and more, only 9.3% (14) of the respondents were in their current school for less than a year, 33.3% (50) of the respondents were in their current school between 1 to 5 years and 14.0% (21) respondents were in their current school between 6 to 10 years. The majority of the respondents 43.3% (65) were in their current school for 11 years and more, this indicates that the respondents will have had a longer time frame with the community in which they are employed in. However, a significant amount of the respondents did not know of any kind of CSR initiatives that took place in their community. This could be interpreted as follows: corporations do indeed have CSR initiatives in place however, they do not follow through

with them or corporations have targeted other communities, which are deemed to be a much more worthy recipient of organizations CSR initiatives.

4.3.2 Cross tabulations of the biographic variables with questions relating to the dimensions

The Table below shows the results of the cross tabulations.

a. Gender and basic needs

The results of gender and the basic needs questions are shown in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Cross tabulation of questions 7 to 11 with gender

| | | A1 Gender | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|-----------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Male | | Female | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| B7 Financial Support | No | 27 | 18.0% | 82 | 54.7% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 16 | 10.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B8 Housing | No | 41 | 27.3% | 95 | 63.3% | 136 | 90.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 12 | 8.0% | 14 | 9.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B9 Educational projects | No | 26 | 17.3% | 71 | 47.3% | 97 | 64.7% |
| | Yes | 17 | 11.3% | 36 | 24.0% | 53 | 35.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B10 Access to clean water | No | 37 | 24.7% | 93 | 62.0% | 130 | 86.7% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 20 | 13.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B11 Employment | No | 36 | 24.0% | 85 | 56.7% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 7 | 4.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |

The results in Table 4.3 show that the majority of males (18%) and females (54.7%) indicated that their community was not assisted with financial support. Only 10.7% of the males and 16.7% of the females stated that their community received financial support.

As indicated in Table 4.3 the majority of males (27.3%) and females (63.3%) indicated that their community was not assisted with housing, while 1.3% of the male respondents and 8.0% of the female respondents stated that their community did receive assistance for housing.

Regarding educational projects the majority of females (47.3%) and males (17.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance while 11.3% of males and 24.0% of females indicated that their community did receive assistance for educational projects.

Table 4.3 indicated that the majority of males (24.7%) and females (62.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance regarding access to clean water. Only 4.0% of males and 9.3% of females indicated that their community did receive assistance towards the access of clean water.

The results in Table 4.3 show that the majority of male (24.0%) and female (56.7%) indicated that their community was not assisted with employment. Only 4.7% of males and 14.7% of females did indicate that their community received assistance regarding employment.

The results revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards basic needs in the target communities. This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority of the respondents, both male and female who have indicated that organizations' CSR initiatives do not assist their community in relation to the dimension of basic needs such as, financial support (72.7%), housing (90.7%), educational projects (64.7%), access to clean water (86.7%) and employment (80.7%).

The above results are particularly worrying as a healthy community can only mean a health business as organizations rely on communities in more ways than one. Jenkins (2005: 530) states that "the key to sustainable development is a strongly enforced and well developed CSR policy". Perhaps this is the reason behind organizations' being unable to assist target communities with basic needs. As a result of the minimal assistance offered by organizations,

it can be deemed that a misalignment exists between CSR initiatives and the basic needs of communities, which can be translated into CSR initiatives being unsustainable.

b. Gender and equal distribution of resources

The results of gender and the equal distribution of resources questions are shown in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Cross tabulation of questions 12 to 16 with gender

| | | A1 Gender | | | | | |
|---|-------|-----------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Male | | Female | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | No | 36 | 24.0% | 88 | 58.7% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 7 | 4.7% | 19 | 12.7% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | No | 36 | 24.0% | 90 | 60.0% | 126 | 84.0% |
| | Yes | 7 | 4.7% | 17 | 11.3% | 24 | 16.0% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | No | 39 | 26.0% | 85 | 56.7% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | No | 40 | 26.7% | 91 | 60.7% | 131 | 87.3% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 16 | 10.7% | 19 | 12.7% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | No | 37 | 24.7% | 84 | 56.0% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 23 | 15.3% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.4 the majority of males (24.0%) and females (58.7%) indicated that their community did not receive training regarding any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire. Only 4.7% of males and 12.7% of females indicated that their community did receive training.

Regarding the planning stages of projects, the majority of males (24.0%) and females (60.0%) indicated that their community did not receive training. Only 4.7% of males and

11.3% of females indicated that their community did receive training during the planning stages of projects.

Table 4.4 indicates that the majority of males (26.0%) and females (56.7%) of females indicated that their community did not receive training during the implementation of projects. While 2.7% of males and 14.7% of females indicated that their community did receive training.

The results in Table 4.4 indicate that the majority of males (26.7%) and females (60.7%) indicated that their community did not receive training for the maintenance of projects after completion. Only 2.0% of males and 10.7% of females indicated that their community did receive training for the maintenance of projects after completion.

As indicated by Table 4.4 majority of males (24.7%) and females (56.0%) indicated that people with disabilities in their community did not receive training. While 4.0% of males and 15.3% of females indicated that people with disabilities in their community did receive training.

In the case of equal distribution of resources the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards equal distribution of resources in the target communities. These results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents both male and female who indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding the dimensions of equal distribution of resources, which are, any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire (82.7%), the planning stages of projects (84.0%), the implementation of projects (82.7%), the maintenance of projects after completion (87.3%) and people with disabilities in the community (80.7%).

Perhaps the reason for organizations not providing training to target communities could be directly linked to the argument made by Lantos (2001). Lantos (2001) argues that corporations only participate in CSR initiatives in the form of philanthropic actions, do so in order to reap the financial benefits through positive publicity.

c. Gender and environmental degradation

The results of gender and the environmental degradation questions are shown in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Cross tabulation of questions 17 to 21 with gender

| | | A1 Gender | | | | | |
|--|-------|-----------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Male | | Female | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | No | 34 | 22.7% | 75 | 50.0% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 9 | 6.0% | 32 | 21.3% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | No | 36 | 24.0% | 89 | 59.3% | 125 | 83.3% |
| | Yes | 7 | 4.7% | 18 | 12.0% | 25 | 16.7% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D19 The development of new products. | No | 37 | 24.7% | 85 | 56.7% | 122 | 81.3% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 22 | 14.7% | 28 | 18.7% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | No | 37 | 24.7% | 81 | 54.0% | 118 | 78.7% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 26 | 17.3% | 32 | 21.3% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | No | 33 | 22.0% | 66 | 44.0% | 99 | 66.0% |
| | Yes | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 51 | 34.0% |
| | Total | 43 | 28.7% | 107 | 71.3% | 150 | 100.0% |

Table 4.5 indicates that the majority of males (22.7%) and females (50.0%) indicated that their community was not provided with knowledge about the products that organizations manufacture. Only 6.0% of males and 21.3% of females indicated that their community was provided with knowledge about the products that organizations manufacture.

The results in Table 4.5 show that the majority of males (24.0%) and females (59.3%) of the respondents indicated that their community was not made aware of the safety of their health from organizations products. While 4.7% of males and 12.0% of females indicated that their community was made aware of the safety of their health from organizations products.

As indicated in Table 4.5 the majority of males (24.7%) and females (56.7%) indicated that their community was not made aware of the development of new products by organizations'. Only 4.0% of males and 14.7% of females indicated that their community was made aware of the development of new products by organizations'.

Regarding the protection of the environment from organizations production method, the majority of males (24.7%) and females (54.0%) indicated that their community was not informed. While 4.0% of males and 17.3% of females indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment from organizations' production methods.

The results in Table 4.5 show that the majority of the males (22.0%) and females (44.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment. Only 6.7% of males and 27.3% of females indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations'.

With regards to environmental degradation the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations' CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards environmental degradation in the target communities. The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents both male and female who indicated that their community was not informed of curbing environmental degradation by organizations', which include, the products that organizations' manufacture (72.7%), the safety of their health from organizations products (83.3%), the development of new products (81.3%), the protection of the environment from organizations' production methods (78.7%) and the protection of the environment (66.0%).

It is believe by Certo and Certo (2006) that the measurement of quality of life should focus on whether the organization is improving or degrading the general quality of life in society. Producing a high-quality of goods, dealing fairly with employees and customers, and making an effort to preserve the natural environment are all indicators that the organization is upholding or improving the general quality of life. As an example of degrading the quality of

life, some people believe that cigarette companies, because they produce goods that can harm the health of society overall, are socially irresponsible.

4.3.3 Cross tabulations of the biographic variables with questions relating to the dimensions.

The Table below shows the results of the cross tabulations.

a. Age and basic needs

The results of age and the basic needs questions are shown in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Cross tabulation of questions 7 to 11 with age

| | | A2 Age | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | 20-29 | | 30-39 | | 40-49 | | 50 years and over | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| B7 Financial Support | No | 21 | 14.0% | 20 | 13.3% | 42 | 28.0% | 26 | 17.3% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 8 | 5.3% | 7 | 4.7% | 12 | 8.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B8 Housing | No | 24 | 16.0% | 24 | 16.0% | 50 | 33.3% | 38 | 25.3% | 136 | 90.7% |
| | Yes | 5 | 3.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 4 | 2.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 14 | 9.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B9 Educational projects | No | 21 | 14.0% | 21 | 14.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 26 | 17.3% | 97 | 64.7% |
| | Yes | 8 | 5.3% | 6 | 4.0% | 25 | 16.7% | 14 | 9.3% | 53 | 35.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B10 Access to clean water | No | 22 | 14.7% | 23 | 15.3% | 50 | 33.3% | 35 | 23.3% | 130 | 86.7% |
| | Yes | 7 | 4.7% | 4 | 2.7% | 4 | 2.7% | 5 | 3.3% | 20 | 13.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B11 Employment | No | 20 | 13.3% | 23 | 15.3% | 43 | 28.7% | 35 | 23.3% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 9 | 6.0% | 4 | 2.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 5 | 3.3% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.6 the majority of the respondents between the ages of 40-49 (28.0%), 50 years and over (17.3%), 20-29 (14.0%) and 30-39 (13.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assisted with financial support. Respondents between the ages of 20-29

(5.3%), 30-39 (4.7%), 40-49 (8.0%) and 50 years and over (9.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with financial support.

The results in Table 4.6 show that the majority of respondents between the ages of 40-49 (33.3%), 50 years and over (25.3%), 20-29 (16.0%) and 30-39 (16.0%) indicated that their community received assistance with regards to housing. The minority of the respondents aged between 20-29 (3.3%), 30-39 (2.0%), 40-49 (2.7%) and 50 years and over (1.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with housing.

With regards to educational projects the majority of the respondents aged between 40-49 (19.3%), 50 years and over (17.3%), 20-29 (14.0%) and 30-39 (14.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance. While respondents between the ages of 20-29 (5.3%), 30-39 (4.0%), 40-49 (16.7%) and 50 years and over (9.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with educational projects.

Table 4.6 indicates that the majority of respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (14.7%), 30-39 (15.3%), 40-49 (33.3%) and 50 years and over (2.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with access to clean water. However, respondents between the age groups of 20-29 (4.7%), 30-39 (2.7%), 40-49 (2.7%) and 50 years and over (3.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with access to clean water.

The results in Table 4.6 show that the majority of respondents between the age groups of 20-29 (13.3%), 30-39 (15.3%), 40-49 (28.7%) and 50 years and over (23.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with employment. Respondents between the age groups of 20-29 (6.0%), 30-39 (2.7%), 40-49 (7.3%) and 50 years and over (3.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with employment.

The results revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not making a significant contribution towards basic needs in the target communities. This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority of the respondents in all age groups, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49 and 50 years and over who indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not

assist their community in relation to the dimension of basic needs such as, financial support (72.2%), housing (90.7%), educational projects (64.7%), access to clean water (86.7%) and employment (80.7%).

The above results are contradictions to the general definition of social sustainability, as the general definition of social sustainability is the ability of a social system, such as a country, to function at a defined level of social well-being indefinitely. This level should be defined in relation to the goal of *Homo sapiens*, which is, or should be, to optimize the quality of life for those living and their descendants (www.thwink.org).

b. Age and equal distribution of resources

The results of age and the equal distribution of resources questions are shown in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7: Cross tabulation of questions 12 to 16 with age

| | | A2 Age | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | 20-29 | | 30-39 | | 40-49 | | 50 years and over | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | No | 20 | 13.3% | 24 | 16.0% | 47 | 31.3% | 33 | 22.0% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 9 | 6.0% | 3 | 2.0% | 7 | 4.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | No | 20 | 13.3% | 24 | 16.0% | 45 | 30.0% | 37 | 24.7% | 126 | 84.0% |
| | Yes | 9 | 6.0% | 3 | 2.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 3 | 2.0% | 24 | 16.0% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | No | 21 | 14.0% | 22 | 14.7% | 45 | 30.0% | 36 | 24.0% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 8 | 5.3% | 5 | 3.3% | 9 | 6.0% | 4 | 2.7% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | No | 23 | 15.3% | 23 | 15.3% | 48 | 32.0% | 37 | 24.7% | 131 | 87.3% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 4 | 2.7% | 6 | 4.0% | 3 | 2.0% | 19 | 12.7% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | No | 23 | 15.3% | 21 | 14.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 37 | 24.7% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 6 | 4.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

The results of Table 4.7 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (13.3%), 30-39 (16.0%), 40-49 (31.3%) and 50 years and over (22.0%) indicated that their community was not provide with training regarding any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire. Respondents between the age groups 20-29 (6.0%), 30-39 (2.0%), 40-49 (4.7%) and 50 years and over (4.7%) indicated that their community was provide with training with any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire.

With regards to training during the planning stages of projects, the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (13.3%), 30-39 (16.0%), 40-49 (30.0%) and 50 years and over (24.7%) indicated that their community was not provided with training. While respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (6.0%), 30-39 (2.0%), 40-49 (6.0%) and 50 years and over (2.0%) indicated that their community was provide with training during the planning stages of projects.

Table 4.7 shows that the majority of the respondents in the age groups 20-29 (14.0%), 30-39 (14.7%), 40-49 (30.0%) and 50 years and older (24.0%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the implementation of projects. Respondents between the following age groups 20-29 (5.3%), 30-39 (3.3%), 40-49 (6.0%) and 50 years and older (2.7%) indicated that their community was provided with training during the implementation of projects.

The results in Table 4.7 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (15.3%), 30-39 (15.3%), 40-49 (32.0%) and 50 years and older (24.7%) indicated that their community was not provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion. However, respondents in the age groups 20-29 (4.0%), 30-39 (2.7%), 40-49 (4.0%) and 50 years and over (2.0%) indicated that their community was provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion.

As indicated in Table 4.7 the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (15.3%), 30-39 (14.0%), 40-49 (26.7%) and 50 years and over (24.7%) indicated that people

with disabilities in their community did not receive training. While respondents in the age groups 20-29 (4.0%), 30-39 (4.0%), 40-49 (9.3%) and 50 years and over (2.0%) indicate that people with disabilities in their community were provided with training.

In the case of equal distribution of resources the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards equal distribution of resources in the target communities. These results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents of all age groups, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49 and 50 years and older who indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding the dimensions of equal distribution of resources, which are, any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire (82.7%), the planning stages of projects (84.0%), the implementation of projects (82.7%), the maintenance of projects after completion (87.3%) and people with disabilities in the community (80.7%).

From the above results it is clear that organization CSR initiatives do not contribute to sustainable development at the social level as Harris (2000) defines social sustainability as a system that must achieve distributional equity and adequate provision of social services including, health and education, gender equity, political accountability and participation.

c. Age and environmental degradation

The results of age and the environmental degradation questions are shown in Table 4.8 overleaf.

Table 4.8: Cross tabulation of questions 17 to 21 with age

| | | A2 Age | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | 20-29 | | 30-39 | | 40-49 | | 50 years and over | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | No | 19 | 12.7% | 17 | 11.3% | 41 | 27.3% | 32 | 21.3% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 10 | 6.7% | 10 | 6.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 8 | 5.3% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | No | 24 | 16.0% | 20 | 13.3% | 45 | 30.0% | 36 | 24.0% | 125 | 83.3% |
| | Yes | 5 | 3.3% | 7 | 4.7% | 9 | 6.0% | 4 | 2.7% | 25 | 16.7% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D19 The development of new products. | No | 19 | 12.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 46 | 30.7% | 35 | 23.3% | 122 | 81.3% |
| | Yes | 10 | 6.7% | 5 | 3.3% | 8 | 5.3% | 5 | 3.3% | 28 | 18.7% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | No | 18 | 12.0% | 18 | 12.0% | 47 | 31.3% | 35 | 23.3% | 118 | 78.7% |
| | Yes | 11 | 7.3% | 9 | 6.0% | 7 | 4.7% | 5 | 3.3% | 32 | 21.3% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | No | 13 | 8.7% | 16 | 10.7% | 37 | 24.7% | 33 | 22.0% | 99 | 66.0% |
| | Yes | 16 | 10.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 17 | 11.3% | 7 | 4.7% | 51 | 34.0% |
| | Total | 29 | 19.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 54 | 36.0% | 40 | 26.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.8 the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (12.7%), 30-39 (11.3%), 40-49 (27.3%) and 50 years and over (21.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations'. While respondents in the age groups 20-29 (6.7%), 30-39 (6.7%), 40-49 (8.7%) and 50 years and over (5.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations'.

The results in Table 4.8 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (16.0%), 30-39 (13.3%), 40-49 (30.0%) and 50 years and older (24.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the safety of their health from the products of organizations'. However, respondents in the age groups 20-29 (3.3%), 30-39

(4.7%), 40-49 (6.0%) and 50 years and over (2.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the safety of their health from organizational products.

Table 4.8 shows that the majority of the respondents in the age groups 20-29 (12.7%), 30-39 (14.7%), 40-49 (30.7%) and 50 years and older (23.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the development of new products. Respondents between the following age groups 20-29 (6.7%), 30-39 (3.3%), 40-49 (5.3%) and 50 years and older (3.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the development of new products.

Regarding the protection of the environment from organizational production methods, the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (12.0%), 30-39 (12.0%), 40-49 (31.3%) and 50 years and over (23.3%) indicated that their community was not informed. While respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (7.3%), 30-39 (6.0%), 40-49 (4.7%) and 50 years and over (3.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment from organizational production methods.

As indicated in Table 4.8 the majority of the respondents in the following age groups 20-29 (8.7%), 30-39 (10.7%), 40-49 (24.7%) and 50 years and over (22.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment by organizations. While respondents in the age groups 20-29 (10.7%), 30-39 (7.3%), 40-49 (11.3%) and 50 years and over (4.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations.

With regards to environmental degradation the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards environmental degradation in the target communities. The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents of all age groups, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49 and 50 years and over who indicated that their community was not informed of curbing environmental degradation by organizations, which include, the products that organizations manufacture (72.7%), the safety of their health from organizations products (83.3%), the development of new products

(81.3%), the protection of the environment from organizations production method (78.7%) and the protection of the environment (66.0%).

Literature also confirms that organizations are not being true to their environmental CSR initiatives as many organizations are still guilty of environment degradation for example, potential water and soil pollution from improper storage of hazardous waste (www.environment.gov.za). As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and curbing environmental degradation it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding environmental degradation is not sustainable.

4.3.4 Cross tabulations of the biographic variables with questions relating to the dimensions.

The Table below shows the results of the cross tabulations.

a. Educational qualifications and basic needs

The results of educational qualifications and the basic needs questions are shown in Table 4.9 overleaf.

Table 4.9: Cross tabulation of questions 7 to 11 with educational qualifications

| | | A3 Educational Qualifications | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|-------------------------------|------|---------------------|-------|----------------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Grade 10-12 | | Diploma Certificate | | Undergraduate degree | | Postgraduate degree | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| B7 Financial Support | No | 4 | 2.7% | 20 | 13.3% | 23 | 15.3% | 62 | 41.3% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 10 | 6.7% | 6 | 4.0% | 22 | 14.7% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B8 Housing | No | 5 | 3.3% | 29 | 19.3% | 26 | 17.3% | 76 | 50.7% | 136 | 90.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 3 | 2.0% | 8 | 5.3% | 14 | 9.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B9 Educational projects | No | 3 | 2.0% | 16 | 10.7% | 23 | 15.3% | 55 | 36.7% | 97 | 64.7% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 14 | 9.3% | 6 | 4.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 53 | 35.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B10 Access to clean water | No | 4 | 2.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 76 | 50.7% | 130 | 86.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 5 | 3.3% | 4 | 2.7% | 8 | 5.3% | 20 | 13.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B11 Employment | No | 4 | 2.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 70 | 46.7% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 8 | 5.3% | 4 | 2.7% | 14 | 9.3% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.9 the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (13.3%), undergraduate degree (15.3%) and postgraduate degree (41.3%) indicated that their community did not receive financial support assistance. While respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (6.7%), undergraduate degree (4.0%) and postgraduate degree (14.7%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with financial support.

Table 4.9 shows that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (3.3%), diploma certificate (19.3%), undergraduate degree (17.3%) and postgraduate degree (50.7%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with housing. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (1.3%), diploma certificate (0.7%), undergraduate degree (2.0%) and postgraduate degree (5.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with housing.

The results in Table 4.9 shows that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (10.7%), undergraduate degree (15.3%) and postgraduate degree (36.7%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with educational projects. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (9.3%), undergraduate degree (4.0%) and postgraduate degree (19.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with educational projects.

Regarding access to clean water the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (16.7%), undergraduate degree (16.7%) and postgraduate degree (50.7%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (3.3%), undergraduate degree (2.7%) and postgraduate degree (5.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with access to clean water.

As indicated in Table 4.9 the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (14.7%), undergraduate degree (16.7%) and postgraduate degree (46.7%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with employment. While respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (5.3%), undergraduate degree (2.7%) and postgraduate degree (9.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with employment.

The results revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations' CSR initiatives do not making a significant contribution towards basic needs in the target communities. This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority of the respondents with educational qualifications ranging from grade 10-12, diploma certificate, undergraduate degree to postgraduate degree who indicated that organizations' CSR initiatives do not assist their community in relation to the dimension of basic needs such as, financial support (72.2%), housing (90.7%), educational projects (64.7%), access to clean water (86.7%) and employment (80.7%).

Cuthill (2010: 363) states that “provision of basic human needs sets a foundation where all people have the opportunity to live fulfilling, safe and healthy lives. As such, it is suggested that fulfillment of basic human needs must be seen not only as a fundamental of social sustainability, but as a prerequisite for sustainable development itself”. This indicated a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what communities require, one can conclude that organizations CSR initiatives regarding basic needs are not sustainable.

b. Educational qualification and equal distribution of resources

The results of educational qualifications and the equal distribution of resources questions are shown in Table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10: Cross tabulation of questions 12 to 16 with educational qualifications

| | | | A3 Educational Qualifications | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|---|-------------------------------|----|---------------------|----|----------------------|----|---------------------|-----|--------|---|
| | | | Grade 10-12 | | Diploma Certificate | | Undergraduate degree | | Postgraduate degree | | Total | |
| | | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | No | 4 | 2.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 26 | 17.3% | 69 | 46.0% | 124 | 82.7% | |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 5 | 3.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 15 | 10.0% | 26 | 17.3% | |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% | |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 25 | 16.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 71 | 47.3% | 126 | 84.0% | |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 5 | 3.3% | 4 | 2.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 24 | 16.0% | |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% | |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | No | 6 | 4.0% | 27 | 18.0% | 23 | 15.3% | 68 | 45.3% | 124 | 82.7% | |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 3 | 2.0% | 6 | 4.0% | 16 | 10.7% | 26 | 17.3% | |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% | |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 26 | 17.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 73 | 48.7% | 131 | 87.3% | |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 4 | 2.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 19 | 12.7% | |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% | |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | No | 3 | 2.0% | 22 | 14.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 71 | 47.3% | 121 | 80.7% | |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 8 | 5.3% | 4 | 2.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 29 | 19.3% | |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% | |

As indicated in Table 4.10 the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (16.7%), undergraduate degree (17.3%) and postgraduate degree (46.0%) indicated that their community was not provided with training in any other projection not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire. While respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (3.3%), undergraduate degree (2.0%) and postgraduate degree (10.0%) indicated that their community did receive training regarding any other project not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire.

The results in Table 4.10 shows that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (3.3%), diploma certificate (16.7%), undergraduate degree (16.7%) and postgraduate degree (47.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the planning stages of projects. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (1.3%), diploma certificate (3.3%), undergraduate degree (2.7%) and postgraduate degree (8.7%) indicated that training during the planning stages of projects was provided.

Table 4.10 shows that the majority of the respondents with the following qualifications grade 10-12 (4.0%), diploma certificate (18.0%), undergraduate degree (15.3%) and postgraduate degree (45.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the implementation of projects. While respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (0.7%), diploma certificate (2.0%), undergraduate degree (4.0%) and postgraduate degree (10.7%) indicated that training during the implementation of projects was provided.

As indicated in Table 4.10 the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (3.3%), diploma certificate (17.3%), undergraduate degree (18.0%) and postgraduate degree (48.7%) indicated that their community did not receive training for the maintenance of projects after completion. While respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (1.3%), diploma certificate (2.7%),

undergraduate degree (1.3%) and postgraduate degree (7.3%) indicated that their community did receive training for the maintenance of projects after completion.

The results in Table 4.10 shows that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications ranging from grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (14.7%), undergraduate degree (16.7%) to postgraduate degree (47.3%) indicated that disabled people with their community did not receive training. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (5.3%), undergraduate degree (2.7%) and postgraduate degree (8.7%) indicated that training was provided for disable people in their community.

In the case of equal distribution of resources the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards equal distribution of resources in the target communities. These results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents with educational qualification ranging from grade 10-12, diploma certificate, undergraduate degree to postgraduate degree who indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding the dimensions of equal distribution of resources, which are, any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire (82.7%), the planning stages of projects (84.0%), the implementation of projects (82.7%), the maintenance of projects after completion (87.3%) and people with disabilities in the community (80.7%).

Cuthill (2010) refers to equity as the fairness in the distribution of resources, particularly to those who require it the most, for example, in practice this might mean that not only are there public transport services, but these services provide equitable access for those who are less well off financially, people with disabilities and older persons. According to Cuthill (2010: 364) “there is also equitable access to appropriate employment opportunities that exist within the local communities, affordable housing, appropriate information and a range of health services, government processes and policy that provide appropriate resources to assist individuals and groups to develop their skills, knowledge and abilities and participate in social and civic networks, education and community services”.

c. Educational qualification and environmental degradation

The results of educational qualifications and environmental degradation questions are shown in Table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11: Cross tabulation of questions 17 to 21 with educational qualifications

| | | A3 Educational Qualifications | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|-------------------------------|------|---------------------|-------|----------------------|-------|---------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Grade 10-12 | | Diploma Certificate | | Undergraduate degree | | Postgraduate degree | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | No | 3 | 2.0% | 23 | 15.3% | 22 | 14.7% | 61 | 40.7% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 23 | 15.3% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | No | 4 | 2.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 125 | 83.3% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 5 | 3.3% | 7 | 4.7% | 10 | 6.7% | 25 | 16.7% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D19 The development of new products. | No | 3 | 2.0% | 24 | 16.0% | 22 | 14.7% | 73 | 48.7% | 122 | 81.3% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 6 | 4.0% | 7 | 4.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 28 | 18.7% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | No | 6 | 4.0% | 24 | 16.0% | 18 | 12.0% | 70 | 46.7% | 118 | 78.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 6 | 4.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 32 | 21.3% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | No | 3 | 2.0% | 21 | 14.0% | 17 | 11.3% | 58 | 38.7% | 99 | 66.0% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 9 | 6.0% | 12 | 8.0% | 26 | 17.3% | 51 | 34.0% |
| | Total | 7 | 4.7% | 30 | 20.0% | 29 | 19.3% | 84 | 56.0% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.11 the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (15.3%), undergraduate degree (14.7%) and postgraduate degree (40.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations. While respondents with the following

educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (4.7%), undergraduate degree (4.7%) and postgraduate degree (15.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations.

The results in Table 4.11 show that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (16.7%), undergraduate degree (14.7%) and postgraduate degree (49.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the safety of their health from organizations' products. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade, 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (3.3%), undergraduate degree (4.7%) and postgraduate degree (6.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the safety of their health from organizations products.

Table 4.11 show that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (16.0%), undergraduate degree (14.7%) and postgraduate degree (48.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the development of new products. However, respondents with the following educational qualifications, grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (4.0%), undergraduate degree (4.7%) and postgraduate degree (7.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the development of new products.

The results in Table 4.11 show that the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (4.0%), diploma certificate (16.0%), undergraduate degree (12.0%) and postgraduate degree (46.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment from organizations' production methods. Respondents with the following educational qualifications grade 10-12 (0.7%), diploma certificate (4.0%), undergraduate degree (7.3%) and postgraduate degree (9.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment from organizations' production methods.

As indicated in Table 4.11 the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualifications, grade 10-12 (2.0%), diploma certificate (14.0%), undergraduate degree

(11.3%) and postgraduate degree (38.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment by organizations. While respondents with the following educational qualifications, grade 10-12 (2.7%), diploma certificate (6.0%), undergraduate degree (8.0%) and postgraduate degree (17.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations.

The results on environmental degradation revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards environmental degradation in the target communities. The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents with the following educational qualification, grade 10-12, diploma certificate, undergraduate degree and postgraduate degree indicated that their community was not informed of curbing environmental degradation by organizations, which include, the products that organizations manufacture (72.7%), the safety of their health from organizations products (83.3%), the development of new products (81.3%), the protection of the environment from organizations production method (78.7%) and the protection of the environment (66.0%).

Organizations are not being true to their environmental CSR initiatives as many organizations are still guilty of environment degradation for example, emissions of black smoke from the stack causing air pollution (www.environment.org.za). As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and curbing environmental degradation, it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding environmental degradation is not sustainable.

4.3.5 Cross tabulations of the biographic variables with questions relating to the dimensions.

The Table below shows the results of the cross tabulations.

a. Race and basic needs

The results of race and the basic needs questions are shown in Table 4.12 overleaf.

Table 4.12: Cross tabulation of questions 7 to 11 with race

| | | A4 Race | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|---------|------|----------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Black | | Coloured | | Indian | | White | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| B7 Financial Support | No | 7 | 4.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 82 | 54.7% | 18 | 12.0% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 23 | 15.3% | 17 | 11.3% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B8 Housing | No | 5 | 3.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 97 | 64.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 136 | 90.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 0 | 0.0% | 8 | 5.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 14 | 9.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B9 Educational projects | No | 6 | 4.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 73 | 48.7% | 17 | 11.3% | 97 | 64.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 18 | 12.0% | 53 | 35.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B10 Access to clean water | No | 5 | 3.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 97 | 64.7% | 27 | 18.0% | 130 | 86.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 8 | 5.3% | 8 | 5.3% | 20 | 13.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B11 Employment | No | 6 | 4.0% | 2 | 1.3% | 90 | 60.0% | 23 | 15.3% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 0 | 0.0% | 15 | 10.0% | 12 | 8.0% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated by Table 4.12 the majority of the respondents in the following race groups Black (4.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (54.7%) and White (12.0%) indicated that their community did not receive financial support assistance. The respondents in the following race groups Black (0.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (15.3%) and White (11.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance for financial support.

Table 4.12 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups Black (3.3%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (64.7%) and White (21.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with housing. However, the respondents in the following race groups Black (2.0%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (5.3%) and White (2.0%) indicated that their community did receive assistance for housing.

As indicated by Table 4.12 the majority of the respondents in the following race groups Black (4.0%), Coloured (0.7%), Indian (48.7%) and White (11.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance for educational projects. Respondents in the following

race groups Black (1.3%), Coloured (0.7%), Indian (21.3%) and White (12.0%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with educational projects.

Table 4.12 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups Black (3.3%), Coloured (0.7%), Indian (64.7%) and White (18.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance for access to clean water. While respondents in the following race groups Black (2.0%), Coloured (0.7%), Indian (5.3%) and White (5.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance for access to clean water.

The results in Table 4.12 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups Black (4.0%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (60.0%) and White (15.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with employment. The respondents in the following race groups Black (1.3%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (10.0%) and White (8.0%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with employment.

The results revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not making a significant contribution towards basic needs in the target communities. This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority of the respondents belonging to the following race groups: Black, Coloured, Indian and White who indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not assist their community in relation to the dimension of basic needs such as, financial support (72.2%), housing (90.7%), educational projects (64.7%), access to clean water (86.7%) and employment (80.7%).

As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what communities require, it can be conclude that organizations CSR initiatives regarding basic needs are not sustainable. The above results are particularly disturbing as communities without basic needs such as, financial support, housing, education, access to clean water and employment will seize to exist.

b. Race and equal distribution of resources

The results of race and the equal distribution of resources questions are shown in Table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13: Cross tabulation of questions 12 to 16 with race

| | | A4 Race | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|---------|------|----------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Black | | Coloured | | Indian | | White | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 94 | 62.7% | 24 | 16.0% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 94 | 62.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 126 | 84.0% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 0 | 0.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 10 | 6.7% | 24 | 16.0% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 92 | 61.3% | 23 | 15.3% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 12 | 8.0% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 95 | 63.3% | 27 | 18.0% | 131 | 87.3% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 10 | 6.7% | 8 | 5.3% | 19 | 12.7% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | No | 4 | 2.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 90 | 60.0% | 25 | 16.7% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 15 | 10.0% | 10 | 6.7% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |

The results in Table 4.13 show that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (3.3%), Coloured (0.7%), Indian (62.7%) and White (16.0%) indicated that their community was not provided with training for any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire. However, the respondents in the following race groups: Black (2.0%), Coloured (0.7%), Indian (7.3%) and White (7.3%) indicated that their community did receive training for any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire.

As indicated by Table 4.13 the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (3.3%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (62.7%) and White (16.7%) indicated that their community did not receive training during the planning stages of projects. The respondents in the following race groups: Black (2.0%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (7.3%) and White (6.7%) indicated that their community did receive training during the planning stages of projects.

Table 4.13 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups, Black (4.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (61.3%) and White (15.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the implementation of projects. While the respondents in the following race groups: Black (0.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (8.7%) and White (8.0%) indicated that their community did receive training during the implementation of projects.

The results in Table 4.13 show that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (4.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (63.3%) and White (18.0%) indicated that their community was not provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion. Respondents in the following race groups: Black (0.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (6.7%) and White (5.3%) indicated that their community did receive training for the maintenance of projects after completion.

As indicated by Table 4.13 the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (2.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (60.0%) and White (16.7%) indicated that disabled people within their community did not receive training. The respondents in the following race groups: Black (2.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (10.0%) and White (6.7%) indicated that disabled people within their community did receive training.

With equal distribution of resources the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards equal distribution of resources in the target communities. These results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents belonging to the following race groups: Black, Coloured, Indian and White indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding the

dimensions of equal distribution of resources, which are, any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire (82.7%), the planning stages of projects (84.0%), the implementation of projects (82.7%), the maintenance of projects after completion (87.3%) and people with disabilities in the community (80.7%).

According to Cuthill (2010) participation involves the opportunity for all people to genuinely participate in the community and be consulted on decisions that affect their lives. People are increasingly expected to be able to be involved and have a real say in decisions that impact on their lives. Cuthill (2010: 364), states that “more and more governments are responding with a renewed commitment to be effectively engaged in order to deliver better outcomes for citizens and communities. As such, it is argued that engaged governance provides a methodological foundation for social sustainability”.

As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what is needed by communities, it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding equal distribution of resources are not sustainable.

c. Race and environmental degradation

The results of race and the environmental degradation questions are shown in Table 4.14 overleaf.

Table 4.14: Cross tabulation of questions 17 to 21 with race

| | | A4 Race | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|---------|------|----------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Black | | Coloured | | Indian | | White | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 87 | 58.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 18 | 12.0% | 22 | 14.7% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 91 | 60.7% | 25 | 16.7% | 125 | 83.3% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 10 | 6.7% | 25 | 16.7% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D19 The development of new products. | No | 6 | 4.0% | 2 | 1.3% | 93 | 62.0% | 21 | 14.0% | 122 | 81.3% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 0 | 0.0% | 12 | 8.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 28 | 18.7% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 2 | 1.3% | 91 | 60.7% | 18 | 12.0% | 118 | 78.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 0 | 0.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 17 | 11.3% | 32 | 21.3% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | No | 6 | 4.0% | 2 | 1.3% | 80 | 53.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 99 | 66.0% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 0 | 0.0% | 25 | 16.7% | 24 | 16.0% | 51 | 34.0% |
| | Total | 8 | 5.3% | 2 | 1.3% | 105 | 70.0% | 35 | 23.3% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated by Table 4.14 the majority of the respondents in the following race groups Black (4.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (58.0%) and White (8.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the products manufactured by organizations. The respondents in the following race groups: Black (0.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (12.0%) and White (14.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the products manufactured by organizations.

Table 4.14 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (4.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (60.7%) and White (16.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the safety of their health from organization products. Respondents in the

following race groups: Black (0.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (9.3%) and White (6.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the safety of the health from organization products.

The results in Table 4.14 show that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (4.0%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (62.0%) and White (14.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the development of new products. While respondents in the following race groups: Black (1.3%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (8.0%) and White (9.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the development of new products.

As indicated by Table 4.14 the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (4.7%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (60.7%) and White (12.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment from organizations' production methods. The respondents in the following race groups: Black (0.7%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (9.3%) and White (11.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment from organizations' production methods.

Table 4.14 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following race groups: Black (4.0%), Coloured (1.3%), Indian (53.3%) and White (7.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment by organizations'. Respondents in the following race groups: Black (1.3%), Coloured (0.0%), Indian (16.7%) and White (16.0%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations'.

The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents belonging to the following race groups: Black, Coloured, Indian and White who indicated that their community was not informed of curbing environmental degradation by organizations, which include, the products that organizations manufacture (72.7%), the safety of their health from organizations products (83.3%), the development of new products (81.3%), the protection of the environment from organizations production method (78.7%) and the protection of the environment (66.0%).

The above results indicate a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and curbing environmental degradation it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding environmental degradation is not sustainable. As true environmental responsibility encourages the responsible use of resources, however, this does not only involve ensuring that business is turning a profit but that business operations are free from creating environmental concerns that could potentially harm the balance of local ecology. Business has the ability to choose raw materials that are more environmentally friendly by being mindful of the impact that their operations have on the local community and by designing and implementing effective waste disposal strategies that do not damage local environments. Attention to the above mentioned types of details in the long run have the potential to increase community investments in the continued operations of business and improve the chances of remaining a viable operation for a longer period of time (www.wisegeek.com).

4.3.6 Cross tabulations of the biographic variables with questions relating to the dimensions.

The Table below show the results of the cross tabulations.

a. Years in current position and basic needs

The results of years in current position and the basic needs questions are shown in Table 4.15 overleaf.

Table 4.15: Cross tabulation of questions 7 to 11 with years in current position

| | | A5 Years in current position | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|------------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Less than 1 year | | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11 or more | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| B7 Financial Support | No | 7 | 4.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 7 | 4.7% | 63 | 42.0% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 7 | 4.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B8 Housing | No | 7 | 4.7% | 38 | 25.3% | 13 | 8.7% | 78 | 52.0% | 136 | 90.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 3 | 2.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 14 | 9.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B9 Educational projects | No | 8 | 5.3% | 25 | 16.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 53 | 35.3% | 97 | 64.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 16 | 10.7% | 3 | 2.0% | 32 | 21.3% | 53 | 35.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B10 Access to clean water | No | 7 | 4.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 13 | 8.7% | 78 | 52.0% | 130 | 86.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 20 | 13.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B11 Employment | No | 8 | 5.3% | 30 | 20.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 70 | 46.7% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 15 | 10.0% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.15 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (21.3%), 6-10 years (4.7%) and 11 years and more (42.0%) indicated that their community did not receive financial support assistance. The respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (6.0%), 6-10 years (4.7%) and 11 years and more (14.7%) indicated that their community did receive financial support assistance.

The results in Table 4.15 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (25.3%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (52.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with housing. Respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (2.0%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (4.7%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with housing.

Table 4.15 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (16.7%), 6-10 years (7.3%) and 11 years and more (35.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with educational projects. While respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (10.7%), 6-10 years (2.0%) and 11 years and more (21.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with educational projects.

As indicated in Table 4.15 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (21.3%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (52.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with access to clean water. The respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (6.0%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (4.7%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with access to clean water.

The results in Table 4.15 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (20.0%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (46.7%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with employment. Respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (7.3%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (10.0%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with employment.

The results revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not making a significant contribution towards basic needs in the target communities. This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority of the respondents who have been in their current position for the following years, less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11 years and more who have indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not assist their community in relation to the dimension of basic needs such as, financial support (72.2%), housing (90.7%), educational projects (64.7%), access to clean water (86.7%) and employment (80.7%).

As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what communities require becoming sustainable, one can conclude that organizations CSR initiatives regarding basic needs are not sustainable.

b. Years in current position and equal distribution of resources

The results of years in current position and the equal distribution of resources questions are shown in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16: Cross tabulation of questions 12 to 16 with years in current position

| | | A5 Years in current position | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|------------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Less than 1 year | | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11 or more | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 31 | 20.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 73 | 48.7% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 10 | 6.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 12 | 8.0% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | No | 8 | 5.3% | 31 | 20.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 126 | 84.0% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 10 | 6.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 24 | 16.0% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | No | 9 | 6.0% | 28 | 18.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | No | 8 | 5.3% | 33 | 22.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 76 | 50.7% | 131 | 87.3% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 8 | 5.3% | 0 | 0.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 19 | 12.7% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | No | 9 | 6.0% | 30 | 20.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 71 | 47.3% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

The results in Table 4.16 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (20.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (48.7%) indicated that their community did not receive training with any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire. Respondents in the following

group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (6.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (8.0%) indicated that their community did receive training for any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire.

As indicated in Table 4.16 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (20.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the planning stage of projects. The respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (6.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was provided with training during the planning stage of projects.

Table 4.16 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (6.0%), 1-5 years (18.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the implementation of projects. While respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (0.7%), 1-5 years (8.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was provide with training during the implementation of projects.

The results in Table 4.16 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (22.0%), 6-10 years (9.3%) and 11 years and more (50.7%) indicated that their community was not provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion. Respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (5.3%), 6-10 years (0.0%) and 11 years and more (6.0%) indicated that their community was provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion.

As indicated in Table 4.16 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (6.0%), 1-5 years (20.0%), 6-10 years (7.3%) and 11 years and more (47.3%) indicated that disabled people within their community was not provide

with training. The respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (0.7%), 1-5 years (7.3%), 6-10 years (2.0%) and 11 years and more (9.3%) indicated that disabled people within their community was provide with training.

With equal distribution of resources the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards equal distribution of resources in the target communities. These results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents who have been in their current position for the following years, less than one year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11 years and more that have indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding the dimensions of equal distribution of resources, which are, any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire (82.7%), the planning stages of projects (84.0%), the implementation of projects (82.7%), the maintenance of projects after completion (87.3%) and people with disabilities in the community (80.7%).

As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what is needed by communities, it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding equal distribution of resources are not sustainable.

c. Years in current position and environmental degradation

The results of years in current position and the environmental degradation questions are shown in Table 4.17 overleaf.

Table 4.17: Cross tabulation of questions 17 to 21 with years in current position

| | | A5 Years in current position | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|------------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Less than 1 year | | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11 or more | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 24 | 16.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 67 | 44.7% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 5 | 3.3% | 17 | 11.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 18 | 12.0% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | No | 8 | 5.3% | 30 | 20.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 125 | 83.3% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 25 | 16.7% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D19 The development of new products. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 31 | 20.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 73 | 48.7% | 122 | 81.3% |
| | Yes | 5 | 3.3% | 10 | 6.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 12 | 8.0% | 28 | 18.7% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | No | 6 | 4.0% | 27 | 18.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 74 | 49.3% | 118 | 78.7% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 14 | 9.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 32 | 21.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | No | 4 | 2.7% | 20 | 13.3% | 9 | 6.0% | 66 | 44.0% | 99 | 66.0% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 21 | 14.0% | 5 | 3.3% | 19 | 12.7% | 51 | 34.0% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.17 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (16.0%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (44.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations. The respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1-year (3.3%), 1-5 years (11.3%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (12.0%) indicated that their community was informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations.

The results in Table 4.17 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (20.0%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the safety of their health from organizational products. Respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (7.3%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the safety of their health from organizational products.

Table 4.17 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (20.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (48.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the development of new products. While respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (6.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (8.0%) indicated that their community was informed of the development of new products.

As indicated in Table 4.17 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (4.0%), 1-5 years (18.0%), 6-10 years (7.3%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment from the production method of organizations. The respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (2.7%), 1-5 years (9.3%), 6-10 years (2.0%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment from organizations production methods.

The results in Table 4.17 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (2.7%), 1-5 years (13.3%), 6-10 years (6.0%) and 11 years and more (44.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment by organizations. Respondents in the following group of years in current position, less than a 1 year (4.0%), 1-5 years (14.0%), 6-10 years (3.3%) and 11 years and more (12.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations.

The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents who have been in their current position for the following years, indicated that their community was not informed of curbing environmental degradation by organizations, which include, the products that organizations manufacture (72.7%), the safety of their health from organizations products (83.3%), the development of new products (81.3%), the protection of the environment from organizations production method (78.7%) and the protection of the environment (66.0%).

Literature also confirms that organizations are not being true to their environmental CSR initiatives as many organizations are still guilty of environment degradation for example, incomplete combustion of the medical waste (www.environment.org.za). As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and curbing environmental degradation it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding environmental degradation is not sustainable.

4.3.7 Cross tabulations of the biographic variables with questions relating to the dimensions.

The Table below show the results of the cross tabulations.

a. Years in the school and basic needs

The results of years in the school and the basic needs questions are shown in Table 4.18 overleaf.

Table 4.18: Cross tabulation of questions 7 to 11 with years in the school

| | | A6 Years in School | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|--------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Less than 1 year | | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11 or more | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| B7 Financial Support | No | 7 | 4.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 7 | 4.7% | 63 | 42.0% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 7 | 4.7% | 22 | 14.7% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B8 Housing | No | 7 | 4.7% | 38 | 25.3% | 13 | 8.7% | 78 | 52.0% | 136 | 90.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 3 | 2.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 14 | 9.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B9 Educational projects | No | 8 | 5.3% | 25 | 16.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 53 | 35.3% | 97 | 64.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 16 | 10.7% | 3 | 2.0% | 32 | 21.3% | 53 | 35.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B10 Access to clean water | No | 7 | 4.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 13 | 8.7% | 78 | 52.0% | 130 | 86.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 1 | 0.7% | 7 | 4.7% | 20 | 13.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| B11 Employment | No | 8 | 5.3% | 30 | 20.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 70 | 46.7% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 15 | 10.0% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.18 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (21.3%), 6-10 years (4.7%) and 11 years and more (42.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance for financial support. The respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (6.0%), 6-10 years (4.7%) and 11 years and more (14.7%) indicated that their community did receive assistance for financial support.

The results in Table 4.18 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (25.3%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (52.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with housing. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (2.0%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (4.7%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with housing.

Table 4.18 indicates that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (16.7%), 6-10 years (7.3%) and 11 years and more (35.3%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with educational projects. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (10.7%), 6-10 years (2.0%) and 11 years and more (21.3%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with educational projects.

As indicated in Table 4.18 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (21.3%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (52.0%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with access to clean water. The respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (6.0%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (4.7%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with access to clean water.

The results in Table 4.18 show that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (20.0%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (46.7%) indicated that their community did not receive assistance with employment. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (7.3%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (10.0%) indicated that their community did receive assistance with employment.

The results revealed a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not making a significant contribution towards basic needs in the target communities. This can be confirmed by the overwhelming majority of the respondents who have been in the school for the following years, less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11 years and more who have indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not assist their community in relation to the dimension of basic needs such as, financial support (72.2%), housing (90.7%), educational projects (64.7%), access to clean water (86.7%) and employment (80.7%).

As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what communities require becoming sustainable, one can conclude that organizations CSR initiatives regarding basic needs are not sustainable.

b. Years in the school and equal distribution of resources

The results of years in the school and the equal distribution of resources questions are shown in Table 4.19 below.

Table 4.19: Cross tabulation of questions 12 to 16 with years in the school

| | | A6 Years in School | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|--------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Less than 1 year | | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11 or more | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | No | 7 | 4.7% | 31 | 20.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 73 | 48.7% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 3 | 2.0% | 10 | 6.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 12 | 8.0% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | No | 8 | 5.3% | 31 | 20.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 126 | 84.0% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 10 | 6.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 24 | 16.0% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | No | 9 | 6.0% | 28 | 18.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 124 | 82.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 26 | 17.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | No | 8 | 5.3% | 33 | 22.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 76 | 50.7% | 131 | 87.3% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 8 | 5.3% | 0 | 0.0% | 9 | 6.0% | 19 | 12.7% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | No | 9 | 6.0% | 30 | 20.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 71 | 47.3% | 121 | 80.7% |
| | Yes | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 14 | 9.3% | 29 | 19.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.19 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (4.7%), 1-5 years (20.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (48.7%) indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire. Respondents in the following

group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (2.0%), 1-5 years (6.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (8.0%) indicated that their community was provided with training regarding any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire.

Table 4.19 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (20.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the planning stage of projects. While respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (6.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was provided with training during the planning stage of projects.

The results in Table 4.19 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (6.0%), 1-5 years (18.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not provided with training during the implementation of projects. The respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (0.7%), 1-5 years (8.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was provided with training during the implementation of projects.

As indicated in Table 4.19 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (22.0%), 6-10 years (9.3%) and 11 years and more (50.7%) indicated that their community was not provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (5.3%), 6-10 years (0.0%) and 11 years and more (6.0%) indicated that their community was provided with training for the maintenance of projects after completion.

Table 4.19 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (6.0%), 1-5 years (20.0%), 6-10 years (7.3%) and 11 years and more (47.3%) indicated that disable people within their community were not provided with

training. While respondents in the following groups of years in the school less than a 1 year (0.7%), 1-5 years (7.3%), 6-10 years (2.0%) and 11 years and more (9.3%) indicated that disabled people within their community were provided with training.

With equal distribution of resources the results reveal a negative feedback which indicated that organizations CSR initiatives do not make a significant contribution towards equal distribution of resources in the target communities. The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents who have been in the school for the following years, less than one year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11 years and more that have indicated that their community was not provided with training regarding the dimensions of equal distribution of resources, which are, any other projects not mentioned in section B of the questionnaire (82.7%), the planning stages of projects (84.0%), the implementation of projects (82.7%), the maintenance of projects after completion (87.3%) and people with disabilities in the community (80.7%).

As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and what is needed by communities, it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding equal distribution of resources are not sustainable.

c. Years in the school and environmental degradation

The results of years in the school and the environmental degradation questions are shown in Table 4.20 overleaf.

Table 4.20: Cross tabulation of questions 17 to 21 with years in the school

| | | A6 Years in School | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|--------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Less than 1 year | | 1-5 | | 6-10 | | 11 or more | | Total | |
| | | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 24 | 16.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 67 | 44.7% | 109 | 72.7% |
| | Yes | 5 | 3.3% | 17 | 11.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 18 | 12.0% | 41 | 27.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | No | 8 | 5.3% | 30 | 20.0% | 13 | 8.7% | 74 | 49.3% | 125 | 83.3% |
| | Yes | 2 | 1.3% | 11 | 7.3% | 1 | 0.7% | 11 | 7.3% | 25 | 16.7% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D19 The development of new products. | No | 5 | 3.3% | 31 | 20.7% | 13 | 8.7% | 73 | 48.7% | 122 | 81.3% |
| | Yes | 5 | 3.3% | 10 | 6.7% | 1 | 0.7% | 12 | 8.0% | 28 | 18.7% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | No | 6 | 4.0% | 27 | 18.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 74 | 49.3% | 118 | 78.7% |
| | Yes | 4 | 2.7% | 14 | 9.3% | 3 | 2.0% | 11 | 7.3% | 32 | 21.3% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | No | 4 | 2.7% | 20 | 13.3% | 9 | 6.0% | 66 | 44.0% | 99 | 66.0% |
| | Yes | 6 | 4.0% | 21 | 14.0% | 5 | 3.3% | 19 | 12.7% | 51 | 34.0% |
| | Total | 10 | 6.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 14 | 9.3% | 85 | 56.7% | 150 | 100.0% |

As indicated in Table 4.20 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (16.0%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (44.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (11.3%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (12.0%) indicated that their community was informed of the products that are manufactured by organizations.

Table 4.20 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (5.3%), 1-5 years (20.0%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the safety of their health from organizational products. While respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (1.3%), 1-5 years (7.3%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the safety of their health from organizational products.

The results from Table 4.20 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (20.7%), 6-10 years (8.7%) and 11 years and more (48.7%) indicated that their community was not informed of the development of new products. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (3.3%), 1-5 years (6.7%), 6-10 years (0.7%) and 11 years and more (8.0%) indicated that their community was informed of the development of new products.

As indicated in Table 4.20 the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (4.0%), 1-5 years (18.0%), 6-10 years (7.3%) and 11 years and more (49.3%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment from organizations production methods. The respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (2.7%), 1-5 years (9.3%), 6-10 years (2.0%) and 11 years and more (7.3%) indicated that their community was informed of the protections of the environment from organizations production methods.

Table 4.20 shows that the majority of the respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (2.7%), 1-5 years (13.3%), 6-10 years (6.0%) and 11 years and more (44.0%) indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment by organizations. Respondents in the following group of years in the school, less than a 1 year (4.0%), 1-5 years (14.0%), 6-10 years (3.3%) and 11 years and more (12.7%) indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations.

The results are confirmed by the majority of the respondents who have been in the school for the following years, indicated that their community was not informed of curbing environmental degradation by organizations, which include, the products that organizations manufacture (72.7%), the safety of their health from organizations products (83.3%), the development of new products (81.3%), the protection of the environment from organizations production method (78.7%) and the protection of the environment (66.0%).

Many organizations' are not being true to their environmental CSR initiatives and are thus guilty of environment degradation for example, improper storage of crushed fluorescent tubes and spillages of hazardous material in unlined areas (www.environment.org.za). As a result of a misalignment of organizations CSR initiative and curbing environmental degradation it can be said that organizations CSR initiatives regarding environmental degradation is not sustainable.

4.4 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics using the one sample chi-square test was used to ascertain whether there was a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the questions dealing with the respective dimensions. The following hypotheses were formulated to test this:

4.4.1 Hypothesis 1

There is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the basic needs questions. The results are shown in Table 4.21 below.

Table 4.21: One Sample Chi-square test - Basic needs questions

| | No | | Yes | | Total | | One-sample chi-square | df | p |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-----------------------|----|-------|
| | Count | % | Count | % | Count | % | | | |
| B7 Financial Support | 109 | 72.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 30.827 | 1 | .000* |
| B8 Housing | 136 | 90.7% | 14 | 9.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 99.227 | 1 | .000* |
| B9 Educational projects | 97 | 64.7% | 53 | 35.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 12.907 | 1 | .000* |
| B10 Access to clean water | 130 | 86.7% | 20 | 13.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 80.667 | 1 | .000* |
| B11 Employment | 121 | 80.7% | 29 | 19.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 56.427 | 1 | .000* |

The results show there is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the basic needs questions.

For financial support (Chi-square = 30.827; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 72.7% of the respondents stated that their community did not receive financial support while 27.3% indicated that their community did receive financial support.

For housing (Chi-square = 99.227; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 90.7% of the respondents stated that their community did not receive assistance with housing while 9.3% stated that their community did receive assistance with housing.

For educational projects (Chi-square = 12.907; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 64.7% of the respondents stated that their community did not receive assistance with educational projects while 35.3% stated that their community did receive assistance with educational projects.

For access to clean water (Chi-square = 80.667; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 86.7% of the respondents indicated that their community did not receive assistance with access to clean water while 13.3% indicated that their community did receive assistance with access to clean water.

For employment (Chi-square = 56.427; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 80.7% of the respondents stated that their community did not receive assistance with employment while 19.3 stated that their community did receive assistance with employment.

From the results it can be said that organization CSR initiatives on basic needs such as financial support, housing, educational projects, access to clean water and employment are not sustainable as the majority of the respondents in every dimension of basic needs indicated that their community did not receive assistance with basic needs to the extent in which it will promote sustainable development.

4.4.2 Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the equal distribution of resources questions. The results are shown in Table 4.22 below.

Table 4.22: One Sample Chi-square test - Equal distribution of resources questions

| | No | | Yes | | Total | | One-sample chi-square | df | p |
|---|-------|------------|-------|------------|-------|------------|-----------------------|----|-------|
| | Count | Percentage | Count | Percentage | Count | Percentage | | | |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | 124 | 82.7% | 26 | 17.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 64.027 | 1 | .000* |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | 126 | 84.0% | 24 | 16.0% | 150 | 100.0% | 69.360 | 1 | .000* |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | 124 | 82.7% | 26 | 17.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 64.027 | 1 | .000* |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | 131 | 87.3% | 19 | 12.7% | 150 | 100.0% | 83.627 | 1 | .000* |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | 121 | 80.7% | 29 | 19.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 56.427 | 1 | .000* |

The results show there is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the equal distribution of resources questions.

For any other projects not mentioned above (Chi-square = 64.027; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 82.7% of the respondents indicated that their community did not receive training while 17.3% indicated that their community did receive training for any other projects not mentioned above in section B of the questionnaire.

For the planning stages of projects (Chi-square = 69.360; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 84.0% of the respondents stated that their community did not receive training during the planning stages of projects while 16.0% stated that their community did receive training during the planning stages of projects.

For the implementation of projects (Chi-square = 64.027; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 82.7% of the respondents indicated that their community did not receive training during the implementation of projects while 17.3% indicated that their community did.

For the maintenance of projects after completion (Chi-square = 83.627; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 87.3% of the respondents stated that their community did not receive training for the maintenance of projects after completion while 12.7% stated that their community did receive training.

For people with disabilities in the community (Chi-square = 56.427; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 80.7% of the respondents indicated that disabled people within their community did not receive training while 19.3% indicated that disabled people did receive training.

From the results it is obvious that organizations CSR initiatives do not contribute to equal distribution of resource such as training with any other projects not mentioned above, the planning stages of projects, the implementation of projects, the maintenance of projects after completion and people with disabilities in a sustainable manner as the majority of the respondents in every dimension of equal distribution of resources indicated that their community was not provided with training.

4.4.3 Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the environmental degradation questions. The results are shown in Table 4.23 overleaf.

Table 4.23: One Sample Chi-square test – Environmental degradation questions

| | No | | Yes | | Total | | One-sample chi-square | df | p |
|--|-----|-------|-----|-------|-------|--------|-----------------------|----|-------|
| D17 The products they manufacture. | 109 | 72.7% | 41 | 27.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 30.827 | 1 | .000* |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | 125 | 83.3% | 25 | 16.7% | 150 | 100.0% | 66.667 | 1 | .000* |
| D19 The development of new products. | 122 | 81.3% | 28 | 18.7% | 150 | 100.0% | 58.907 | 1 | .000* |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | 118 | 78.7% | 32 | 21.3% | 150 | 100.0% | 49.307 | 1 | .000* |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | 99 | 66.0% | 51 | 34.0% | 150 | 100.0% | 15.360 | 1 | .000* |

The results show there is a significant difference in the proportion of Yes and No responses relating to the equal distribution of resources questions.

For the products they manufacture (Chi-square = 30.827; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 72.7% of the respondents indicated that their community was not informed of the products manufactured by organizations while 27.3% indicated that their community was informed of the products manufactured by organizations.

For the safety of your health from their products (Chi-square = 66.667; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 83.3% of the respondents stated that their community was not informed of the safety of their health from organizational products while 16.7% stated that their community was informed.

For the development of new products (Chi-square = 58.907; df = 1; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 81.3% of the respondents indicated that their community was not informed of the development of new products while 18.7% indicated that their community was not informed.

For the protection of the environment from their production methods (Chi-square = 49.307; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 78.7% of the respondents indicated that their community was not informed of the protection of the environment from organizations products methods while 21.3% indicated that their community was informed.

For the protection of the environment (Chi-square = 15.360; $df = 1$; $p < 0.01$), the results show that 66.0% of the respondents stated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations while 34.0% indicated that their community was informed of the protection of the environment by organizations.

The results clearly show that organizations CSR initiatives do not contribute to curbing environmental degradation in the following ways: by informing communities of the products they manufacture, safety of your health from their products, the development of new products, the protection of the environment from their production methods and the protection of the environment as respondents in every dimension indicated that their community was not informed by organizations regarding the curbing of environmental degradation.

4.5 Summary of chapter

The above has been a presentation and analysis of the data collected. It is clear from the results that there is a statistically significant difference between what organizations say they are doing through their CSR initiatives and the perception of the community members who are the beneficiaries of these CSR initiatives. Also evident in the findings is the lack of balance between the CSR initiatives that organizations do participate in. The following chapter concludes this study and recommendations to corporations are made were applicable.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the study by explaining how the objectives of the study were achieved. The results from the fieldwork are contextualized to answer the main research question that guided this study. The recommendations that are put forth at the end link the results with the theoretical framework that conceptualized the study.

5.2 Research question

The main research question that this study intended to answer was: How do organizations' corporate social responsibility initiatives contribute to sustainable development in the communities they target?

5.3 Research objectives

To answer the above question, the following objectives were identified:

- To establish how corporate social responsibility assists in the attainment of basic needs for society,
- To ascertain if corporate social responsibility contributes to the equal distribution of resources for sustainable development in societies, and
- To ascertain if corporate social responsibility contributes to curbing environmental degradation.

5.4 Addressing the research objectives

The three research objectives that were set for this research study are addressed below.

5.4.1 Research objective one

Objective one for this research study focused on basic needs. The basic needs that were concentrated on were financial support, housing, educational projects, access to clean water

and employment. The aim here was to establish if corporations' CSR initiatives contributed in some way to the basic needs of their surrounding communities.

The two basic needs that were better confirmed were educational projects and financial support. 35.3% of the respondents agreed that communities received support from organizations' with regards to educational projects. Second was financial support, to which 27.3% of the respondents eluded in terms of company support. The basic need that companies did not seem to support was housing, were only 9.3% of the respondents confirmed that support was given. From the aforementioned findings it is evident that companies are not adequately meeting the basic needs of the communities they are located in.

It is therefore important for organizations to find ways in which their support of basic needs is in line with the needs of the community within, which it is located, as basic needs are fundamental to the survival of any given community. If a community suffers, so does an organization, as organizations will not be able to operate efficiently and turn in a profit to its shareholders. This is in line with Gotlieb (1996) who asserts that there is a pressing need to consider those that are worse off in our communities, at the local level in developed and developing countries. This pressing need must translate into provision of housing, health services, food and sustenance and affordable and appropriate education.

Sen (1999) points out that there should be guarantees of individual and community safety, which requires the opportunity to genuinely participate in civil and social life. Pringle (2009: 68) states that "provision of basic human needs creates a foundation upon which all people have the opportunity to live fulfilling, safe and healthy lives. As such, it is suggested that fulfillment of basic human needs must be seen not only as a fundamental of social sustainability, but as a prerequisite for sustainable development itself".

5.4.2 Research objective two

The focus of objective two centred on equal distribution of resources. The resources that were referred to were adequate training in the provision of basic needs, community involvement, implementation and maintenance of CSR initiatives. The study approached this

objective by asking questions which elicited the teachers' views on the provision of training regarding any projects other than the basic needs in the communities they come from. The aim was to find out if they were involved in the planning stages of projects, the implementation of projects, and the maintenance of projects after completion. Another point of interest was to establish if such opportunities were afforded to people with disabilities.

Thus, the purpose of this objective was to ascertain if organizations follow through and maintain the CSR initiatives in which they have participated. The findings indicate that organizations play a very small role in ensuring equal distribution of resources, as the majority of the respondents said there was no training provided for any other projects. People with disabilities were not involved at any of the stages of the projects.

The findings of this study are not in line with the social justice principle which suggests that people should be afforded opportunities to participate in the community and be consulted on decisions that affect their lives. People increasingly expect to be involved and have a voice in decisions that impact on their lives. Accordingly, more and more governments are responding with a renewed commitment to effectively engage citizens and communities so as to better deliver outcomes. Organizations are expected to follow suit. Engaged governance provides a methodological foundation for social sustainability (Cuthill, 2010).

5.4.3 Research objective three

The last objective focused on environmental degradation. The purpose of this objective was to ascertain if organizations follow through with their CSR initiatives that seek to prevent environmental degradation.

The research findings indicate that even though organizations support and contribute towards the protection of the environment, they do so, on a very small scale. From the responses obtained it seemed the communities were not aware of the projects that were aimed at curbing environmental degradation.

The preservation of the environment has taken a centre stage globally. DuBrin (2009: 5), for example, states that “many companies take the initiative to preserve the natural environment in a way that pleases environmental groups such as Greenpeace”. As a result, companies form a partnership with a group that is intent on such purposes as reducing the amount of carbon dioxide in the air, preserving forests and protecting a species of fish or animals. At present, environmental protection is viewed as a major social responsibility initiative in which business enterprises, large or small, invest money to preserve the environment.

True environmental responsibility encourages the responsible use of resources. However, this does not only involve ensuring that business is turning a profit, but that business operations are not creating environmental concerns that could potentially harm the balance of the local ecology. Business also has the ability to choose raw materials that are more environmentally friendly by being mindful of the impact that their operations have on the local community and by designing and implementing effective waste disposal strategies that do not damage local environments. In the long run, attention to these types of details has the potential to increase community investments in the continued operations of business and improve the chances of remaining a viable operation for a longer period of time (www.wisegeek.com).

5.5 Recommendations

Scholarly work done on CSR and sustainability shows that there is still a lot to be done for and with communities. This has also been confirmed by the findings of this study. Thus, the following recommendations can be made:

With regards to the basic needs such as financial support, housing, educational projects, access to clean water and employment, it is evident from the findings that the corporate world does in fact make some contributions. However, it has been confirmed by the respondents that they do so on a very small scale. This indicates that the corporate world needs to re-evaluate the contributions it has been making towards meeting basic needs of communities where they are located. There seems to be a consensus that there is more focus on educational projects and financial support.

However, a combination of basic needs is imperative and, is the foundation for a healthy community.

Currently, the dialogue on social capital can be viewed from the latest incarnation of varied and lengthy discussions relating to the well-being and health of communities. It is argued by the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (2000) that high levels of social capital in communities provide democratic, social and economic outcomes, which contribute to community well-being. Therefore, it is recommended that the corporate world must strengthen its forces in the contribution towards basic needs as it will not be sustainable for an organization to operate in a community that is degraded or degrading.

CSR initiatives by big business should follow a balanced approach. For example, business should not only focus on environmental degradation, as other aspects within society will suffer from a lack of attention and support. This recommendation has been put forward with the intention of preventing business from making the mistake of neglecting other needs that society has, such as housing, sustenance, sanitation, electricity, access to clean water and employment. These are all crucial needs for society to survive. This is evident from the literature where authors such as Harris (2000) define social sustainability as a system that must achieve distributional equity and adequate provision of social services, including health and education, gender equity, political accountability and participation. DuBrin (2009) describes social sustainability as enabling and maintaining the quality of life for people by protecting the mental and physical health of all stakeholders, encouraging community involvement, treating all stakeholders fairly and providing essential services. It is also critical that essential services are effectively delivered to anyone who may need them.

Business also needs to consider training and employing disabled people, as they are a part of the community and can contribute to the labour work force. Training and employment of disabled community members can be achieved through CSR projects or initiatives that specifically target this group. Therefore it would be beneficial for this segment of society to be involved in community projects as KwaZulu-Natal has a national average of 5.0% of disabled people (www.statssa.gov.za).

Communities are not the only contributors to environmental degradation. The corporate world is equally and more guilty of environmental degradation. However, unlike communities, the corporate world wields more power in being able to curb environmental degradation, which can begin with making communities aware of environmental management such as recycling and responsible use of resources. This entails making the surrounding communities aware of the following:

- The products that a specific organization manufactures,
- The safety of community health from organizational products,
- The development of new products,
- The protection of the environment from organizational production methods, and
- The protection of the environment generally

Although the findings also suggest that the corporate world is contributing towards curbing environmental degradation, there is room for improvement. Due to the corporate world being viewed as the leading power, it can set the tone for the rest of the world in prevention and management of environmental degradation.

5.6 Proposed future research

This study on teachers' perceptions regarding the sustainability of CSR projects was conducted in the City of Durban in middle class areas, which implies that even though they are beneficiaries of CSR initiatives, they are not entirely dependent on such projects.

Therefore, it is proposed that future research be conducted in communities that require the CSR contributions of organizations for their daily and long-term survival. These would be communities that are or were previously disadvantaged especially in rural areas and lower class areas.

5.7 Conclusion

The findings from the survey clearly indicate that even though there are corporate social responsibility projects taking place, the communities did not view them as sustainable. The

majority of the respondents were not optimistic about the sustainability of the projects they benefited from. The overwhelming impression based on the results is that current CSR initiatives are not designed for sustainable development but tends to be short lived CSR initiatives. This also indicates that corporation CSR initiatives are not successfully aligned with basic needs, equal distribution of resources and environmental degradation. By corporations integrating basic needs, equal distribution and environmental degradation into their CSR initiatives, perhaps in time communities and eventually countries will be able to overcome the shortage of valuable resources and build communities that are self-sustaining. This link between business and society can become enormously successful if communities and businesses communicate with one another and bring each other on board with what they require from each other, as healthier communities can result in increased economic growth.

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UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT AND GOVERNANCE

RESEARCH PROJECT

Researcher: Miss S. Boodhoo (0722322556)

Supervisor: Dr. N. Potwana (031 2608148)

Dear Respondent

I, Suvera Boodhoo, am a Master of Commerce student in the School of Management, IT and Governance at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I invite you to participate in a research project that I am conducting titled '*Teachers' perceptions regarding sustainability of corporate social responsibility projects*'.

Through your participation I hope to understand the extent to which corporate social responsibility impacts on socially sustainable systems. The results of this survey are intended to contribute to a better understanding of the link between corporate social responsibility and sustainable development.

Please be advised that your participation in this project is purely voluntary and will be greatly appreciated. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequences. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this research project. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained. Should you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above. It should take you about ten minutes to complete the questionnaire. I hope you will take the time to complete the questionnaire.

Sincerely

Signature: Researcher

Date



UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT AND GOVERNANCE
RESEARCH PROJECT

Researcher : Miss S. Boodhoo (0722322556)

Supervisor : Dr. N. Potwana (031 2608148)

CONSENT

I _____ (optional) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

Signature: Participant

Date



RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Kindly complete the following questions by marking with a cross (X) in the appropriate box

Section A: Biographical data

1. Gender

| | |
|-----------|--|
| 1. Male | |
| 2. Female | |

2. Age

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| 1. 20-29 | |
| 2. 30-39 | |
| 3. 40-49 | |
| 4. 50 years and over | |

3. Educational Qualifications

| | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. Grade 10-12 | |
| 2. Diploma certificate | |
| 3. Undergraduate degree | |
| 4. Post graduate degree/s | |

4. Race

| | |
|-------------|--|
| 1. Black | |
| 2. Coloured | |
| 3. Indian | |
| 4. White | |

5. Number of years in current position

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| 1. Less than 1 year | |
| 2. 1 - 5 | |
| 3. 6 - 10 | |
| 4. 11 and more | |

6. Number of years in the School

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| 1. Less than 1 year | |
| 2. 1 - 5 | |
| 3. 6 - 10 | |
| 4. 11 and more | |

Section B: Basic Needs

| Do you know of any organization that has assisted your community with the following? | Yes | No |
|---|------------|-----------|
| 7. Financial support | | |
| 8. Housing | | |
| 9. Educational projects | | |
| 10. Access to clean water | | |
| 11. Employment | | |

Section C: Equal Distribution of Resources

| Do you know of any organization that has provided your community with training in the following? | Yes | No |
|---|------------|-----------|
| 12. Any other projects not mentioned above. | | |
| 13. The planning stages of projects. | | |
| 14. The implementation of projects. | | |
| 15. The maintenance of projects after completion. | | |
| 16. People with disabilities in the community. | | |

Section D: Environmental Degradation

| Do you know of any organization that has informed your community of the following? | Yes | No |
|---|------------|-----------|
| 17. The products they manufacture. | | |
| 18. The safety of your health from their products. | | |
| 19. The development of new products. | | |
| 20. The protection of the environment from their production methods. | | |
| 21. The protection of the environment. | | |



kzn education

Department:
Education
KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar

Tel: 033 341 8610

Ref.:2/4/8/280

Miss Suvera Boodhoo
3 Wonder Park
85 Hyacinth Road
RED HILL
4051


APPENDIX 2

Dear Miss Boodhoo

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **The Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on Socially Sustainable Systems**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 August 2012 to 31 December 2013.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.
10. Please note that your research and interviews will be limited to the schools and institutions in the Umhlabi, Hlabisa and Pinetown Districts.


Nkosinathi S.P. Sishi, PhD
Head of Department: Education

24-08-2012
Date

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty.

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL : Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa

PHYSICAL: Office G 25, 188 Pietermaritz Street, Metropolitan Building, Pietermaritzburg 3201

TEL: Tel: +27 33 341 8610 | Fax: +27 33 3341 8612 | E-mail: sibusiso.alwar@kzndoe.gov.za |
Web: www.kzndoe.gov.za



04 June 2013

APPENDIX 3

Ms S Boodhoo (205809645)
School of Management, IT & Governance
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/1333/012M

New project title: Teachers' perceptions regarding sustainability of corporate social responsibility projects

Dear Ms Boodhoo

I wish to confirm that ethical clearance has been granted full approval for the above mentioned project. Approval of a change of title

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully

.....
Professor U Bob (Chair) and Dr S Singh (Deputy Chair)

/ms

cc Supervisor Dr N Potwana
cc Academic leader Professor K Govender
cc School Admin. Ms Angela Pearce

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Professor Urmilla Bob (Chair) and Dr Shenika Singh (Deputy Chair)
Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban, 4000, South Africa

Telephone: +27 (0)31 260 3587/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0)31 260 4609 Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za / snymanm@ukzn.ac.za / mohunp@ukzn.ac.za
Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

INSPIRING GREATNESS





S.Budhoo

APPENDIX 4

avoca secondary <avoca.sec@telkomsa.net>
To: Suvera Boodhoo <sueboodhoo@gmail.com>

31 May 2012 07:33

AVOCA SECONDARY

80 Bhamo Avenue, Avoca , 4051 Tel/Fax : (031) 564 1183 E-mail address : avoca.sec@telkomsa.net

Providing life skills, competencies and knowledge through the delivery of quality education leading to the holistic development of disciplined, useful and successful adults.

Fax to email : 0866697149



31 May 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Please be informed that Suvera Boodhoo has been granted permission to conduct research at this school.

K. Dajrang

K. Bajrang

Principal



Image002.jpg
66K



CHELSEA PREPARATORY SCHOOL

Chelsea Campus:

30 Chelsea Drive
Durban North 4051
Tel: +27 (0)31 581 7660
Fax: +27 (0)31 581 9454

**Northway Campus:**

139 Northway
Durban North 4051
Tel: +27 (0)31 581 7380
Fax: +27 (0)31 581 3870

Ref: Administration 2012
25 April 2012

APPENDIX 5

Miss S Boodhoo
Email: sueboodhoo@gmail.com

Dear Miss Boodhoo

RESEARCH: MASTER OF COMMERCE

Our meeting today refers.

I confirm that you will be granted access to our staff so that you can present your research project.

As discussed, please give us a week's notice prior to you wishing to speak to our staff so that the necessary arrangements can be made.

Please accept our best wishes that your studies will, in time, enable you to attain your Masters Degree.

Yours sincerely

C. L. NEL
PRINCIPAL

EFFINGHAM HEIGHTS PRIMARY SCHOOL

P.O. Box 401050
Redhill
4071
Tel: (031) 564 6412 / 564 6423
Fax: (031) 564 6418



1 Manjee Place
Effingham Heights
Durban
4051
email: ehps@telkomsa.net

APPENDIX 6

VISION

It is the vision of Effingham Heights Primary School to develop our learners holistically so that they become responsible members of society


15 June 2012

THE UNIVERSITY OF KWA ZULU NATAL
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT AND GOVERNANCE

PERMISSION LETTER

Please be advised that permission has been granted for Ms Suvera Boodhoo to do a survey with my educators at Effingham Heights Primary School.

Thank you



MS. SINGH
DEPUTY PRINCIPAL





EFFINGHAM SECONDARY SCHOOL

APPENDIX 7

PO Box 40205, Red Hill 4071
Telephone: (031) 564-0569 Fax: (031) 5645831
eMail : essdevshi@telkomsa.net

9 May 2012

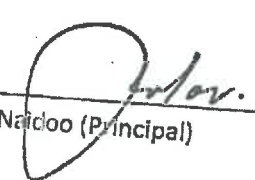
The University of KwaZulu Natal
School of Management IT and Governance

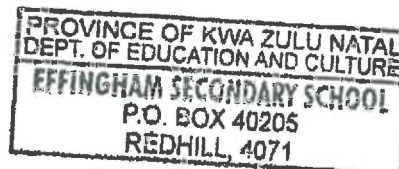
Sir /Madam

RE : Miss S. Boodhoo Student No: 205509645

Your request to carry out research project titled "The Impact of corporate social responsibility on socially sustainable system at Effingham secondary school is hereby granted.

Kind regards


J.M Ndlovu (Principal)



P.O. Box 20079
Durban North 4016
E-mail: nwood@nwood.co.za
Website: www.nwood.co.za



Headmaster:
Mr A.P. Jordan
Telephone: (031) 563-6501/2
Fax: (031) 564-1898

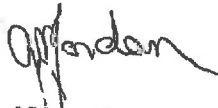
Northwood School

APPENDIX 8

18 June 2012

PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH

This serves to confirm that Ms S Budhoo has been granted permission to approach members of the Northwood staff to complete a questionnaire regarding her research project.


A.P. Jordan
Headmaster

Our Lady
of Fatima



**Dominican
Convent School**
1954 - 2012

SISTER OF THE
DOMINICAN CONGREGATION
OF ST CATHERINE OF SIENA,
NEWCASTLE, NATAL

REGISTERED CHARITY
233236(UK)

PBO 184 1/13/2807
SARS 901906/1758

155 KENNETH KAUNDA RD
(NORTHWAY)
DURBAN NORTH
KWA ZULU-NATAL, 4051

TELEPHONE
(031) 553-5390
553-5395, 553-5310

TELEFAX
(031) 553-2448

EMAIL
ofatima@ofatima.co.za

BOARD OF GOVERNORS
SR DOMINIQUE BERNON
H L CAMPBELL (CHAIRMAN)
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M.A. JONES (PRINCIPAL)
V.J. NELIS
O.J. MAUJEAN
FATHER D. MAIR
A.C. NEL
M.A. PHILLIPS
SR ANNE WALSH
(REGION PRIORSS)
D V WESSELS (ADMINISTRATOR)

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SA SCHOOLS ACT NO.84 (1995).
EMIS NUMBER: 245198

INDEPENDENT EXAMINATIONS BOARD SENIOR
CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION

MEMBER OF THE CATHOLIC INSTITUTE
OF EDUCATION (CIE)

✠ VERITAS ✠
In Pursuit of Truth

8 June 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

APPENDIX 9

This letter serves to confirm that Miss S. Boodhoo has been granted permission to conduct a Research Survey at Our Lady of Fatima Convent School.

Yours faithfully

**MRS A. JONES
PRINCIPAL**



St Michael's Primary School

123 Hyacinth Road, Redhill, 4051
Telephone : 031-5643661 Fax : 031-5630771
E-mail : stmichaelsps@telkomsa.net

APPENDIX 10

Committed to providing all round quality education in a secure and caring environment leading to a balanced development of the whole child.

15th June 2012

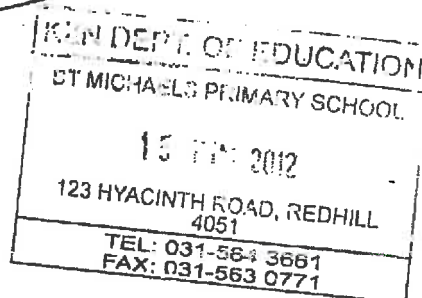
UKZN

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT AND GOVERNANCE

PERMISSION FOR RESEARCH

Kindly note that permission has been granted to Suvera Boodhoo to conduct research amongst educators at this school.

H P HARICHARAN
PRINCIPAL





UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

APPENDIX 11

LETTER OF CONFIRMATION-EDITING

November, 2012

Suvera Boodhoo

This is to confirm that the dissertation of Suvera Boodhoo has been edited by me. This process is aimed at eliminating grammatical errors and errors of expression only. In no way was the content or general layout of the dissertation addressed.

Given the severe time constraints under which the work was edited, I am satisfied that the editing has been thoroughly done.

B Soane (Dr)

APPENDIX 12

| | | A1 Gender | A2 Age | A3 Educational Qualifications | A4 Race | A5 Years in current position | A6 Years in School |
|--|------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| B7 Financial Support | Chi-square | 2.960 | 1.922 | 2.093 | 11.145 | 4.345 | 1.729 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .085 | .589 | .553 | .011 ^{a,b} | .227 ^a | .631 |
| B8 Housing | Chi-square | 1.562 | 3.368 | 4.376 | 8.095 | 5.445 | 3.754 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .211 ^a | .338 ^a | .224 ^{a,b} | .044 ^{a,b} | .142 ^{a,b} | .289 ^a |
| B9 Educational projects | Chi-square | .466 | 5.635 | 5.889 | 5.615 | 2.657 | 2.130 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .495 | .131 | .117 ^a | .132 ^{a,b} | .448 ^a | .546 |
| B10 Access to clean water | Chi-square | .020 | 4.646 | 6.629 | 12.084 | 7.415 | 2.947 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .887 | .200 ^a | .085 ^{a,b} | .007 ^{a,b} | .060 ^a | .400 ^a |
| B11 Employment | Chi-square | .361 | 4.134 | 4.472 | 7.377 | 2.969 | 2.065 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .548 | .247 | .215 | .061 ^{a,b} | .396 ^a | .559 ^a |
| C12 Any other projects not mentioned above. | Chi-square | .047 | 5.249 | 4.196 | 12.059 | 4.173 | 7.317 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .829 | .154 | .241 | .007 ^{a,b} | .243 ^a | .062 ^a |
| C13 The planning stages of projects. | Chi-square | .003 | 7.526 | .955 | 9.632 | 3.675 | 2.961 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .953 | .057 ^a | .812 ^a | .022 ^{a,b} | .299 ^a | .398 ^a |
| C14 The implementation of projects. | Chi-square | 2.713 | 3.672 | 1.572 | 9.367 | 8.446 | 3.160 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .100 | .299 | .666 | .025 ^{a,b} | .038 ^{a,*} | .368 ^a |
| C15 The maintenance of projects after completion. | Chi-square | 1.764 | 2.883 | 2.500 | 4.513 | 4.585 | 2.872 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .184 | .410 ^a | .475 ^{a,b} | .211 ^{a,b} | .205 ^a | .412 ^a |
| C16 People with disabilities in the community. | Chi-square | 1.119 | 5.275 | 8.823 | 8.934 | 2.522 | 3.134 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .290 | .153 | .032 [*] | .030 ^{a,b} | .471 ^a | .371 ^a |
| D17 The products they manufacture. | Chi-square | 1.244 | 3.398 | 3.523 | 29.365 | 11.204 | 14.260 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .265 | .334 | .318 | .000 ^{a,b} | .011 ^{a,*} | .003 [*] |
| D18 The safety of your health from their products. | Chi-square | .007 | 2.954 | 5.994 | 4.911 | 4.892 | 8.623 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .936 | .399 ^a | .112 ^a | .178 ^{a,b} | .180 ^a | .035 ^{a,*} |
| D19 The development of new | Chi-square | .882 | 6.308 | 9.150 | 14.785 | 9.734 | 9.220 |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|------------|-------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| products. | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .348 | .098 | .027 [*] | .002 ^{*a,b} | .021 ^{a,*} | .027 ^{a,*} |
| D20 The protection of the environment from their production methods. | Chi-square | 1.956 | 11.191 | 6.089 | 20.391 | 9.654 | 7.184 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .162 | .011 [*] | .107 | .000 ^{*a,b} | .022 ^{a,*} | .066 ^a |
| D21 The protection of the environment. | Chi-square | 3.101 | 11.345 | 2.936 | 24.820 | 13.587 | 9.301 |
| | df | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| | Sig. | .078 | .010 [*] | .402 ^a | .000 ^{*a,b} | .004 ^{a,*} | .026 [*] |

Results are based on nonempty rows and columns in each innermost sub-table.

The Chi-square statistic is significant at the .05 level.

a. More than 20% of cells in this sub-table have expected cell counts less than 5. Chi-square results may be invalid.

b. The minimum expected cell count in this sub-table is less than one. Chi-square results may be invalid.