Using Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) to Build Brands:

A Case Study of Vodafone Ghana Ltd

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Declaration

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"I, George K. Amoako, declare that the PhD thesis entitled *Using Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) to Build Brands: A Case Study of Vodafone Ghana Ltd* contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work".

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I could not have completed this journey without the love and friendship of my family and friends.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved wife, Cynthia Amoako, and my three children, Nkosuo, Yaw and Nhyira, for their love, patience and encouragement during this long journey and to my beloved brother, Rev. Addai Dapaah, my mother and my siblings, who were there to support me in my education.

Abstract

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has received much attention over several decades. This research aimed at investigating the impact of CSR on organisational brand value. This thesis conceptualises CSR using the stakeholder theory approach as a brand building tool to increase organisational brand value emphasising the strategic importance of CSR and its potential to create mutually beneficial outcomes for organisations and their stakeholders. This thesis proposes that firms can gain increased organisational brand value and enjoy superior performance by incorporating CSR as an integral component of their corporate brand building strategy. A new and empirically tested CSR-brand strength-organisational brand value conceptual framework was developed in this thesis. The data was analysed to identify the significant relationships amongst these three main variables using the structural equation model (SEM) PLS.The first round of data collected were qualitative and was subjected to content analysis. It comprised of responses from the general public, customers, academic and industry practitioners. The results pointed out that most respondents understood what CSR is about and were aware of Vodafone's CSR activities in Ghana. They also indicated that culture has an effect on organisational CSR practice and CSR practice is more proactive in the Western world. The purpose of the second round of data analysis was twofold: to perform confirmatory factor analysis for each of the 65 variable in the model; and to use the structural equation model to examine the hypothesised relationships between CSR, brand strength and organisational brand value.

By using the discriminant validity correlation matrix table, a positive relationship between all the variables of brand strength and organisational brand value was established. However, no evidence was found to support the mediating effect of brand awareness, on organisational brand value when SEM was used. Importantly, of the seven variables of brand strength only brand awareness did not significantly contribute to organisational brand value. Moreover, brand knowledge was found to make the greatest contribution to organisational brand value. In summary, this thesis argues that the results support the proposition that CSR has a direct and positive impact on organisational brand value, therefore management of firms in the telecommunications industry in Ghana can use CSR to increase organisational brand value if they incorporate CSR activities appropriately into their brand building efforts. This thesis concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the study and provides recommendations for future research.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chapter Overview

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been of interest to academics and CSR practitioners for well over 60 years, but its definition remains somewhat ambiguous because of the varied approaches to research in the field splintering into different perspectives. The chapter begins with a discussion of the background and research gaps in the field of CSR. This thesis takes an integrative approach by relating CSR to the concepts of corporate branding and organisational identity. The central focus of the research relates to understanding how companies can use CSR activities in brand building efforts that lead to enhanced organisational brand value. The thesis seeks to demonstrate the contribution of CSR to corporate brand understanding, and the key relationships in the development of corporate branding strategies in Ghana. In addition, the study seeks to provide a set of findings relating to CSR initiatives that could be readily incorporated into an organisation's strategic brand plan in Ghana with particular reference to the telecommunications industry.

This chapter outlines the research questions and objectives examined by this thesis, followed by an explanation of the significance of this research. In addition, this chapter discusses the research methodology in brief, as well as the analytical techniques used to examine both quantitative and qualitative data collected. The scope of this study is also explained and the chapter concludes by providing an overview of the thesis structure.

1.2 Background to the Research

The concept of CSR, first introduced by Howard R. Bowen in 1953 (Carroll, 1991), has been developed over the years, but due to its origins in different fields including economics, political science, sociology and management, there is disagreement about several aspects of CSR (McWilliams, Siegel and Wright, 2006; Weyzig, 2009). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been present in the management, marketing and accounting literature for about forty-eight (48) years (Wood, 2010). Both organisations and societies have significantly increased their focus on CSR in recent years (Adams and Frost, 2006; Gulyás, 2009; Young and Thyil, 2009). Traditionally, companies had to focus on strategies for their business operations and profit, such as differentiation, diversification, turnaround, concentration and globalisation. However, recent developments in strategic thinking support the need to add

activities that expand out from the company into society. Scholars have identified these activities as corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities (Carroll, 1979; Margolis and Walsh, 2001). CSR scholars, managers and authors have further recognised the actions of cause-related marketing, corporate social marketing, donations, society improvement, disaster relief, protection, peace initiatives and pollution reduction as companies' social responsibility activities. Among the many reasons identified to persuade companies to implement CSR are popularity (Fernando, 2007), business strategy (Dentchev, 2004) and stakeholder pressures (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001). However, the practice of CSR has been dominated by developments in Western countries such as the United States of America (USA) and the United Kingdom (UK) (Chambers et al., 2003) and it is unclear whether it prevails in developing and non-Western countries. These specific circumstances have been discussed by several scholars who have identified the gaps between developed and developing countries when CSR is implemented (Chambers et al., 2003; Matten and Moon, 2004; Chappel and Moon, 2005; Visser, 2006a; Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). Writers such as Edmondson and Carroll (1999), Burton et al. (2000) and Khan (2005) have suggested that different cultural models and traditional customs may mean that a great deal of what is currently understood about CSR may not be applicable in developing countries such as Ghana.

Finally, one significant gap in the literature is the scarcity of research addressing the philosophy and practice of CSR in developing countries (Dobers and Halme, 2009). CSR has also increasingly been used in marketing as a shield to reduce public disapproval of corporate actions and to build strong, values-based corporate brands (Alexander, 2009; Du et al., 2010; Klein, Smith and John, 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). However, there are some direct benefits (discussed in Chapter 2) of implementing CSR from the companies' point of view (Margolis and Walsh, 2001; Porter, Kramer and Mark, 2002), and firms anywhere can realize these benefits. As a result, this study aims to examine the relationship between CSR activities and company brand building efforts and show how this can influence organisational brand value in the telecommunications industry in Ghana. The study also aimed at examining how respondents' views on CSR implementation in Ghana vary from CSR in Western countries.

1.3 Limitation of Western CSR Theories

Generally, CSR practice in Africa is thought to be adopted from Western business theories although there is evidence to suggest that Western CSR theories are not totally applicable in

Africa. This is due to differences in drivers or causes of CSR in the West and in Africa, as well as cultural and managerial traits in Africa (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). The question worth examining is then: are CSR practices developed for the West (as defined by Europe and America) suited for CSR implementation in other parts of the world, particularly in a sub-Saharan African economy like Ghana? CSR is a localized and socially embedded concept and, as such, the prevailing ideas, perceptions, issues addressed and modes of practicing CSR are reflections of organisations' responses to their socio-economic environment (Amaeshi et al., 2006).

Visser's (2005) recommendation for an ideal Africanized version of Carroll's pyramid is a clear example of how Carroll's African pyramid was employed to illustrate how CSR actually manifests itself in developing countries, rather than presenting an ideal view of what CSR in Africa should look like. For example, it is not proposed that legal and ethical responsibilities should be given such a low priority, but rather that they do in practice.

CSR in the West is characterized by ethical concerns and activities closely governed by legislation. Many stakeholders (such as employees, consumers and community leaders) play critical roles in business and in guiding the direction of the concept. In Africa, CSR activities consist mostly of those activities that add to infrastructure or the economic development of the community through job creation, taxation and so on.

Topical issues for CSR in Africa include health (HIV/Aids and malaria), sanitation, sports and education. Western CSR theory application in Africa is not only limited by Africa's CSR drivers, but also by its cultural and managerial traits. Traditional African approaches to community, leadership and business are at times at variance with the very principles upon which western theories are built. Africans are community-conscious, have a high respect for power distance relationships, and believe in harmonious win-win relationships (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011).

The importance of CSR in developing countries has been discussed by several authors. One study of Asian companies (Belal, 2001) argued that developing countries are concerned about foreign investment bringing potential dangers, with industrial development showing adverse environmental impact and social ills. Rais and Goedegebuure (2009) and Chappel and Moon (2005) in their research in developing countries have highlighted the fact that globalization encourages CSR in developing countries and their national business systems structure in

particular, as well as the political, financial, educational and cultural backgrounds of CSR in multinational companies. Furthermore, developing countries have societal and environmental problems such as human rights, environmental pollution and labour issues. However, people in developing countries believe that multinational companies (MNCs) can solve these problems by engaging in CSR initiatives under the umbrella of sustainable development and co-operation with civil society (Ite, 2004). Business organisations are always thinking to increase their financial performance. If they engage in socially responsible activities, they can solve the societal and environmental problems (Henderson, 2001). Because the above stated problems are mostly common to developing countries, researchers have suggested overcoming these issues by implementing CSR practices. The issues outlined above are directly relevant to Ghana, a developing country in the third world. This study identifies existing CSR practices and their benefits, through investigating how CSR activities can help in brand building efforts and improves on organisational brand value in the telecommunications industry in Ghana.

In recent times, there has been a clarion call on organisations to undertake social programmes as government alone cannot handle societal problems. CSR activities in Ghana are spearheaded by large scale multi-national companies that have been given wide media coverage. Many organisations are consequently investing in CSR activities as one of the main strategic tools to achieve organisational objectives of profit and market share. The researcher seeks to demonstrate the contribution that CSR has made to the understanding of corporate brands, and the key relationships in the development of corporate branding challenges in Ghana. The study seeks to provide a set of findings relating to CSR initiatives that could be readily incorporated into an organisation's corporate plan in Ghana with particular reference to the telecommunications industry, and to a degree, making good business sense. Ghanaians see the CSR concept as building capacity for sustainable livelihoods, respecting cultural differences and finding business opportunities in building the skills of employees, the community and government (World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), 2000). Across Europe, the concept is focussed much more on organisations operating their core business in a socially responsible way, complemented by investment in communities for purely business purposes. A ten year review of CSR research focused on Africa and published in key CSR journals over the period 1995-2005 revealed that: the volume of published research is still extremely low; most papers focused on business ethics; and most papers were on South Africa. Hence, there is a great opportunity for expanding the

amount of research on CSR in Africa, as well as improving the diversity of its content and its geographic coverage (Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah, 2011). Given that the concept of corporate branding emphasises value propositions (Aaker, 2004), marketing scholars have attempted to incorporate concepts such as CSR into the creation of strong, meaningful and ultimately valuable corporate brands (Brønn, 2006; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Knox and Bickerton, 2003; Knox and Maklan, 2004; Polonsky and Jevons, 2006). Over the past decade, CSR reporting has been used to bolster corporate brands. It has become increasingly common for major corporations to formally report on their CSR practices – a trend often referred to as "triple bottom line reporting" (Atkinson, 2000). This reporting of CSR activities, however, does not bolster a brand nor create a competitive advantage unless stakeholders accept these practices as authentic representations of the nature of the company in question (Basu and Palazzo, 2008). Thus, it is essential to conceptualise CSR and branding efforts in terms of organisational identity.

An appreciation of the context of Ghana's mobile telecommunications industry provides a basis for understanding the strategies being adopted by the key players to edge out each other. As the competitive environment increasingly becomes fierce, the important issue the sellers face is no longer to provide excellent or even good quality products or services, but to keep loyal customers who will contribute long-term profits to organisations. Kasper (2002) asserts that service providers should be market-oriented in order to survive in today's turbulent market and should perform better than non-market service organisations. If this is so, then, as suggested by Kurtinaitiene (2005), mobile telecommunications firms in Ghana should operate according to marketing orientation principles.

1.4 Purpose of the Research

Conspicuously missing from the CSR agenda of companies is how CSR activities affects corporate branding and to what extent do the various CSR activities contribute to corporate brand building. This study therefore seeks to conduct an empirical investigation to tease out customers', employers' and employees' understanding of how CSR affects brand performance in the telecommunications sector; and to identify how consumers view and interpret CSR initiatives in relation to corporate branding efforts of organisations in Ghana. This can serve as a set of guidelines for consumer strategy development for companies in Ghana. Moreover, by applying consumer behavioural theory to CSR issues in the Ghanaian context, the contribution of this research will constitute an extension of previous theory, that

will expand the generalisations or more finely tune the theoretical propositions of consumer behaviour (Marshall and Rossman, 2011). This research will contribute to policy by bringing out the issues that will determine if CSR activities by operators in the telecommunications industry are in line with the National Communication Authority's (NCA) policies and guidelines, and will recommend strategies that could be implemented by the government to regulate CSR activities in Ghana.

1.5 Aim of the Research

The aim of this study was to develop a generalisable conceptual model to investigate CSR and its effects on brand strength, and how brand strength leads to organisational brand value in the telecommunications industry in Ghana and Africa.

1.6 Research Objectives

The objectives of this research are to:

1. Determine the relationship, if any, between CSR and brand building efforts of firms;
2. Determine the relationship, if any, between CSR activities and organisational brand value of firms;
3. Establish the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the overall stakeholder and organisational brand value of case organisation;
4. Determine which type of CSR activities customers and the public prefer in the telecommunications industry in Ghana; and
5. Find out the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries.

1.7 Research Questions

This study sought to find the necessary information to address CSR issues pertaining to organisational brand value building activities.

1. Does CSR aid in brand building?
2. What is the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value?
3. What is the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the stakeholder value of organisations?
4. Do customers and the public prefer some CSR activities to others?

5. What are the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries?

1.8 Thesis Structure Outline

Chapter one began with a discussion of the background and research gaps in the field of CSR and branding. This thesis took an integrative approach by relating CSR to the concepts of branding and organisational brand value. The central focus of the research relates to understanding how companies can use CSR activities in brand building efforts that lead to enhancing organisational brand value. In order to do this, a new scale to measure CSR and branding was developed. This chapter outlined the research questions and objectives examined by this thesis, followed by an explanation of the significance of this research. In addition, this chapter discussed the research methodology in brief, as well as the techniques of data analysis used. The scope of this study was explained and the chapter concluded by providing an overview of the thesis structure.

Chapter Two gives details on the background information on Ghana and the case study organisation, Vodafone, is covered in depth in Chapter Four, which is once again structured in a chronological manner covering the relevant literature and tracing the changes that Vodafone has undergone over the years. The role and statistical analysis of the National Communication Authority on the telecommunications industry in Ghana is explained.

Chapters Three presents a thorough literature review relating to CSR and branding. Chapter Three is structured in a chronological manner, describing the evolution of the CSR concept from the 1930s through 1950s and 1990s to the present. In addition, the chapter reviews the various alternatives to CSR and theories of CSR and how they relate to organisational value creation. Chapter Three continues by providing a short review of the branding literature and its historical development from the 1970s to the present and how brand strength is operationalised by combining brand equity and customer performance.-The chapter concludes by proposing a CSR approach to corporate branding based on the notion of corporate and organisational brand value.

Chapter Four discusses and explains the conceptual model proposed for this thesis and summarises the 15 hypotheses as proposed in the review of literature in Chapter Three. Chapter Five presents the study's philosophical approach and details the research methodology. Chapter Six provides the results of the qualitative data analysis of respondents.

Chapter Seven provides the analysis of quantitative data for employees and customers and Chapter Eight provides discussions on the evidence relating to the hypotheses identified in Chapter Three and qualitative analysis in Chapter Six, and proposes the final empirically tested conceptual model for this thesis. The final chapter of this thesis (Chapter Nine) discusses the conclusions, theoretical contributions, managerial implications of the findings, as well as limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK OF GHANA'S MOBILE TELECOMMUNICATIONS INDUSTRY

This chapter provides an understanding of Ghana's mobile telecommunications industry within the context of developments at both the local and global levels. Moreover, this chapter looks at how corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities in the telecommunications industry in Ghana have affected customer patronage. It covers an analysis of literature and topical subjects related to CSR and branding within the telecommunications industry.

2.1 Structural Adjustment Programme and the Economic Recovery Program

Probably one of the most well-known characteristic of sub-Saharan Africa as a region is the extent to which its growth performance during the last three decades has lagged behind that of other regions. As a result of the combination of slow GDP growth rates with fast population growth, many African countries that was middle-income, comparable to the South Asian nations in the fifties and sixties have since become low-income countries with average per capita GDP growth below one percent and often negative. The experience of Ghana during the last decades is largely representative of sub-Saharan Africa as a whole. Population growth in Ghana was largely in line with the rest of the region, well above the low-income average. Under the guidance of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the government of Ghana launched the Economic Recovery Program (ERP) in 1983 (Paasch et al., 2007). The purpose of the ERP was to minimize Ghana's debts and to improve its trading position in the African and global economy. Three different phases constituted the extent of carrying out the programme. In 1983, the government focused, in an attempt to create incentives for private production, on reducing its expenditure. The second phase lasted from 1987 to 1989. The government diversified many assets through privatization during this period and created foreign exchange reforms to devalue the cedi. In addition, the government intensified monetary reforms while reducing the private corporate taxes during the third phase. The ERP was adopted under the aegis of the World Bank and the IMF and it was aimed at reviving and sustaining the Ghanaian economy that was heavily indebted externally and needed external aid to repay the debts.

The ERP can be likened to structural adjustment programmes (SAPs)(Paasch et al., 2007). SAPs are 'economic policies for developing countries that have been promoted by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) since the early 1980s by the provision of loans conditional on the adoption of such policies. Structural adjustment loans are loans made by the World Bank' (Mentan, 2014).

The policy reforms were accompanied by "absolutely high" capital receipts from abroad, mostly from multilateral and bilateral lenders (Killick and Malik, 1992), that led to overall balance of payments surpluses in spite of persistent current account deficits as much-needed imports were brought into the country. The more realistic exchange rate, combined with good weather and decreases in smuggling due to better producer prices, increased cocoa export receipts; and thanks to the lifting of the foreign exchange constraint, GDP grew by as much as 5% per year. Most structural reforms were concluded by 1991, so that the structure of the economy was comparatively stable during the 1990s. In addition to its focus on stabilizing the country's financial structure, the ERP also aimed to promote production, especially in the export sectors. In 1986, the government began to rebuild infrastructure through a US$4.2 billion programme, more than half of which was provided by external sources.

In the early 1990s, Ghana's economic recovery still appeared uneven and was geared primarily to the export rather than domestic market. GDP had risen by an average of 5 percent per year since 1984, inflation had been reduced to about 20 percent, and export earnings had reached US$1 billion. Most production came from the export sector, and by the 1992-93 crop year, cocoa production surpassed 300,000 tons, placing Ghana third in the world. In 1990, exports of minerals, primarily gold but also diamonds, manganese, and bauxite, brought in US$234 million, an increase of 23.2 percent from the year before. Nevertheless, salaries were low, and because the cost of public services continued to rise, Ghana's poor bore the brunt of the negative effects of the austerity programme. One other major component of the ERP was to liberalize the trade and payments regime. According to Aryeetey and Harrigan (2000), this had the following goals: to narrow the gap between the official and parallel exchange rates; provide foreign exchange to ease import strangulation; achieve a viable balance of payments position; clear up arrears; and introduce current account convertibility. The means to achieve this were devaluations in 1983-86; a foreign exchange auction from 1986; and a free interbank market from 1992 onwards. This was accompanied by a gradual liberalization of imports, with import licenses abolished in 1989 and import

tariff rates lowered to between 10% and 30%. Export policies were also gradually liberalized, allowing exporters to retain an increasing share of earnings, reaching 100% in 1991 for all exports except gold and cocoa. The import liberalization programme and the forex auction could only be maintained with the help of foreign transfers (Aryeetey and Harrigan, 2000).

2.2 Perspective of the African Telecommunications Industry

Over the past two and half decades, the telecommunications sector has undergone extensive changes and Africa and Ghana is not an exception. Traditionally, telecommunications services were provided under monopoly conditions through government bodies that represented the role of operator and regulator at the same time. From the mid-1980s, many countries witnessed the wave of liberalisation that reformed the telecom market structure and announced the ending of the monopolistic role of government national operators. In the developing world, mobile penetration is now 79% with Africa being the lowest region worldwide at 53%. Despite this, Africa generally has not been left out from developments in the mobile telecommunications sector. Mobile telephones, of all the information communication technology (ICT) services, have increasingly become the dominant service that is accessible to many people, irrespective of their physical location (Frempong, 2009) with mobile phone coverage in Africa growing at staggering rates over the past decade (Aker and Mbiti, 2010). In 1999, only 10 percent of the African population had mobile phone coverage, primarily in North and South Africa. However, by 2008, 60 percent of the population could get a signal and an area of 11.2 million square kilometres had mobile phone coverage (Aker and Mbiti, 2010). Africa has experienced three distinct growth phases in mobile penetration over the past 10 years. In the initial tentative growth phase, penetration rose from 2% to 6%.

In the next phase - a period of accelerated growth - penetration surged at an annual rate of 52%. Over the past few years, as penetration expanded to 50%, that growth has decelerated slightly to a still robust annual rate of 26% (Sabbagh et al., 2011). Between 2006 and 2008, there was an average investment of USD11billion per annum by mobile phone operators in Africa. These investment levels were expected to be maintained over the subsequent five years (USD10.4 billion) but should account for a lower percentage of operators' turnovers (18% against 30% in the past) (Neau-Loquay, 2009). Mobile telephony has brought new possibilities to the continent: across urban-rural and rich-poor divides, mobiles connect individuals to individuals, information, markets and services (Aker and Mbiti, 2010).

2.3 Gross National Income and Fixed Broadband in Sub-Saharan Africa

Table 2.1 shows that, in the past five years, fixed-broadband prices as a share of GNI per capita dropped by 82%. By 2012, fixed broadband prices represented 1.7% of monthly GNI p.c. in developed countries. In developing countries, fixed broadband services remain expensive, accounting for 30.1% of average monthly incomes. In 95 countries – including 48 developing countries – the price of a monthly fixed-broadband subscription represented 5% or less of monthly GNI p.c. in 2012. As services become more affordable, fixed-broadband uptake showed strong growth, and by 2013 there were almost 700 million fixed-broadband subscriptions, corresponding to a global penetration rate of 9.8% in 2007. In 2013, the total number of fixed-broadband subscriptions in developing countries surpassed those in developed countries. But there is still a wide gap when it comes to fixed-broadband penetration rates, with 6.1% in developing countries (and less than 1% in sub-Saharan Africa), compared with 27.2% in developed countries (ITU, 2013).

Table 2.1: Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at Current Market Prices by Economic Activity, June 2015 (USD $ Million)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
SERVICES	1970	2476	3159	3978	5030	6218	8126	10195	12754
Trade, Repair of Vehicles, Household Goods	258	302	387	478	612	744	920	1184	1379
Hotels and Restaurants	202	274	389	497	587	681	797	1191	1382
Transport and Storage	534	646	739	852	1038	1359	1823	2301	3027
Information and Communication	109	115	141	148	188	224	360	356	553
Financial and Insurance Activities	107	167	246	350	507	559	782	1334	2066
Real Estate, Professional, Administrative	207	230	268	331	441	587	794	790	882
Public Administration and Defence	195	292	407	562	685	883	1122	1202	1324
Education	148	194	256	341	425	523	703	736	880
Health and Social Work	56	69	86	116	152	165	208	216	247
Community, Social and Personal Service	150	182	235	298	390	489	612	881	1007
FISIM (Fin. Intermediation Serv.)	92	114	156	270	342	330	525	661	987

Source: Ghana Statistical Service – Annual Gross Domestic Product, June 2015

Table 2.2 below shows that the distribution of GDP in percentage (%) in the information and communication industry in Ghana has reduced from 2.7% in 2006 to 2.3% in June 2015. It is the section in the services industry in Ghana with the lowest percentage growth over the said period. This points to the ability of the ICT sector to achieve fair wealth distribution and redistribution in Ghana. GDP by economic activity (in Ghc millions) for the information and communication industry has increased from 483.00 in 2006 to 2,213.00 in June 2015. This is an indication of the economic activities that the ICT sector is generating. "Every part of the mobile ecosystem shows powerful potential for continued core growth as well as opportunities for expansion–and businesses and consumers will both ultimately benefit", says Craig Wigginton, Vice Chairman and US Telecommunications Leader, Deloitte & Touché LLP (2015).

Table 2.2: Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at 2006 Prices by Economic Activity, June 2015 (USD $ Million)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
SERVICES	1970	2121	2291	2418	2656	2905	3256	3582	3782
Trade, Repair of Vehicles, Household Goods	258	272	298	314	356	395	440	504	512
Hotels and Restaurants	202	207	226	218	224	231	245	305	302
Transport and Storage	534	583	605	623	683	758	828	824	826
Information and Communication	109	114	136	141	176	206	291	362	501
Financial and Insurance Activities	107	126	140	153	179	181	221	272	334
Real Estate, Professional, Administrative and Support	207	214	213	214	243	278	329	271	267
Public Administration and Defence, Social Security	195	217	245	273	283	304	316	343	327
Education	148	163	184	207	218	226	241	258	276
Health And Social Work	56	58	61	70	78	82	91	98	97
Community, Social and Personal Service Activities	150	163	178	191	212	239	249	340	335
FISIM (Financial Intermediation Services)	92	102	118	167	180	125	230	298	316

Source: Ghana Statistical Service – Annual Gross Domestic Product, June 2015

2.4 Mobile Telephony Growth in Africa

Africa became one of the fastest growing markets for mobile telephones as accessible technology on the continent resulted in over 60 million new mobile telephone subscribers joining the mobile telephone family (ITU/WACMP, 2005). The relative ease of access and the flexibility it provides in communication has resulted in mobile telephony being the preferred means of communication not only for social, but also increasingly for business activities. Its popularity in most African countries has been fuelled by the poor penetration of fixed line networks (Frempong, 2009).

Driven by the increasing competition and the rapid pace of innovation in information and communications technologies (ICT), development attained by telecommunications regarding the transition from monopoly towards a competitive market model has witnessed different levels of liberalisation (Geradin and Kerf, 2003). Wallsten (1999) intimates that, particularly in the case of developing countries, besides the issue of technological changes in the telecom sector and the abysmal performance of incumbent operators, pressure from the World Bank and other international organisations influenced the opening up of the sector to competition.

In 2013, there were almost as many mobile-cellular subscriptions as people in the world, with more than half in the Asia-Pacific region (3.5 billion out of 6.8 billion total subscriptions). As global mobile-cellular penetration approaches 100% and market saturation is reached, growth rates have fallen to their lowest levels in both developed and developing countries. Mobile-cellular penetration rates stand at 96% globally; 128% in developed countries; and 89% in developing countries (ITU, 2013). Africa has about 400 million mobile subscribers, and it was anticipated that data and rural voice services would generate $12 to $15 billion in telecom revenue by 2015. In addition, it was expected that about 220 million Africans, who now can meet only their basic needs, will join the middle class as consumers. Telecom is one of the continent's most robust industries. This is because the market for cell phones keeps expanding to include internet access, mobile banking and retail transactions. Mobile services have brought telephones to people in remote areas that never had landlines (Koi-Akrofi, 2013).

In response to the increase in mobile phone coverage and adoption in Africa, mobile phone-based development projects have proliferated in a variety of sectors including agriculture, health, education, emergency response, and governance (Aker and Mbiti, 2010).

Growth has been so swift and robust that the needs of both operators and governments have largely been met. African and multinational operator groups and their shareholders enjoyed high-returns with the support of governments and regulators, which have benefited in turn from new and lucrative tax opportunities (Sabbagh et al., 2011). The emergence and influence of mobile telecommunications in Africa is aptly summed up by Van-Huyssteen (2011) who states that: 'with billions of dollars of international investment flowing in, and subscribers numbers rising across the continent, Africa's communications market place has now passed the tipping point from high potential to high growth'.

Over the past decades, the mobile industry in West Africa has grown from a government controlled space to become a huge market, fuelling economic growth and technological innovation. Various sub-Saharan African countries have successfully introduced two or more GSM operators (Rossotto et al., 2000). In 1997, with the exception of South Africa, over 75% of countries in sub-Saharan Africa had no mobile phone network, while all the existing networks were monopolies. By 2009, a mobile phone network existed in every country, with 49% of markets fully liberalized, 24% partially deregulated, and 26% as monopolies (Aker and Mbiti, 2010).

West Africa has 188 million mobile subscribers, nearly 30% of Africa's total mobile market share and it is predicted to reach more than 310 million subscribers by 2017, according to industry estimates. Nigeria represents the largest share. Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire represents the next two largest markets. With an average growth rate of 9% per quarter, the entire West African region has witnessed tremendous growth. West Africa's mobile ecosystem is also supported by the explosive economic growth of many of its smaller countries like Mali, Liberia, and Niger Republic (TwinPine, 2012). With improvement of the mobile telecommunications infrastructure and increased spending in the sector, this growth of the West African mobile industry will not slow down in the near future (TwinPine, 2012). The advent and influence of mobile telecommunications is prominent and evident on all fronts globally, in Africa, and West Africa. Uptake of high-speed broadband (at least 10 Mbit/s) is highest in some Asian economies, including the Republic of Korea, Hong Kong (China) and Japan, and in several European countries, such as Bulgaria, Iceland and Portugal. In Africa, less than 10% of fixed (wired) broadband subscriptions offer speeds of at least 2 Mbit/s. This is also the case of several countries in Asia and the Pacific, the Americas and some Arab States (ITU, 2013).

Africa has the lowest mobile-cellular penetration in the world as indicated in Figure 2.3. It also indicates that the highest potential for investment in the mobile-cellular business is found in Africa. This makes Africa an attractive investment destination. It is not surprising that most of the telecommunications companies have the majority of their shareholders from outside Africa. Subscription rate percentage is also the higher in the developing world compared to the developed world.

2.5 Ghana's Mobile Telecommunications Industry

Telecommunications is one of the prime support services needed for the rapid growth of any developing country. Telecommunications is one of the fastest developing sectors in Ghana. The government is concentrating more on this sector, especially in recent years, because of the enormous growth of information technology (IT) and its significant impact on the rest of the economy. The resultant impact of reforms in Ghana's telecommunications sector is that Ghana has one of the most liberalized mobile telephone markets in Africa; nevertheless, until recently these numbers did not radically exert competitiveness and rapid development in the market (Frempong et al., 2005). During the past decade, however, the industry has witnessed a tremendous increase in the subscriber growth rate for all the mobile telecom operators (Nimako et al., 2010). Mobile telephony has become a major source of communication in Ghana (Sey, 2008; World Bank, 2007). Mobile telecommunications plays a major role in the information technology-driven world of business. Scott et al. (2004) observed that one might expect most calls to be related to economic issues; one can say that, at present in Ghana, it is social users that drive phone use amongst Ghanaians. Chatting and keeping in touch are the most common use of phones. This is of value because it strengthens social capital through improved networking with friends and family.

The growth of mobile telephony has been accelerating rapidly since 2003, becoming a substitute for fixed line telephones. By 2006, mobile telephony had 25% penetration when overall teledensity was 27.2% (Osiakwan, 2008). Between 2000 and 2007, the compound average growth rate (CAGR) of fixed line telephones was 6.5 percent, while that of mobile telephones was 81.4 percent. By 2007, the ratio of mobile cellular subscriptions to fixed telephone lines was 80:1 (ITU, 2008). By 2008, almost 60 percent of Ghanaians aged 16 and older have active SIM cards, which they use to both make and receive calls (Frempong, 2009). As Koufie et al. (2012) intimate, the sector in the Ghanaian economy providing mobile phone service is very young, but the sector appears to be growing at a fast rate.

As young as these mobile service providers are, there is definitely a positive perception of the impact of mobile phone diffusion on the economy and employment creation. Mobile-broadband subscriptions have climbed from 268 million in 2007 to 2.1 billion in 2013. This reflects an average annual growth rate of 40%, making mobile broadband the most dynamic ICT market. In developing countries, the number of mobile broadband subscriptions more than doubled from 2011 to 2013 (from 472 million to 1.16 billion) and surpassed those in developed countries in 2013. Africa is the region with the highest growth rates over the past three years (2010-2013) and mobile broadband penetration has increased from 2% in 2010 to 11% in 2013 and this is a strong indication of employment and economic activities (ITU, 2013).

The ease of subscription and the flexibility it provides for communication purposes have contributed to its rapid growth. In addition, the multi-purpose nature of the technology has contributed to its popularity and it being transformed from its original social status symbol to a versatile technology for economic activities (Frempong, 2009). Recent mobile telephony growth has been high. Growth in the sector has been driven by both demand-side factors such as the increasing popularity of cheap mobile phones and by supply-side factors such as regulatory reforms and technological innovations (TwinPine, 2012). Strong competition in the market place has also pushed prices downwards providing an increased benefit to consumers.

According to Deloitte/GSMA (2012), a key contributing factor in the extension of mobile services in sub-Saharan countries like Ghana has been the increased availability of affordable handsets, frequently as low as US$30. Currently, handset prices range between US$30-400, whereas the price of SIM cards has fallen from an average of US$ 48 in 2004 to US1.50-3.00 in 2008 (Frempong, 2009), with others such as Osiakwan (2008) are indicating that some mobile companies at a point sold SIM cards at a cost of USD60.

Ghana's mobile operators predominantly use the prepaid model of subscription. Pre-payment means that the subscriber buys airtime that is stored in his account and that he can only call for as long as his account is loaded with sufficient airtime. Prepaid airtime constitutes 95 percent of sales revenue offering huge opportunities for operators, who shift credit risk to the consumer and do not carry the cost for expensive "subsidized" handsets (Francois-Xavier, 2009). It is obvious that Ghana's mobile telecommunications has progressed beyond all conceivable estimates. As indicated by Deloitte/GSMA (2012), market growth, scale of

economies, reducing handset prices and increasing market competition have led to steady price reductions and, in turn, affordability has driven the significant increase in the use of mobile phones.

2.6 The National Communication Authority

As the telecommunications sector in Ghana underwent privatization and liberalization, there was the need to assign the regulatory roles to an independent body that would oversee the development of the sector. Consequently, the National Communications Authority Act (Act 524) was promulgated in 1996 for the establishment of Ghana's regulator, the NCA. The NCA has operated for years with scanty financial resources and no management board. Spectrum management has been messy; mobile operators were allowed to offer services using "authorizations" rather than formal licenses with clearly defined service obligations. The National Communication Policy (NCA) has the primary responsibility of regulating the telecommunications sector and implementing the terms of the National Transportation Policy. Among the roles of the Authority as contained in the National Transportation Policy are:

- Issuing of licences, establishing terms and conditions;

- Regulation of competition including interconnection;

- Allocation of scarce resources including management of the frequency spectrum;

- Implementation of Universal Access Policy;

- Tariff regulation consistent with Ministry Policy;

- Consumer protection;

- Technical standards, and quality of service oversight; and

- Monitoring of operators activity, performance and compliance.

The Ministry of Communication has the responsibility to participate in a consultative capacity in all National Communications Authority public regulatory proceedings in an open and transparent manner. It is the mandate of the Ministry of Communication to monitor development of the telecommunications sector, and progress towards achieving the objectives of the national policy and to represent the Government of the Republic of Ghana in all international negotiations and proceedings relating to the country's telecommunications policies.

2.6.1 Services Sector and Mobile Telecommunications Industry in Ghana

Ghana's services sector has displaced other sectors in the economy as the leading contributor to GDP for the year ending 2012, exceeding its target for the year. Mr. Seth Emmanuel Terkper, Minister of Finance, said this during a presentation of the 2013 budget in parliament. According to Mr. Terkper, the services sector, which is the largest sector of the economy, accounted for 49.3 per cent of GDP in 2012, recording the highest growth rate in the year under review. He said the sector exceeded its 2012 target of 7.7 per cent by 1.1 percentage points to register a growth rate of 8.8 per cent. The major components of the sector were reviewed under industry, mining and quarrying, crude oil, manufacturing, electricity, water and sewerage, and construction. The Finance Minister said the sub-sectors that contributed to the remarkable performance include hotels and restaurants, which recorded 13.6 per cent, while transport and storage netted 11.4 per cent. Financial intermediation contributed 11.4 per cent with information and communication registering 12.1 per cent, and business services listing 13.5 per cent of GDP (GNA, 2013).

Over the years the mobile telecommunications industry in Ghana has seen telecommunications firms such as Ghana Telecom (GT) (now Vodafone Ghana) facing considerable competition from within the sector. Even though Vodafone, then GT, was the incumbent, it was over taken by Scancom Ghana (now trading under the brand name MTN). Due to the increase in competition among the telecommunications companies in the industry it has become important for the companies to focus on the factors that can help customer retention (Keaveney, 1995). This is consistent with developments in many sub-Saharan African countries. A number of the mobile companies in Ghana have operations across the sub-Saharan African region, allowing them to capitalize on their experiences across several markets, contributing to robust competition (Deloitte/GSMA, 2012). In most of the mobile telecommunications industries in the world today, customers are able to choose among multiple service providers and actively exercise their rights of switching from one service provider to another. In this fiercely competitive market, customers demand tailored products and better services at lower prices, while service providers constantly focus on acquisitions as their business goals. Given the fact that the telecom industry experiences an average of 25-30 percent annual churn rate and that it costs 5-10 times more to recruit a new customer than to retain an existing one, customer retention has now become even more important than customer acquisition (Geppert, 2002).

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2.6.2 Competitors in Ghana's Mobile Industry

Vodafone Ghana was the incumbent and the sole provider of telecommunication access to both its colleagues in the industry and the general public. Vodafone Ghana provided operations in both fixed telephone and mobile communication across the entire country. Vodafone had the necessary infrastructures to function as a network operator and a service provider because they enjoyed a monopoly. Active participation of the private sector came in strongly in the telecommunications industry of Ghana in 1992. Millicom Ghana limited (now trading under the brand name Tigo) was the first mobile company, followed by Scancom Ghana (now trading under the brand name MTN); CellTel Ghana (now trading under the brand name Expresso); and Westel Ghana (now trading under the brand name Airtel). They were established under the approval of NCA who supervised and controlled the activities of all these operators. The truth remains that other key players like MTN had already started enjoying the competitiveness of the market with Tigo, Expresso, and Airtel on the market. Glo, a new occurrence on the market, is now the latest operator to join the competition in the telecommunications market of Ghana. With this changing environment in the industry more is therefore expected of the operators than just the traditional way of providing services and products onto the Ghanaian market (NCA, 2015). As at the close of 2015, there are six major competitors in Ghana's mobile telecommunications industry, namely MTN, Vodafone, Tigo, Airtel, Expresso and Glo.

Customer service varies by product, industry and customer: it however assumes an important dimension in service delivery because service firms, such as telecommunications firms, have no inventory of finished goods to buffer production from random demand variability (Dutta and Roy, 2006). Nevertheless, it is demanded for firm survival, profitability and growth that service firms in the telecommunications industry in Ghana treat their customers well.

Table 2.3 below shows the tariff of mobile telephony operators of some selected countries. Airtel and Tigo charges to other local networks are the cheapest while Vodafone and Expresso have the highest. This is made public and consumers can make their decisions based on this information. Vodafone tariffs appear to be on par or just below industry average while Expresso tariffs are almost always above the industry average.

Table 2.3: Tariffs of Mobile Telephony Operators (Prepaid) as at March 2015

All rates are quoted in Ghana Cedis and the billing rate is per minute							
	MTN	Tigo	Vodafone	Airtel	Glo Mobi	Expresso	Industry Average
On Net	0.11	**0.04**	0.11	0.10	0.14	0.10	0.0984
Other Local Networks	0.13	0.10	0.12	**0.10**	0.14	0.15	0.1236
UK	1.10	0.35	**0.30**	0.36	0.44	1.60	0.6923
USA	**0.15**	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.21	0.1463
Canada	**0.15**	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.21	0.1463
Italy	0.14	0.35	0.45	0.44	**0.28**	2.00	0.6098
Nigeria	0.50	0.35	0.30	0.20	**0.17**	0.21	0.2885
South Africa	0.27	0.54	0.88	0.39	**0.28**	1.27	0.6043
Germany	0.30	0.54	0.45	0.44	**0.28**	1.60	0.6008
China	**0.15**	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.21	0.1463
UAE	0.70	**0.54**	0.45	0.78	0.44	1.60	0.7517
SMS-On Net	0.05	0.04	**0.04**	**0.04**	**0.04**	0.04	0.0413
SMS-Other Networks	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.04	**0.04**	0.04	0.0468
MMS	**0.18**	0.10	0.19	**0.18**			0.1625
Data/MB	0.10	0.20	0.20	0.10	**0.08**	**0.05**	0.1217

** Tariff rates are rounded up to 2 decimal places.

Source: NCA, March 2015

2.6.3 Shareholding Structure in Ghana's Mobile Industry

Global players have become a faction of the consolidation process of recent years due to competition. The world's biggest operators, facing market maturity, cutthroat competition and slower growth in their more established markets, have turned their attention to the opportunities available in Africa (PWC, 2011).

The majority of the mobile operators in Ghana are owned or controlled by foreign players as is synonymous with development in Africa. The telecoms boom has largely been a foreign affair even though local companies have proved to be strong competitors in Nigeria and South Africa (Ware, 2012). Figure 2.1 illustrates that, with the exception of Vodafone and Airtel, all the mobile companies operating in Ghana are wholly foreign owned.

Figure 2.1: Shareholdings of Mobile Companies

Shareholding Structure of Mobile Companies						
Mobile Companies	MTN	Glo	Tigo	Expr	Vod	Airte
Local	0	0	0	0	30	25
Foreign	100	100	100	100	70	75
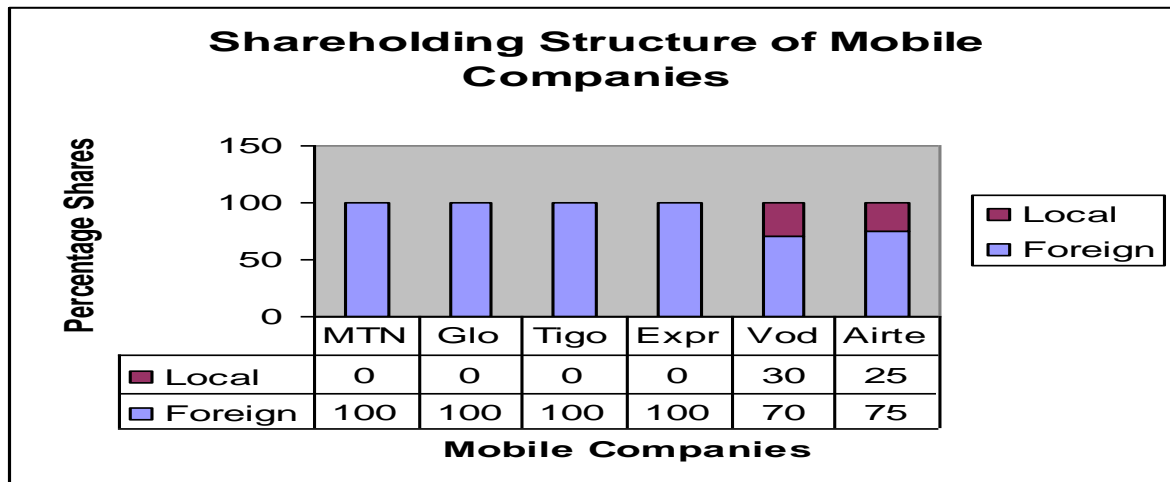
Source: PWC (2011)

In August 2008, Vodafone acquired a 70% stake in Ghana Telecom from the Government of Ghana and subsequently rebranded it as Vodafone with the Government of Ghana retaining a 30% stake in the business. In 2008, Zain acquired 75% of the unused license of Westel. Zain was subsequently acquired by Bharti Airtel and rebranded as Airtel Ghana in 2010. The Government of Ghana remains a shareholder in the company with a 25% holding through Ghana National Petroleum (PWC, 2011). Expresso Ghana is wholly 100% foreign owned by Dubai based Expresso Telecom. Mobile Telecommunications Network (MTN) is also 100% foreign owned by the South Africa based MTN. Tigo is 100% foreign owned by Millicom International while Glo Ghana is 100% foreign owned by Globacom Nigeria (PWC, 2011).

Ware (2012) proposes that these developments serve as a testimony to the potential of the market since a decade ago there was scarcely any foreign investment in the mobile market. According to Ware (2012), the downside to this, however, is that considerable profits are exported in the form of dividends and management fees, which doesn't benefit the country per se.

2.6.4 Market Share and Performance in the Mobile Industry

Deregulation and reduced entry barriers into the Ghanaian mobile industry have resulted in intense competition as the number of operators swell-up to contend for a market share (Frempong, 2002).

Table 2.4 shows the latest trends in voice subscription in Ghana. From January to March 2015, Vodafone subscription dropped from 7,177,032 to 7,159,566. In the same period, Vodafone's market share dropped from 23.43% to 22.98%. Meanwhile MTN increased both in voice subscription and market share in the same period. This is an indication of the level of competition in the telecommunications sector in Ghana.

Table 2.4: Voice Subscription Market Share, March 2015

TELECOMVOICESUBSCRIPTIONTRENDS2015			
MOBILEOPERATORS	January	February	March
EXPRESSO	119,649	119,386	126,202
MILLICOM(TIGO)	4,202,923	4,264,078	4,315,719
SCANCOM(MTN)	13,939,936	14,113,432	14,207,778
VODAFONEMOBILE	7,177,032	7,300,497	7,159,566
AIRTEL	3,751,135	3,808,747	3,863,252
GLOMOBILE	1,438,929	1,422,113	1,481,903
TOTALMOBILE	**30,629,604**	**31,028,253**	**31,154,420**
MONTH OVER MONTHGROWTH	0.89%	1.30%	0.41%
FIXED OPERATORS			
VODAFONE	259,842	259,469	253,103
AIRTEL	7,588	7,522	7,468
TOTALFIXED	**267,430**	**266,991**	**260,571**
MONTH OVER MONTHGROWTH	2.70%	-0.16%	-2.40%
TOTALMARKET			
MOBILE	30,629,604	31,028,253	31,154,420
FIXED	267,430	266,991	260,571
TOTAL ACCESSLINES	**30,897,034**	**31,295,244**	**31,414,991**
MONTH OVER MONTHGROWTH	0.90%	1.29%	0.38%

POPULATION	26,832,968	26,886,633	26,940,407
GROWTHRATE			

PENETRATION	January	February	March
MOBILE	114.15%	115.40%	115.64%
FIXED	1.00%	0.99%	0.97%
TOTAL	115.15%	116.40%	116.61%
MARKETSHARE			
MOBILE	99.13%	99.15%	99.17%
FIXED	0.87%	0.85%	0.83%

Source: NCA, 2015

Figure 2.2: Market Share (Voice) – March 2015
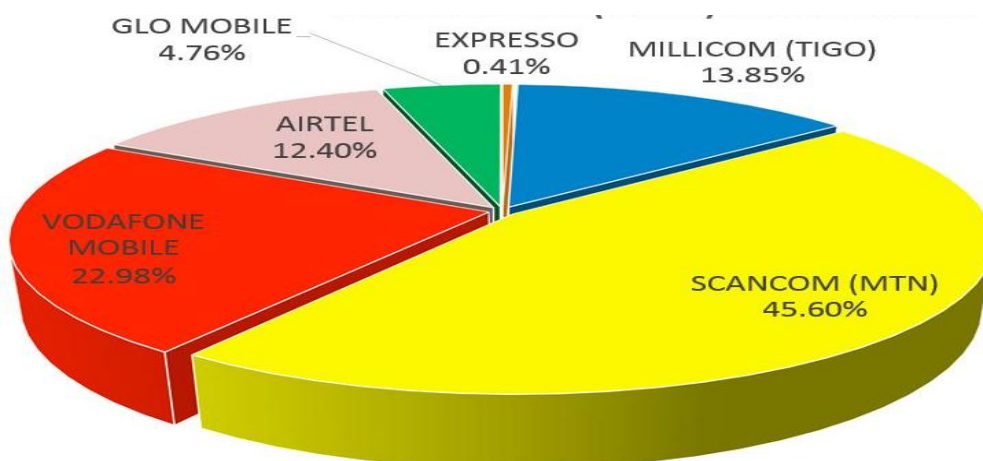
Source: NCA, March 2015

The figure 2.2 shows market share (voice) as expressed in a pie chart. The figure shows MTN is still leading in the industry with Expresso having the lowest market share in Ghana. Vodafone still has the second largest market share in terms of voice in Ghana.

Table 2.5: Mobile Data Market Share, March 2015

TELECOMDATASUBSCRIPTIONTRENDS2015			
MOBILE DATAOPERATORS	January	February	March
EXPRESSO	35,252	36,301	39,571
MILLICOM(TIGO)	2,263,015	2,303,539	2,451,350
SCANCOM(MTN)	7,746,125	7,660,483	7,778,925
VODAFONEMOBILE	2,952,733	2,954,125	2,947,136
AIRTEL	2,155,850	2,206,603	2,259,268
GLOMOBILE	652,671	643,557	629,968
TOTALMOBILE	**15,805,646**	**15,804,608**	**16,106,218**
MONTHOVERMONTHGROWTH		---0.01%	1.91%
POPULATION			
	26,832,968		
GROWTHRATE	1.002		
PENETRATION	January	February	March
MOBILEDATA	58.90%	58.78%	59.78%
MARKET SHARE FOR MOBILE DATAOPERATORS			
EXPRESSO	0.22%	0.23%	0.25%
MILLICOM(TIGO)	14.32%	14.57%	15.22%
SCANCOM(MTN)	49.01%	48.47%	48.30%
VODAFONEMOBILE	18.68%	18.69%	18.30%
AIRTELMOBILE	13.64%	13.96%	14.03%
GLOMOBILE	4.13%	4.07%	3.91%
TOTAL	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**

Source: NCA, March 2015

Table 2.5 shows the latest trends in mobile data subscription in Ghana. From January to March 2015 Vodafone subscription dropped from 2,952,733 to 2,947,136. In the same period Vodafone market share dropped from 18.68% to 18.30%. Meanwhile MTN increased in mobile data subscription but dropped in market share in the same period. This denotes the level of competition in the telecommunications sector in Ghana.

Figure 2.3: Market Share (Data) – March 2015
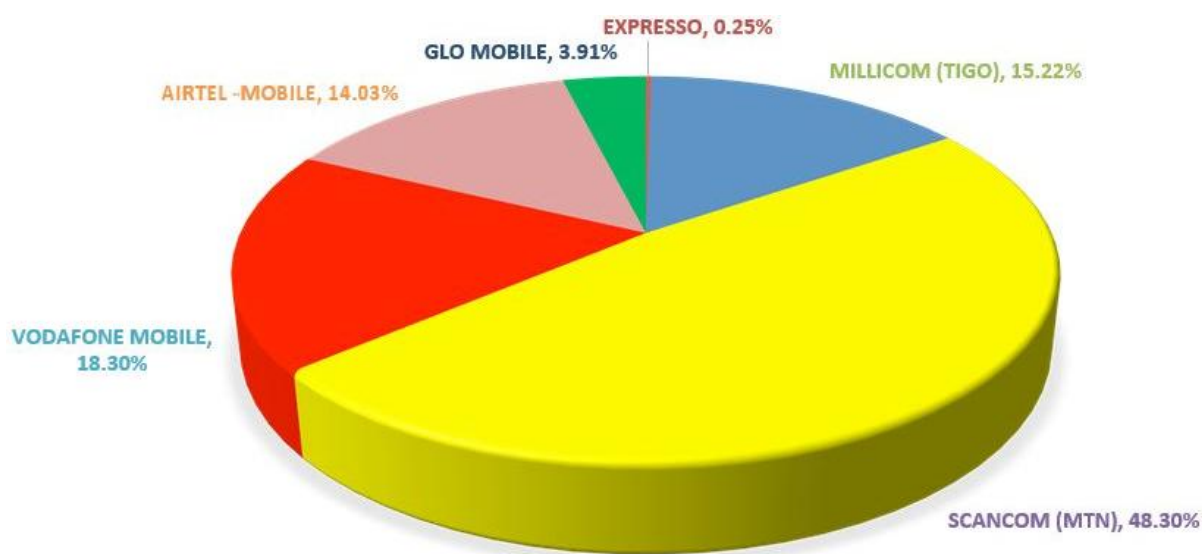
Source: NCA, March 2015

The figure 2.3 shows market share (data)as expressed in a pie chart. The figures shows MTN is still leading in the industry with Expresso still as the lowest market share holder in Ghana.

Table 2.6: Trends in Access Lines

Name of Company	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
MTN	8,721,249	10,156,112	11,734,500	12,929,528	13,852,398
Vodafone	2,722,364	4,275,521	5,259,487	6,048,792	7,069,516
Tigo	3,999,262	3,921,754	3,698,409	4,021,225	4,133,760
Airtel	1,754,259	2,625,705	3,192,154	3,395,263	3,735,656

Glo Mobile	-	-	1,568,014	1,498,011	1,450,382
Expresso	258,967	186,751	165,853	133,663	119,059
Total	**17,436,949**	**21,165,843**	**25,618,427**	**28,026,482**	**30,360,771**
Market Share (%)					
MTN	50	47.35	45.8	46.2	45.6
Vodafone	15.6	19.93	20.48	21.5	23.2
Tigo	22.9	18.28	14.40	14.3	13.6
Airtel	10.1	12.24	12.46	11.8	12.3
Glo Mobile	-	-	6.10	5.3	4.7
Expresso	1.4	0.87	0.64	0.47	0.39

Source: NCA (nca.org, 2015)

Table 2.6 reveals that MTN has maintained its market leadership position ending 2014 with a subscriber base of 13,852,398 representing 45.6% of the market share. MTN market share as shown has reduced from 55% in 2008 to 45.6% in 2014. This is in spite of the fact that its actual subscriber numbers have almost doubled within the same period. This is evidence of the fierce competition in the sector. Vodafone follows with 7,069,516 subscribers. It can also be seen that Vodafone, since 2011, has overtaken Tigo as the number two in the mobile market ending the year 2014 with 23.2% of the market share. Vodafone market share has consistently increased over the period under consideration. This could be partly due to the new management takeover and change of name experienced in 2007. Tigo's drop can be attributed to poor management in the midst of fierce competition. Airtel is now gradually closing in with a 3,735,656 subscriber base and showing one of the best performances in Ghana.

New entrant Glo Mobile has done well by capturing 4.7% of market share for the year ending 2014. The worst performing company is Expresso, which has consistently lost market share from 3.35% in 2007 to 0.39% in 2014.

2.6.5 Prefix Number Codes for Mobile Operators

As is the custom in the telecommunications industry, all cell phones are designated their own prefix number pattern, so the caller immediately knows which mobile operator number is being dialled and what cost is being incurred. The prefix number is the first set of digits of a telephone number (TechPort, 2011).

Table 2.7: Mobile Phone Providers, Prefix Number Codes & Registered Names

Mobile Operator(Current Name)	Prefix Code Numbers	Previous Name(s)
Tigo Ghana	027, 057	Known as Buzz but before then Mobitel
Expresso Ghana	028	Known as Kasapa but before then Celltel
MTN Ghana	024, 054	Known as Areeba but before then Spacefon
Vodafone Ghana	020, 050	Previously known as Onetouch (Ghana Telecom)
Airtel Ghana	026	Known as Zain but before then Westel
Glo Mobile	023	Recently became operational

Source: Koufie et al. (2012)

From Table 2.7 it will be realized that Tigo, MTN and Vodafone have two prefix number codes, while Expresso, Airtel, and Glo each use one prefix number. MTN commenced operations in Ghana using the 024 prefix code number. In 2009 however, it became the first mobile telecommunications operator to launch another prefix number 054 to complement its 024 number. The Chief Executive of MTN, Brett Goshen indicated that the new code was to give potential customers a chance to enjoy MTN's services as already its 024 code was fully utilized. In 2011 Tigo launched another block of 057 prefix numbers in addition to its existing 027 prefix numbers. According to Tigo, the launch was due to the ever growing patronage of its products and services by the general public. Industry analysts however

assumed that the timing of the release of the 057 numbers was strategic as Mobile Number Portability (MNP) was set to be introduced in July 2011.

The former Tigo Ghana Chief Executive Officer, Carlos Ceceres intimated that he did not expect the Mobile Number Portability to have any significant impact on mobile market share and the reason for the launch was to provide better services to their customers. Vodafone, the last mobile company to launch an additional prefix number, added 050 to its existing number of 020 in 2012. Uche Ofodile, Chief Marketing Officer of Vodafone indicated this was done in response to burgeoning customer demand for their products and services. The launch, she emphasized, was expanding the Vodafone family and was an expression of their commitment to deliver unbeatable value across both of the prefix numbers.

2.7 Key Developments in the Mobile Industry

2.7.1 Africa's First Commercial Broadband Network Utilising 'White Space' Broadcast Frequencies Launched in Ghana

US technology giant Microsoft launched what it claims is Africa's first commercial broadband network utilising 'white space' broadcast frequencies in Ghana, via its 4Afrika initiative. In partnership with SpectraLink Wireless – and in the wake of successful white space pilot tests at universities in Koforidua, Ghana, from May 2014 – the new network offers students affordable, high speed internet bundles and zero-interest loans in partnership with UT Bank for the purchase of eligible internet-enabled Microsoft, Lenovo, Dell and HP devices. Data packages start from GHS2 (USD0.6) for 24 hours access.

Professor H. Nwana, Executive Director of the Dynamic Spectrum Alliance, of which Microsoft and Spectra Wireless' parent company are both members, commented: 'Having overseen TV white space (TVWS) trials in the UK at Ofcom, I am truly delighted to see Spectra Wireless and Microsoft's move to make TVWS-based broadband a commercial reality in Ghana, a first in Africa. I applaud the Ghanaian regulator, the National Communications Authority (NCA), in granting a commercial licence, which allows use of TV frequencies on a secondary basis as long as TV is not interfered with. This would drive up spectrum efficiency of TV bands in Ghana, and I hope other countries learn from NCA's decision (TeleGeograghy, 2015).

2.7.2 Deployment of Fibre Optics Cables

The deployment of fibre optic cables by some mobile telecom operators is a major development in the mobile telephony industry. Analysts, telecom operators, and government officials have already expressed optimism that the new cables will spur internet and broadband capabilities as well as push information technology to new heights. At the moment 3G mobile broadband services represents the majority of internet connections in Ghana. The Information Communication Technology Council has been set up to guide the ICT sector in Ghana. The fibre optic backbone network in the Eastern Corridor is opened for operations.

The first fibre network was the US$650m SAT-3/WACS spearheaded by TelKom South Africa and partnered by Ghana Telecom (Vodafone Ghana) who invested US$24-million into the project and started operating the SAT-3/WASC fibre in 2002 (Osiakwan, 2008). Glo Mobile Ghana also successfully launched its Glo-1 submarine cable in 2009. MTN was the next to deploy fibre optic cables with the launch of its 14,500 kilometre West Africa Cable System (WACS) submarine cable. The 5.2 terabit design capacity cable is the largest design capacity submarine cable system to land on the African continent. Expresso was the fourth mobile company but third individual operator in Ghana to have landed a submarine fibre optic cable known as Africa Coast to Europe (ACE) optics cable system owned by a consortium of seventeen mobile telecommunications companies operating in Africa.

2.8 Mobile Telecommunications Industry and the Ghanaian Economy

As stipulated by Deloitte/GSMA (2012), mobile telephony generates significant economic and social benefits for consumers in sub-Saharan countries such as Ghana. The availability of mobile phones, to a large extent, has not only transformed the way consumers and businesses communicate and exchange information but also brings significant productivity improvements to public governance, trade, health and education, thereby playing a key role in the socio-economic development of the region.

In Ghana, an emerging body of research shows that the reduction in communication costs associated with mobile phones has tangible economic and social benefits, improving agricultural and labour market efficiency and producer and consumer welfare in specific circumstances and countries (Koufie at al., 2012; Jensen, 2007; Aker, 2008; 2010). Sabbagh et al. (2011) argue, for instance, that a 10 percent increase in mobile penetration correlates to

a 0.6 percent growth in GDP. In this respect, mobile phone providers in Ghana, while their entrance into the economy was more recent compared to other industries, have made a significant impact on the growth of the Ghanaian economy by creating jobs both in the urban and rural areas (Koufie et al., 2012). Job creation in the rural setting improves the social lives of the population. According to Teppeh (2011), a significant contribution has been made by the sector to the overall economic development of the country in addition to the direct contribution it makes to the aggregate output through the value added by the industry.

Some telecom companies in the industry are emulating the aspect of strategic CSR by taking responsibility for some television programmes or major events. MTN Ghana, for instance, is the main sponsor of the Soccer Academy that is aired on Metro TV, a local station in Ghana. It was also the main sponsor of the South African hosted World Cup tournament that took place in June 2010. Another example is the sponsorship of Mentor reality show that is aired on TV3 by Vodafone Ghana. Bagnoli and Watts (2003) found that the tendency of firms to engage in strategic CSR depends on two factors: the intensity of competition in the market; and the extent to which consumers are willing to pay a premium for social responsibility. The first factor seems to exist in the telecom industry in Ghana. The competitive nature of the industry as a result of the presence of multinational telecom companies in a relatively small Ghanaian market is probably one of the reasons for the engagement in CSR activities by most companies in the industry.

2.8.1 Contribution to Economic Growth

Mobile services promote productivity, innovation and economic growth. By enabling businesses and government to deliver their services faster, and at a lower cost, mobile services increase productivity across the Ghanaian economy. Mobile services can also facilitate the exchange of ideas and information, supporting the move towards a knowledge-based economy helping to increase living standards in Ghana and improve Ghana's international competitiveness. Mobile services also create opportunities for investment, innovation and employment in the mobile sector and other industries that form the mobile ecosystem, such as equipment providers, network engineering and maintenance industries, and related business service industries. Other opportunities that are enabled by mobile services include the development of mobile applications in healthcare, education and agriculture, and the creation of local content. This has an additional impact on economic growth and supports the diversification of the Ghanaian economy.

Mobile services promote long-run economic growth and fiscal stability. The mobile sector also makes an important contribution to the Government of Ghana's revenue. This includes the direct contribution made by mobile operators, which amounts to 6.1% of Ghana's total tax revenue and the tax revenue generated by the wider ecosystem of industries supported by mobile services (Deloitte/GSMA, 2015).

One of the main reasons why Vodafone was chosen for this study is because the shares are not owned 100% by foreigners: 70% is foreign owned and 30% local owned. It is the mobile telephony company with the highest local shareholding structure in Ghana.

Increasing organisational brand values will lead to increasing the wealth of Ghanaians. Ghana's economic experiences with the advent of mobile telecommunications, ties in with the views expressed by Sabbagh et al. (2011), to the effect that, in Africa, a rise in GDP has coincided with gains in mobile penetration. As a result of the mobile industry's investment and consumers' rapid adoption of the innovative services currently, the industry has become one of the major (and growing) components of the Ghanaian economy. Telecom has contributed significantly to the increase in Ghana's GDP over the last decades and the prospects for the future are much greater than what is currently being witnessed (Koi-Akrofi, 2013).

Over the past decade, telecom operations have grown at well over 60% per year, while the remainder of the economy grew between 6% and 7%. In 2010, mobile operators contributed approximately 9.2 percent to government income, 2 percent to GDP and directly accounted for 7% of investments in Ghana (Teppeh, 2011). By the first quarter of 2011, the mobile telecommunications sector alone represented 7% of all investments in Ghana, and was responsible for 2% of GDP while the sector also took some 5.3% of the total expenditure of consumers (Delta Partners, 2011).

Operators, according to Koufie et al. (2012), have invested over US$5.6 billion in Ghana over the last decade and are responsible for 10 percent of all government revenues. Inflation in the mobile telecommunications industry in Ghana in the first quarter of 2012 was 0.6%, the lowest among all the key sectors in the country. The near-zero growth in cost of telecommunications services in Ghana produced a stabilization effect on Ghana's global Consumer Price Index (CPI) growth month on month. In August and September 2012, telecoms inflation dropped even further to 0.2% (Ghana Chamber of Telecommunications,

2012). There is no doubt that the telecommunications industry in Ghana has contributed so much in terms of the growth of Ghana's economy (Koi-Akrofi, 2013).

2.8.2 Employment Generation by Mobile Telecommunications

Ghana's experience with employment generation by mobile telecommunications are rightly captured by Deloitte/GSMA (2012), which states that mobile services contribute to local employment in several ways, including direct employment by the mobile operators, employment in related industries, and the support employment created by outsourced work.

The Ghanaian job market has directly and indirectly been impacted with some high-paying jobs not just in the cities but in rural areas of the country as well (Koufie et al., 2012) through mobile phone diffusion. In 2010, the mobile operators and certified mobile dealers employed 6,000 full time workers and 1.5 million people whose employment is related to the industry through retailing of telecom accessories and scratch cards (Teppeh, 2011) with many other industries such as banking, trade, commerce, media and advertising being dependent on it for revenue and efficiency. Mobile phone companies had to create extensive phone credit distribution networks in partnership with the formal and informal sectors mainly because most Ghanaians use pre-paid phones. Thus, small shops that have traditionally sold dietary staples and soap now sell mobile phone credit (airtime) particularly in small denominations. Young men and women are often found selling airtime cards in the streets. Numerous small-scale firms have also opened shops to sell, repair, and charge mobile phones either using car batteries or small generators and entrepreneurial individuals have been renting phones (Aker and Mbiti, 2010).

All throughout Ghana, one sees street hawkers, corner shops, and small kiosks with mobile phone providers' insignia and those of large retail stores for services and products of the phone providers. Services provided at these locations include buying Subscriber Identity Module (SIM) cards, buying phone units, having a phone unlocked, repairing or simply buying new handsets (Koufie et al., 2012). An encouraging economic development story is that Ghana's first local mobile phone manufacturer, RLG Communications (locally owned and operated) projects to add to the economy with the creation of 5,000 permanent new jobs in the country (Dowuona, 2010). This is a pointer to the great potential of mobile telephony and ICT in job creation in Ghana.

2.8.3 Social Contributions of Mobile Telecommunications

In addition to the economic benefits, one of the main effects of mobile phones is their impact on wider societal issues as intimated by Deloitte/GSMA (2012). In Ghana, mobile telephony, by providing access to a reliable form of communication, has connected the previously unconnected and transformed the way people live their lives. The proliferation of mobile telephony has streamlined business processes, reduced costs and increased the productivity of workers, including those in the informal sector, which constitutes the bulk of the national workforce (Teppeh, 2011). Mobile phones are bringing the Ghanaian communities more closely together even though they are miles apart. It is also improving business to business transactions with the ability to instantly access information (Koufie et al., 2012).

The telecommunication companies are visible in many sectors of the economy including health, environmental sanitation, media development and education and are also involved in various social responsibility programmes and foundations that affect the lives of people, especially the vulnerable in society. The presence of mobile service providers is evident in every facet of the economic spectrum of the country. From sponsoring major sporting events such as the 2010 South Africa hosted World Cup tournament; the national football league; donating to underprivileged children; infusion of capital into the economy during their initial setups; sponsoring talent shows; paying millions in taxes to the government's coffers as they operate; installation of new cell towers to extend coverage areas to expand range of connectivity; opening service centres and retail store fronts for their products and creating much needed high paying jobs (Koufie et al., 2012) are some of their contributions to the economy.

The combination of the features and attributes of mobile phones in transactional activities in trade has generated strategic, relational and operational benefits to Ghanaian traders (Frempong, 2002). The positive impact of the mobile is furthered by the use of 3G services that provides access to the internet, which is associated with an extensive range of benefits for both consumers and businesses in Ghana. Mobile services promote digital inclusion, which refers to the principal that the benefits of ICT should be available to all, regardless of location or socioeconomic status. Mobile services can reduce communication and transaction costs, making it less costly for Ghanaians to conduct everyday business operations and supporting the expansion of businesses and enterprises. Lower costs also enable a more effective delivery of public services. In particular, mobile and broadband communication

offers an effective means of bringing healthcare and education services to remote and under-served areas through e-government initiatives and mobile applications (Deloitte/GSMA, 2015).

2.9 Service Delivery and Customer Satisfaction by Mobile Service Providers

According to a survey conducted by Nimako and Azumah (2009),which included one thousand (1000) mobile phone users subscribed to different providers in Ghana, they found that, irrespective of the mobile telecom network, customer satisfaction was low: neither equal to nor better than the desires and expectations of the customers. Several studies and authors have extensively discussed the various determinants of customer satisfaction, particularly in the mobile telecom industry. Some of these authors demonstrated that, within the mobile telecommunications services, the core elements sought by consumers from service providers are the ability to make calls without experiencing call drops or breakages, voice clarity during calls and not having any interference within the calls (Lim, Widdows and Park, 2006; Eshghi, Haughton and Topi, 2007; Pezeshki, Mousavi and Grant, 2009). Furthermore, available literature also revealed a positive linkage between network charges (rates of making calls and sending SMS) and customer satisfaction. With this they explained that particularly low income earners (students) have much regard for the network charges as a prerequisite for selecting a network provider and also determining their satisfaction. In the same respect, some authors revealed that consumers demand value for their money and thus their satisfaction levels are in most cases determined by the quality associated with the cost they are paying for the services (Nysveen, Pedersen, Per and Thorbjørnsen, 2005; Shin and Kim, 2008). Call dropping, cost to business and social relationships, and call delays are some of the complaints that have been raised by some mobile phone users (Boateng, 2013). Additionally, there are concerns about weaknesses in security, access to emergency services, the provision of location information and the integrity of communications (Sutherland, 2007). Subscribers have fewer problems with their mobile telephone as an enabler of economic activities than with the service itself and problems of quality of service.

In Ghana, subscribers feel that there is the need for mobile telephone companies to improve on service delivery. Subscribers complain about service instability (poor reception, call drops) and irregularities (including unexplained deduction of credit, especially during credit transfer) (Frempong, 2009). Mobile subscribers have resorted to multiple subscriptions to

avoid the challenges of unexpected network failure, congestion and poor or limited network coverage (Frempong, 2009).

The National Communications Authority (NCA), in an attempt to enhance the quality of service by telecommunication companies, commenced enforcement of its mandated quality of service (QoS) key performance indicators (KPIs) in 2011. The tests of the QoS as outlined by the NCA, focused on call set up rates, call congestion rates, and call drop rates; and are based on consumers' perspectives of the quality of service they receive from their service provider (NCA, 2015). Pursuant to this, and based on the specified criteria, the NCA have, from time to time, sanctioned various telecommunications network operators who were in violation of service quality standards (NCA, 2015).

Sakyi-Addo (2011), Chief Executive Officer of the Ghana Chamber of Telecommunications, has opined that the country has been faced with challenges such as theft of power cables, unreliable energy supply, locals' resistance to the telecom's mast siting in their suburbs, and other problems that the telecom operators had very minimal control over and those challenges are largely to blame for the quality of service breaches for which telecom operators were being fined heavily.

2.10 History and Activities of Vodafone

The telecommunications sector of Ghana is one of the most liberalized markets in Africa. The market has two national fixed-network operators and six operating mobile telephone companies. The fixed-line telephone segment is almost a monopolistic market since Vodafone Ghana controls almost 98% of the market, while Airtel, the second network provider, has only 2% market share.

Unlike the fixed-line telephone market, there is rigorous competition in the mobile telephone market and this has contributed to an improved penetration rate in the country. In 2008, telephone penetration stood at 52.4%, of which mobile telephones contributed 99%. The analysis showed that the deployment of fixed-line telephones has been on the decline and between 2003 and 2008 it experienced a negative Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of 13.1%, while mobile telephones had a positive CAGR of 70.8%.

Ghana Government privatized Ghana Telekom (GT) to Telekom Malaysia Berhard in a bid to restructure Ghana's telecommunications industry to make it more vibrant and commercially

viable. This first ever merger in the telecommunications industry in Ghana was a three year Technical Services Agreement (TSA) where G-Com Limited, a consortium led by Telekom Malaysia Berhard acquired a 30% share of Ghana Telecom from the Government of Ghana (GOG) for thirty million US dollar (US$30M) on 20th February 1997. Exactly three years later, when the contract expired, GOG did not renew the contract due to failure bythe Telekom Malaysia Berhard partners to meet its operating targets agreed upon in the TSA.

In order for the company to function as a commercially viable entity, it was split into two autonomous divisions by the Government of Ghana - Ghana Postal Services and Ghana Telecom. Two years later, Ghana Technology was privatized to G-Com Ltd and was subsequently contracted to Telenor Management Partners (TMP) of Norway to manage. A Ghanaian management team then took over the affairs prior to Vodafone's acquisition. The company applies the latest industry technology and is keen on building the most versatile network. Currently, Vodafone Ghana employs 1,159 members of staff.

Vodafone in Ghana is one of the latest additions to Vodafone Group Plc, the world's leading mobile telecommunications company. This follows the successful acquisition of 70% shares in Ghana Telecommunications Company (GT) for $900 million dollars by Vodafone International Plc on July 23, 2008. The company was established after World War II as a wing of the then Post and Telecommunications Corporation.

2.11 Geographical Coverage

Vodafone Group Plc is making significant in-roads in Africa and currently operates in Kenya, South Africa, Tanzania and Mozambique. It has a significant presence in Europe, the Middle East, Asia Pacific and the United States through the company's subsidiary undertakings, joint ventures, associated undertakings and investments.

Vodafone Ghana has over seven million customers. Vodafone Group has more than 315 million customers worldwide, excluding paging customers, calculated on a proportionate basis in accordance with its percentage interest in these ventures. Operational in 31 countries, the company is ranked among the top 10 global companies by market capitalization.

2.12 Current Activities

The company has a deep sense of social responsibility. This is done through responsible employee volunteerism, providing access to communication in deprived communities and investing hundreds of thousands of cedis through the Vodafone Ghana Foundation in social causes.

The Vodafone Ghana Foundation, which is the charity arm of Vodafone Ghana, was launched in 2009 to support sustainable initiatives that drive social change, improve people's lives and solve pressing social needs. Vodafone Ghana Foundation believes that mobile communications can help address some of the world's compelling humanitarian needs and improve living conditions.

2.13 World of Difference

The World of Difference programme was introduced to encourage volunteerism and social support for various communities across the country. World of Difference is an initiative that provides ordinary Ghanaians the opportunity to contribute their skills to community development or projects with support from the Vodafone Foundation. Since its launch, over 50 Ghanaians from eight regions across the country have volunteered their services in diverse fields. The volunteers worked with NGOs in their respective areas of interest and expertise to ensure that they had the needed support to undertake their projects. Vodafone Ghana Foundation, through this initiative, has introduced a number of sustainable projects across the country.

MTN Foundation has spent GhC14.5million on CSR projects in the last six years in Ghana. MTN Foundation has projects in health, education and community empowerment across Ghana. Indeed all the telecommunications companies are involved in CSR activities since it has become a strategic tool in Ghana.

2.13.1 Health

Vodafone Healthline is a revolutionary health talk show that addresses the health concerns of Ghanaians through a combination of education and entertainment. The initiative undertaken by Vodafone entails HIV/AIDS screening and counselling, TB vaccination, malaria eradication, maternal health issues, drug addiction in women, intellectual disability issues,

and distribution of insecticide treated mosquito nets. Vodafone's Health line 255, the first medical phone service in the sub-region, is making a huge impact on the lives of hundreds of people, particularly those in rural Ghana. According to the most recent report for Ghana's first medical call centre, it has so far received thirty-two thousand calls since it was launched in September 2013. The majority of the calls were from men with the top five complaints listed as abdominal pain, headache, back pain and male sexual problems. It is the first of its kind in Africa and provides expert medical advice to people in need of quality healthcare from the convenience of their phones. Health line 255 opens daily from 4pm to 10pm including Sundays. The triage system is currently used by eighty million people worldwide across Europe, Australia, India and Brazil to power their National Health Service (ghanaweb, 2014).

2.13.2 Agriculture

Vodafone advocates the use of agrochemicals; instituted a mango farm initiative for an orphanage whilst mobilizing farmer-based organisations for agricultural input support and marketing of farm produce.

2.13.3 Education

Vodafone Ghana has set up reading clinics, catering and vocational training for both the physically and mentally challenged, sign language education, refurbishment of an Early Childhood Development Centre, ICT training in deprived communities, science education, and alternative livelihood skills training.

2.13.4 Others

Vodafone Ghana engages in educating communities on waste management, fighting child labour, supporting the elderly and bio-sand water filtration.

2.13.5 Vodafone Ghana Foundation Supports Children Living with Cerebral Palsy

In September 2012, Vodafone Ghana Foundation partnered United Way Ghana (UWG) and Global Media Alliance to support children suffering from cerebral palsy. The Foundation donated GHC 40,000 as seed capital for the construction of a rehabilitation centre, which included a physiotherapy room and a hostel for staff.

2.13.6 Turnover

With reference to Vodafone's annual report 2013, Vodafone has strong returns to shareholders with total dividends for the year of 10.19 pence and £1.6 billion invested in share buybacks. Total cash returns to shareholders during the year amounted to £6.4 billion.

2.13.7 Strong Capital Discipline

The Vodafone Board considers the ordinary dividend to be the core element of shareholder remuneration, and something on which shareholders should be able to depend. This year the ordinary dividend per share was raised by 7% for the third year in a row, and the company remains focused on at least maintaining the dividend per share at this level in the future. In addition, during the year Vodafone completed a £6.8 billion share buyback programme, funded by the disposal of non-controlling interests, and committed an additional £1.5 billion to share buybacks on receipt of a further dividend from VZW in December, 2012.

Vodafone has demonstrated a highly disciplined approach to capital allocation, and will continue to manage its portfolio of assets in the best interest of shareholders. Taking ordinary and special dividends, and the buyback programmes, total cash returns to shareholders has been equivalent to approximately 34% of Vodafone's average market capitalisation over the last four years. Furthermore, in the period from 1 April, 2010 to 20 May, 2013, share prices have out-performed the STOXX Europe 600 Index by 20.9%.

2.14 Summary of Chapter Two

This chapter has sought to provide an understanding and appreciation of the context within which the study is being undertaken. It reviews developments within the global telecommunications industry, mobile telecommunications industry in Africa and West Africa, with special attention given to Ghana's mobile telecommunications industry. From all indications, the mobile telecommunications industry has entered an era of total competition worldwide. In Ghana, the story is no different. Over the past few years, it has become one of the fastest growing industries in Ghana. With a penetration rate at unprecedented levels, competition is intensive with the telecommunications companies jostling for space and market share.

Besides making a significant contribution to the economic development of the country, telecommunications 'impact, socially, has also been enormous. Through various institutional and regulatory regimes, activities in the country's mobile telecommunications sector have, to a large extent, been streamlined. Various policy initiatives have also been carried out enhancing the levels of service delivery to customers. However, the industry, and for that matter service providers, are bedevilled with a myriad of challenges that, if not addressed, could derail some achievements made so far. The next chapter reviews literature on CSR and how CSR influences brand value.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

3.1 Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has become one of the most talked about subjects in business and politics today. The CSR debate has assumed national, international and global dimensions. Business organisations intending to maintain and increase their market share must therefore take a critical look at the subject. This chapter reviews the literature on CSR and its implications for business policy and branding issues in Ghana and Africa, and proposes suitable CSR theories and principles that are unique and compatible with African culture and values. This chapter also attempts to derive some hypotheses from the CSR literature that will be tested later to achieve the objectives of this study.

The concept of CSR was originally coined by Berle and Means (1930) who advocated upholding the rights of shareholders by greater transparency and accountability in large organisations where 'ownership' and 'control' are separated due to regulatory instruments. Whilst their arguments are limited to corporate power and its impact on US society, the underlying values of transparency and accountability reflect the current scenario of CSR, although in an informal manner. The focus on this changing notion of 'private property' towards public ownership of corporations was initiated soon after the Wall Street crash of 1929 when the ideologies of capitalism revealed corporate irresponsibility (Sen, 2011). Bowen (1953) defines CSR as 'the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society'.

Bowen's concepts expected businesses to produce social goods such as: (1) higher standards of living; (2) widespread economic progress and security; (3) order, justice and freedom, and finally; (4) the development of the individual person. He therefore conceptualised CSR as a social obligation with a broader perspective rather than mere business responsibilities. In his view, CSR includes corporate citizenship, stewardship, social audit, responsiveness and rudimentary stakeholder theory.

Carroll (1999a) claims that most academics believe that Bowen's (1953) work marked the beginning of the modern period of academic literature on CSR and therefore he can be

considered as the "Father of Corporate Social Responsibility" (Carroll, 1999b, p. 270). CSR has spread geographically from its original US setting (Bowen, 1953) to become a global concept (Matten and Crane, 2005; Scherer and Palazzo, 2007), becoming particularly well established in Europe (Habisch, Jonker, Werner and Schmidpeter, 2005).

The traditional attitude towards the non-economic responsibilities of business was first popularized by the marketing guru Ted Levitt (1958), but is most commonly represented by quoting Nobel prize-winning economist, Milton Friedman. Friedman (1970) asserts that "the business of business is to maximise profits, to earn a good return on capital invested and to be a good corporate citizen obeying the law – no more and no less. To go further in a deliberate fashion is to exceed the mandate of business. It is to make what amounts to an ideological stand with someone else's money and possibly to engage in activities with which many stockholders would not agree".

Around the beginning of the twentieth century a backlash against large corporations began to gain momentum. Big business was criticized for being too powerful and for practising anti-social and anti-competitive practices. Laws and regulations, such as the Sherman Antitrust Act, were enacted to rein in the large corporations and to protect employees, consumers, and society at large. An associated movement sometimes called the "social gospel" advocated greater attention to the working class and the poor. Between 1900 and 1960, the business world gradually began to accept additional responsibilities other than making a profit and obeying the law.

3.2 The Origins of CSR

The early writings of Bowen (1953), Davis (1973), Frederick (1960), McGuire (1963) and Walton (1967) indicated that firms and businessmen were expected to look at concerns that are wider than the technical and economic aspects of the firms. Frederick (1960) explained CSR as the use of society's resources, economic and human, in such a way that the whole society gets maximum benefits beyond the corporate entities and their owners. His explanation clearly indicates that the responsibility of management is not just creating wealth for the business, but for the society as well. Davis (1960, p. 70) suggests that 'social responsibility refers to the businessmen's decision and action taken for reasons, at least, partially beyond the firm's direct economic and technical interest'.

CSR being a nebulous idea, he believed, could possibly bring enduring economic gains to the organisation as a return for its socially responsible stance. His 'iron law of responsibility' states: 'social responsibilities of businessmen need to be commensurate with their social power', echoing the significance of 'social values' and 'corporate power' previously identified by Bowen (1953) and Berle and Means (1932) respectively.

In 1961, Eells and Walton expressed their views about corporate power by explaining CSR in terms of problems that arise when a corporate enterprise meddles in the social scene and the ethical principles that ought to govern the relationships between the corporation and society. Each of these prominent writers of the decade had their own interpretations of CSR, although all of them unanimously agree on the fact that business responsibility should go beyond the economic interests of the organisation. Such theories can be considered as the basis of the modern CSR concepts, which were refined in later years.

Walton (1967) in his book introduces the element of voluntarism on the part of firms and posits that firms do not get economic return for engaging in CSR activities. Walton further explains that external stakeholders have a different set of priorities; enterprises have options, and voluntary actions to meet the expectations of external stakeholders. This demonstrated that Walton saw a link between a firm's social responsibility and its financial performance in contrast to Davis's (1960) view that saw a negative correlation because of the intangible benefits of CSR activities (Sen, 2011).

In the 1970s, the number of authors writing and making reference to CSR increased rapidly. The convention of CSR is identified by Johnson (1971, p. 50) as being that 'a socially responsible firm is one whose managerial staff balances a multiplicity of interests instead of striving only for larger profits for its shareholders'. The second pluralistic definition, according to Johnson (1971, p. 59), is that 'social responsibility assumes that the prime motivation of the business firm is profit maximisation; that business seeks multiple goals rather than only profit maximisation'. This can be perceived as a forerunner of the stakeholder theory on CSR participation. Johnson believed a business can rank its goals and assign an importance to each target accordingly.

The Committee for Economic Development (CED) in 1971 articulated a triple concentric model of the concept. The inner circle includes the clear-cut basic responsibilities for the efficient execution of economic functions like productivity, job and economic growth

reflecting Friedman's (1962) notion of 'business responsibility'. The intermediate circle encompasses responsibility of economic function with regard to changing social values and priorities, such as environmental conservation, employee relations and more rigorous expectations of customers for information, fair treatment and protection from injury. The outer circle outlined newly emerging and still amorphous responsibilities that the business should assume to become more broadly involved in actively improving the social environment (Sen, 2011).

In response to the CED's (1971) separation of economic and the broader social responsibilities across stakeholders, Davis (1973) contends that CSR is a firm's response to issues beyond the narrow economic, technical and legal requirements of a firm and therefore it begins where the law ends. Other researchers of this period had similar views. CSR was distinguished by its long (as against short) term managerial focus (Steiner, 1971) and by its discretionary rather than mandated actions (Manne and Wallich, 1972).

Eilbert and Parket (1973) introduced the concept of community in CSR literature and define CSR using the term 'neighbourhood' as 'perhaps the best way to understand social responsibility is to think of it as good neighbours' (p.7). Eells and Walton (1974) took a broader view of corporate activities, which could be assumed as moving towards the concept of social license that was to emerge more fully nearly thirty years later. They suggested that a corporate executive must remain grounded in his/her philosophy, open in his/her attitude and able to take decisive actions that are immediately profitable and compatible with the accepted values of his/her society.

Sethi (1975) expounded a similar idea based on enterprises as an integral part of the society. He proposed a three-tiered model that classified corporate behaviour in terms of increasing levels of commitment by enterprises, namely, social obligation (a response to legal and market constraints); social responsibility (congruent with societal norms); and social responsiveness (adaptive, anticipatory and preventive). In Sethi's view, social responsibility goes beyond social obligation and includes the need to bring corporate behaviour up to a level where it is congruent with the prevailing social norms, values and expectations of all stakeholders.

Ackerman and Bauer (1976) argue that the success of CSR programmes is dependent on the chief executive officers of large companies and owners in SMEs, who should be champions

in displaying business responsibility. Secondly, they argue that enterprises should be proactive in that both external and internal stakeholders can participate in CSR. Until this time, CSR was viewed as being either a reactive (corporate social responsibility) or a proactive (corporate social responsiveness) process and therefore very little information about the types of CSR was available.

The question of how to reconcile the firm's economic orientation with its social orientation remains. Carroll described the CED's model as 'a great contribution to the concept of CSR, which illustrates the changing relationship between business and society (Carroll, 1999b, p. 274). She adds: 'Business is being asked to assume broader responsibilities to society than ever before and to serve a wider range of human values. Business enterprises, in effect, are being asked to contribute more to the quality of American life than just supplying quantities of goods and services. In as much as business exists to serve society, its future will depend on the quality of management's response to the changing expectations of the public (CED in Carroll, 1999, p. 274). Carroll (1979) developed a four-part corporate social performance model presented in Figure 3.1. Carroll's model included Friedman's (1970) view of the responsibilities of the firm.

The component parts of this CSR pyramid are focused on capitalistic and societal expectations. In its first conception, the framework was developed from a retrospective developmental perspective, based on the claim that the 'history of business suggests an early emphasis on the economic and then legal aspects and later a concern for the ethical and discriminatory aspects' (Carroll, 1979, p. 500). This means that businesses have economic issue as the basic foundation followed by legal, before ethics and philanthropic actions. In other words, the success of philanthropic actions depends on the success of ethics, legal and economic wellbeing of firms. Carroll's model cleared the earlier argument that organisations' philanthropic activities are on the same level in terms of priority as economic and legal, and helped in reconciling the firm's economic orientation with its social orientation (Sen, 2011).

Figure 3.1: Carroll (1979) CSR Pyramid

Source: Carroll (1979)

One of the first noteworthy definitions in the 1980s was that of Jones (1980) who defines CSR as the 'notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups and society other than stockholders and beyond that prescribed by law and union contract'. He acknowledges that business and society are interwoven as opposed to being distinct entities. Carroll (1999a) points out that a key part of the above definition is how 'this obligation is broad and voluntary'. In 1981, Frank Tuzzolino and Barry Armandi developed a more effective tool for assessing CSR using Carroll's (1979) definition of CSR and Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs model. A similar attempt was made by Dalton and Cosier (1982) in their 2x2 matrix model, where CSR has four faces – responsible, irresponsible, legal and illegal.

However, these factors were difficult to interpret in different contexts (Carroll, 1999a). Numerous authors had tried to develop tools for assessing CSR by the time Freeman (1984) published his landmark book Strategic Management that provides the basis for stakeholder theory, which is widely accepted by contemporary business organisations as a useful way of

investigating an organisational approach to CSR. For the purpose of this study, Freeman's approach was taken into consideration in the investigation and interpretation of the SMEs' involvement in CSR. Wartick and Cochran (1985) developed another model based on Carroll's (1979) construct of corporate social performance, acknowledging the primacy of economic performance.

Their corporate social performance model extends the three-dimensional integration of responsibility, responsiveness and social issues that Carroll (1979) had previously introduced as a framework of principles, processes and policies. Epstein (1987) defines CSR as 'achieving outcomes from organisational decisions concerning specific issues which have beneficial rather than adverse effects on pertinent corporate stakeholders' (p. 104). He viewed the three concepts – social responsibility, social responsiveness and business ethics - as 'corporate social policy processes'.

The most interesting aspect of Epstein's definition of CSR and 'corporate social policy process', is the use of 'outcomes' and 'processes'. He explains CSR as the achievement of certain outcomes but when viewed with other constructs, such as business ethics and social responsiveness, was part of the process. This idea somewhat contradicts Jones's (1980) definition of CSR as a process in and of itself. As evident from these two contrasting perspectives, CSR continued to be enigmatic (Sen, 2011).

Solomon (1997) indicated that new businesses are often the most powerful institutions in the world and the expanse of social responsibility has been enlarged to include areas formerly considered as the domain of governments. The more powerful businesses become the more responsibility for the well-being of the world it will be expected to bear (Solomon 1997, p. 202). As the new millennium approached, Carroll (1999b, p. 292) also suggested that the CSR concept would remain as an essential part of the business language and practice because it is a vital underpinning to many of the theories and is continually consistent with what the public expects of the business community today.

3.3 CSR in 21st Century

Academics like Lucas et al. (2001), Maignan and Ralston (2002), Aaronson (2003), and Perrini et al. (2006) on studies of CSR in Australia, France, The Netherlands, UK, and Italy, argue that all organisations have an impact on society and the environment through their

operations, products and services, and through their interaction with key stakeholders; and therefore, CSR is important in large and small firms (Williams, 2005; Roche, 2002). A survey conducted by PricewaterhouseCoopers in early 2002 found that nearly 70% of the global chief executives believed that addressing corporate social responsibility was vital to their companies' profitability (Simms, 2002). CSR has moved from ideology to reality and is now acknowledged as an important dimension of contemporary business practice. Business leaders give increasing importance to this topic, recognizing that CSR is an important component of business survival and success in the 21st century.

The management and marketing literature has significantly contributed to defining and characterizing the phenomenon of CSR (De Bakker et al., 2005; Garriga and Melé, 2004), as well as developing the discussion concerning best practice (Esty and Winston, 2006; Savitz and Weber, 2006). Francesco Perrini (2006) suggests the use of theories to investigate CSR. suggested that CSR in large firms should be based on stakeholder theory while CSR in SMEs should be understood through the application of social capital theory. Russo and Perrini (2010) modified the above conclusion and restated it as 'social capital and stakeholder theory should be taken as alternative ways of explaining CSR in large organisations and SMEs'. Hogan (2007) made a statement that depicted the importance of CSR in the 21st century. He claimed both the developed and developing worlds are rapidly reaching the point where they must decide if today's global CSR movement is a passing social fad, a threat to economically efficient corporate capitalism, an intrinsic element of corporate responsibility, or even a key to humanity's long-term survival. CSR literacy is quickly becoming a primary imperative for a variety of actors in a multiplicity of roles across governmental, business, and community sectors nationally and internationally. While the deep structure of the debate over corporate social responsibility remains constant over the years, each decade supplies its own reason why corporations should assume greater responsibility. Corporate social responsibility is not a novel solution to an unchanging problem; quite the contrary, it is an unchanging solution to an ever-new problem (Wells, 2002).

3.4 Various CSR Definitions

More widely, CSR encompasses the extent to which companies should promote human rights, democracy, community improvement and sustainable development objectives throughout the world (Confederation of British Industry, 2001a). Business for Social Responsibility defines CSR as 'operating a business in a manner that meets or exceeds the

ethical, legal, commercial and public expectations that society has of businesses. Corporate social responsibility refers to managements' obligation to set policies, make decisions and follow courses of action beyond the requirements of the law that are desirable in terms of the values and objectives of society (Mosley et al., 1996,p. 141). CSR is the awareness that firms have an obligation towards society, other than their usual stakeholders. This obligation is higher than only meeting the legal requirements (Jones, 1980; Davis, 1973).

Jones (1980) posits that policy that is called CSR has to meet two requirements: (i) the obligation has to be voluntarily adopted; and (ii) the obligation has to be broad, beyond the regular obligation towards shareholders, towards groups like customers, employees and suppliers, and neighbouring communities.

Corporate social responsibility has been defined as "the integration of business operations and values whereby the interests of all stakeholders, including customers, employees, investors, and the environment, are reflected in the organisation's policies and actions" (Smith, 2002, p. 42); and "the obligation of the firm to use its resources in ways to benefit society, through committed participation as a member of society, taking into account the society at large, and improving the welfare of society at large independently of direct gains of the company" (Kok et al., 2001, p. 287). The term "corporate sustainability" (CS) is also associated to CSR. The term "sustainable development", that is, development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Antal and Sobczak, 2007), is an interesting perspective. Boone and Kurtz (1989) refer to those management philosophies, policies, procedures and actions that have the advancement of society's welfare as one of their primary objectives.

The Ghana chamber of mines (2006) defines CSR as the broader responsibilities that result from the relationship that a company develops with both the environment and society in an effort to jointly achieve an integrated environmental management system and satisfy social objectives. The CSR concept has developed from almost uncoordinated and voluntary practices into a more explicit engagement in response to stakeholder pressures and eventually into a more definite future commitment. With these changing perspectives of CSR, a significant body of literature has been produced but the problems of definition remain (Clarkson, 1995).

Corporate citizenship and corporate social responsibility are often used interchangeably, although Waddock (2003, p. 3) argues that corporate citizenship necessarily places a strong emphasis on "developing mutually beneficial, interactive and trusting relationships between the company and its many stakeholders" while corporate social responsibility does not necessarily involve stakeholder engagement.

CSR practices may be considered as discretionary (Kotler and Lee, 2005) or representing more sustained commitment (Holme and Watts, 2000). Similarly, CSR activities could be construed as voluntary (European Commission, 2001) or more of a commitment/obligation in nature (Anderson, 1989; Epstein, 1987; Jones, 1980). CSR practices may be conceived as dynamic and process based (Maclagan, 1998) or more focused to a particular condition or state within a clearly defined boundary (Jones, 1980).

Finally, CSR activities may be directed towards all stakeholders (Holme and Watts, 2000) or to a more specific group of stakeholders (Epstein, 1987; Maclagan, 1998). CSR is also defined as "business's relationship with society and its responsibility in the political arena associated with this power" (Garriga and Melé, 2004, p. 51). Garriga and Melé (2004) argue that political CSR theories include corporate constitutionalism (Davis, 1960); integrative social contract theory (Donaldson, 1982) and corporate citizenship (Davis, 1973; Crane et al., 2004). Taking this political view of the business a step further, Crane, Matten and Moon (2004) argue that businesses have very important, if not easily reconcilable, roles: in being like citizens, in governing human citizenship and in constituting arenas for humans to play out their citizenship roles. In the context of this study, Maignan and colleagues' (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999) operational definition of CSR will be used. Drawing upon an extensive body of literature, they argue that CSR can be defined as "the extent to which businesses meet the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders" (Maignan and Ferrell, 2000, p. 284). Leveraging Carroll's (1979, 1991) work on CSR, this definition includes four main social responsibilities.

Foremost, with respect to their ethical responsibilities, firms have an obligation to abide by moral rules defining appropriate behaviours in society. Secondly, firms have a responsibility to produce profits and meet consumption needs, which are part of their economic responsibilities. Thirdly, discretionary responsibilities refer to business activities that are not required by law or are not mandated, but are expected by stakeholders as a demonstration of

good citizenship. Fourthly, firms have a legal responsibility to fulfil their economic mission within a legal framework while complying with all in-effect laws. Examples include investing in local social enterprises or providing training to employees.

Closely linked to the operational definition of CSR by Maignan and Ferrell (2000) is a contribution from the stakeholder perspective. The CSR Foundation in Ghana has defined CSR as a planned, systematic and ethical corporate behaviour that meets statutory and regulatory requirements beyond an organisation's mission statement/charter and also satisfies the needs of all stakeholders and social imperatives in a transparent and sustainable manner for development.

3.5 Stakeholder Theory

The originator of the stakeholder concept, Freeman, defined stakeholders as any group or individuals who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives (1984). More recently, Freeman et al. (2004) redefined the term as "those groups who are vital to the survival and success of the corporation". The WBCSD (1999) identified stakeholders as representatives from labour organisations, academia, churches, indigenous people, human rights groups, government and NGOs, shareholders, employees, customers/consumers, suppliers, communities and legislators. Further, Friedman and Miles (2006) identified stakeholders as customers, employees, local communities, suppliers and distributors as well as shareholders. Other groups and individuals are also considered stakeholders, including the media, the public, business partners, future generations, past generations (founders of organisations), academics, competitors, NGOs or activists, stakeholder representatives such as trade unions or trade associations of suppliers or distributors, financiers other than stockholders (debt holders, bondholders and creditors), competitors and government, regulators and policy makers.

The term 'stakeholder' first appeared in management literature in an internal memorandum at the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) in 1963 (Freeman, 1984, p. 31). SRI defined stakeholders as those 'groups on which the organisation is dependent for its continued survival'. This definition is based on the traditional view of the firm, and limits its focus to shareholders as the owners whose needs are the only goals of the business. The core idea underlying this concept is that organisations are required to address a set of stakeholder expectations, and management choice is a function of stakeholder influences (Brenner and

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Cochran, 1991). Most approaches to CSR rest upon acceptance of 'stakeholder theory' often associated with Professor Freeman of the Darden School of Business. Jones and Wicks (1999) summarise the basic tenets of stakeholder theory as follows:

I. The corporation has relationships with many constituent groups (stakeholders) that affect and are affected by its decisions;

II. The theory is concerned with the nature of these relationships in terms of both processes and outcomes for the firm and its stakeholders;

III. The interest of all (legitimate) stakeholders has intrinsic value, and no set of interests is assumed to dominate the others; and

IV. The theory focuses on managerial decision making.

Increasingly, corporations are motivated to become more socially responsible because their most important stakeholders expect them to understand and address the social and community issues that are relevant to them. Understanding what causes are important to employees is usually the first priority because of the many interrelated business benefits that can be derived from increased employee engagement (i.e. more loyalty, improved recruitment, increased retention, higher productivity, and so on).

Key external stakeholders include customers, consumers, investors (particularly institutional investors), and communities in the areas where the corporation operates its facilities, regulators, academics, and the media. Branco and Rodrigues (2007) describe the stakeholder perspective of CSR as the inclusion of all groups or constituents (rather than just shareholders) in managerial decision making related to the organisation's portfolio of socially responsible activities. This normative model implies that the CSR collaborations are positively accepted when they act in the interest of stakeholders and may have no effect or be detrimental to the organisation if they are not directly related to stakeholder interests. The stakeholder perspective suffers from a wheel and spoke network metaphor that does not acknowledge the complexity of network interactions that can occur in cross sector partnerships. It also relegates communication to a maintenance function, similar to the exchange perspective.

According to Berrone et al. (2007), CSR – through stakeholder satisfaction – would lead to enhanced performance precisely because it is prone to create such intangible assets in terms of image and reputation. It would be these intangible, difficult-to-replicate assets (Branco and

Rodrigues, 2006; Hillman and Keim, 2001; Lantos, 2001; Roberts and Dowling, 2002; Schnietz and Epstein, 2005) that would create a kind of competitive advantage that would ultimately lead to an enhanced financial performance. Freeman et al. (2010) mention that stakeholder theory is compatible with Friedman's (1962) assertion that it maximises shareholder value since "the only way to maximise value sustainably is to satisfy stakeholders". The stakeholder theory and principle seeks to analyze those groups to whom a firm should be responsible. Freeman (1984) defines a stakeholder as any group or individual who can affect or be affected by the achievement of an organisation's objectives.

Thus, corporate social responsibility means the organisation should be held accountable for any of its actions that affect people, communities and the environment in which those people or communities live (Fredrick, 1986). Friedman believes successful business means the firm is maximising profits. He believes that in order to maximise profits, companies need great products and services that customers want; solid relationships with suppliers that keep operations on the cutting edge; inspired employees who stand for the company's mission and pushes the company to become better; and supportive communities that allow businesses to flourish.

Steib (2009) vehemently argues against Freeman's (2002) claim that he could "revitalise the concept of managerial capitalism by replacing the notion that managers have a duty to stockholders with the concept that managers bear a fiduciary relationship to stakeholders" (p.39). He further criticises Freeman and Phillip's (2002) stakeholder theory: a libertarian defence on the grounds that different opinions and interpretations of stakeholder theory put forward by Freeman et al. are contradictory. Several other authors (Elms, Berman and Wicks, 2002; Key, 1999) also question the credibility of this theory claiming that it lacks a theoretical foundation that can be tested. Nevertheless, as Key et al. (2004) mention, the stakeholder approach still extends the ability to investigate issues like CSR in business management theories.

3.5.1 Instrumental Stakeholder Theory

This theory has been used to determine whether there is a link between stakeholder management and different corporate objectives such as profitability and growth. Donaldson and Preston (1995) explained that all research on CSR makes explicit or implicit reference to stakeholder perspectives using conventional statistical methodologies.

Further, some studies have used direct observations and interviews to generate implications suggesting that adherence to stakeholder principles and practices achieve conventional corporate performance objectives as well or better than the rival approach.

3.5.2 Normative Stakeholder Theory

Normative stakeholder theory identifies the theoretical procedure linked to the activities or the management of corporations (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). Donaldson and Preston considered this the core of stakeholder theory and identified the main objectives of normative theory as the determination of the responsibilities of the company in respect of stakeholders and the reasons why companies should take care of the stakeholders' interest rather than shareholder interest. The conceptual model of this thesis is based on the Normative Stakeholder Theory, which relates the type of CSR activities of firms in Africa and Ghana to environment, health, education, ethics and community.

3.5.3 Limitations of the Stakeholder Theory

The limitations of the stakeholder theory have been discussed by a number of authors. Capron (2003) cited in Branco and Rodrigues (2006) pointed out that stakeholder theory has not addressed the mute stakeholders (the natural environment) and absent stakeholders (future generations or potential victims). Phillips and Reichart (2000) also pointed out that the natural environment should be considered a stakeholder. However, this viewpoint has been criticised since the natural environment cannot be considered a stakeholder. The term "stakeholders" usually refers to groups or individuals and therefore, the natural environment cannot be considered a stakeholder (Buchholz, 1991) - only humans can be considered as organisational stakeholders (Branco and Rodrigues, 2007, p. 7). Another criticism is that the power of stakeholder groups is weakened by stakeholder theory because the theory says that corporations should treat all equally. Thus, labour unions could be avoided, damaged or even eliminated (Weiss, 2008). In addition, corporations will become weak, because they will attempt to serve all stakeholders' interests. Corporations cannot cater for all stakeholders and protect their owners at the same time.

3.6 Social Contract Theory

The earliest element of the notion of a 'social contract' can be traced to Plato's "The Republic". However, the first definitive statements on social contract theory only emerged in

the 17th century through Thomas Hobbes Leviathan. Philosophers such as John Locke (1632-1704) and Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) expanded on Hobbes' work and developed it towards a different direction.

John Locke postulates that the shape of nature and the social environment is an apolitical yet moral society where social actors are compelled to conform to divinely ordered natural law. The contemporary version of the social contract theory attempted to show that individual and social groups have rights and liberties that are founded on mutually advantageous agreements that are made between members of society (Rawls, 1999). However, as Moir (2001) notes, although the social contract theory could explain the initial motivation, it might not explain the totality of a firm's involvement. It might be regarded as part of the commercial benefit of enhanced reputation, but also links to gaining and maintaining legitimacy, manipulating society by diverting attention away from the issue of concern or changing external expectations about its performance. A business might undertake corporate social behaviour, because the activity relates to the business's primary or secondary activity and that there is a business return (Preston and Post, 1975) or the business wishes to influence particular stakeholder groups.

The term "social contract", broadly speaking, refers to social networks, the reciprocities that arise from them and the value of these in the business environment. This emerging body of theory has been hailed as a critical link between the fields of economics, sociology and political science, signifying a re-convergence of considerations of the economy within a complex social and institutional environment. This theory has gained importance in CSR studies, particularly those that investigate the concept from the perspective of multinational businesses. This social contract implies some form of selfless behaviour – the converse of selfishness –whereas self-interest connotes selfishness (Crowther and Aras, 2010). Deegan and Gordon (1996) posit that a breach of the social contract is a failure to comply with societal expectations that may lead to a revolution of the contract. The firm then risks sanctions forced upon it by society.

3.7 Legitimacy Theory

Suchman (1995) defines legitimacy as a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs and definitions. This points out that the legitimacy theory rests heavily

on communication. Therefore, in an attempt to involve the legitimacy theory, there is a need to examine some forms of corporate communication. Thus, legitimacy may be seen as a key reason for undertaking corporate social responsibility. Organisational legitimacy does not arise from making a profit and abiding by legal requirements. Instead, reference to the prevailing norms and values of society is fundamental in ensuring that an organisation is bestowed legitimacy.

3.8 Types of CSR

The four kinds of social responsibility identified by Archie B. Carroll (1996) are legal responsibilities, ethical responsibilities, economic responsibilities, and philanthropic responsibilities.

3.8.1 Legal Responsibilities

According to Archie Carroll, the legal responsibility of a firm requires that there should be compliance with the law. This implies that the operations and activities of the organisation should be in conformity with laws from, inter alia, the national, regional, and district levels.

3.8.2 Ethical Responsibilities

Ethical responsibilities require that business entities show attitudes and behaviours that are consistent with social norms beyond what the law requires It reflects a concern for what consumers, employees, shareholders and the community regard as fair and also as a protection of a stakeholder's moral rights.

3.8.3 Economic Responsibility

Companies can maximize or make profit by producing quality goods and services that are required by society.

3.8.4 Philanthropic Responsibilities

A more common approach of CSR is philanthropy. This includes monetary donations and aid given to local organisations and impoverished communities in developing countries.

Some organisations do not like this approach as it does not help build on the skills of the local people, whereas community-based development generally leads to more sustainable

development. Organisations can engage in voluntary actions that enhance societal welfare. It is also known as voluntary or discretionary responsibilities. Examples of these responsibilities can include giving to charitable causes such as drilling bore-holes in deprived communities and many more.

3.9 Some Organisational Perspectives of CSR

3.9.1 The Rejection Approach

The rejection approach is a strategy in which a company denies any responsibility for taking action on a social issue. Sometimes a strategy of rejection is justified, as when fringe groups make unreasonable demands on corporations. In other cases, rejection and other defensive methods invite more pressure and a fight in which the corporate image can be damaged.

3.9.2 The Adversary Approach

With this strategy, a firm fights to avoid having to take social actions but will, under severe pressure, grudgingly give in. An approach to CSR is to incorporate the CSR strategy directly into the business strategy of an organisation. Another approach is garnering increasing corporate responsibility interest. This is called creating shared value, or CSV. The shared value model is based on the idea that corporate success and social welfare are interdependent. A business needs a healthy, educated workforce, sustainable resources and an adept government to compete effectively. For society to thrive, profitable and competitive businesses must be developed and supported to create income, wealth, tax revenue, and opportunities for philanthropy. Creating shared value received global attention in the Harvard Business Review article "Strategy and Society: The Link between Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility" (Skinner and Mersham, 2008).

3.9.3 Employee Pressure

The pressures from employees cited by Musah (2008) include the increasing public recognition of certain employee rights in the workplace, including non-discrimination in hiring, firing and promotion. Matten and Moon (2008) stated that CSR has clearly addressed issues such as fair wages, working hours and conditions, healthcare, redundancy and protection against unfair dismissal. An important example for reputable CSR index is that of employee pressure, by Lydenberg and Domini (KLD), which included four dimensions of CSR based on dimensions rated by KLD. These cover workplace and employee issues as

union relations, employee benefits and employee participation. KLD uses these employee issues for CSR measurement purposes (Waddock and Graves, 1997; Sharfman, 1996; Turban and Greening, 1997).

3.10 Limitation of Western CSR Theories and CSR in this Research

Whilst CSR emerged in the US to control irresponsible social behaviour of large organisations, it is not limited to the fulfilment of economic and legal responsibilities, the two most basic components of CSR identified by Carroll (1979). CSR has become a global, continental as well as regional issue. Africa's unique culture and history make the application of Western CSR theories ineffective.

Generally, CSR practice in Africa is thought to be adopted from Western business theories although there is evidence to suggest that Western CSR theories are not totally applicable in Africa. This is due to differences in drivers or causes of CSR in the West and in Africa, as well as cultural and managerial traits in Africa (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). The question worth examining is whether CSR practices developed for the West (as defined by Europe and America), are suited for CSR implementation in other parts of the world, particularly in a sub-Saharan African economy like Ghana.

CSR is a localized and socially embedded concept and, as such, the prevailing ideas, perceptions, issues addressed, and modes of practising CSR are reflections of organisations' responses to their socio-economic environment (Amaeshi et al., 2006). Visser's (2005) recommendation of an ideal Africanized version of Carroll's pyramid is a clear example of how it was employed to illustrate how CSR actually manifests in developing countries, rather than presenting an ideal view of what CSR in Africa should look like. For example, it is not proposed that legal and ethical responsibilities should get such a low priority, but rather that they do in practice.

CSR in the West is characterized by ethical concerns and activities closely governed by legislation, both formal and informal, that plays a very large role in business and for many stakeholders (such as employees, consumers and community leaders) in guiding the direction of the concept. In Africa, CSR activities consist mostly of those activities that add to infrastructure or the economic development of the community through job creation, taxation and so on. Topical issues for CSR in Africa include health (HIV/Aids and malaria),

sanitation, sports and education. The application of Western CSR theory in Africa is not only limited by Africa's CSR drivers but also by its cultural and managerial traits.

Traditional African approaches to community, leadership and business are at times at variance with the very principles upon which Western theories are built. Africans are community-conscious, have a high respect for power distance relationships and believe in harmonious win-win relationships (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011). A report on CSR activities, which has been renamed CSI in South Africa, concludes that development in Africa requires the combined efforts of government, business and civil society to implement sustainable initiatives that improve the well-being of all sectors of society. For their part, CSI programmes should, therefore, support national government policies and priorities and align their projects with national goals and structures. They should be prepared to commit to medium and long-term interventions and should be strategic and designed over time to impact on whole nations.

The above conclusion clearly differs from Western CSR understanding in that Western governments are the main providers of the national development agenda. In Africa, we strongly argue that CSR must be part of the national development philosophy. The concept of social responsibility includes an organisation's relationship with the society in which it operates, and its involvement in problems of national significance that face that society (Mersham, 1992, pp. 54-5; 1993).

Another aspect of the development planning in the CSR context requires that attention be given to the establishment of partnerships between the organisation and the community in need of development. The impoverished and under skilled African communities can be given opportunities to contribute but it has to be carefully facilitated so that the authenticity of the process is maintained. While there will always be wide-ranging variations in the nature and scope of community development programmes, some basic commonalities in the African approach can be identified, as outlined by Mersham et al. (1995, pp. 103-4). As many representatives of national, regional and local government, alternative organisations, trade unions, civic associations, community groups, churches, welfare organisations, representatives of commerce and industry and political parties can identified as participants of community development issues in Africa.

In a typical example of a community development initiative, invitees would include traditional (tribal) leaders, welfare and charity groups, municipal officials, the local police chief, women's groups, trade unionists, a representative of the Provincial Government, the agricultural extension officer for the district, translators (if necessary), and representatives of appropriate faculties at the closest university (Skinner and Mesham, 2008). CSR in developing countries represent the formal and informal ways in which business and organisations make a contribution to improving the governance, social, ethical, labour and environmental conditions of the developing countries in which they operate, while remaining sensitive to prevailing religious, historical and cultural contexts. CSR in developing countries has the following distinctive characteristics (Visser, 2007):

- Tendency to be less formalised or institutionalized in terms of the CSR benchmarks commonly used in developed countries, i.e. CSR codes, standards, management systems and reports.
- Formality is usually practiced by large, high profile national and multinational companies, especially those with recognized international brands or those aspiring to global status.
- Formal CSR codes, standards, and guidelines that are most applicable to developing countries tend to be issue specific (e.g. fair trade, supply chain, HIV/AIDS) or sector-led (e.g. agriculture, textiles, mining).
- Association with philanthropy or charity, i.e. through corporate social investment in education, health, sports development, the environment, and other community services, in developing countries.
- Making an economic contribution is often seen as the most important and effective way for business to make a social impact, i.e. through investment, job creation, taxes, and technology transfer.
- Business often engage in the provision of social services that would be seen as government's responsibility in developed countries, for example, investment in infrastructure, schools, hospitals, and housing.
- Prioritization of issues under the CSR banner is often different in developing countries, for example, tackling HIV/AIDS, improving working conditions, provision of basic services, supply chain integrity, and poverty alleviation.
- Many of the CSR issues in developing countries present themselves as dilemmas or trade-offs, for example, development versus environment, job creation versus higher labour standards, and strategic philanthropy versus political governance.

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- The spirit and practise of CSR are strongly resonant with traditional communitarian values and religious concepts in developing countries, for example, African humanism (Ubuntu) in South Africa and harmonious society (xiaokang) in China.

The focus on CSR in developing countries can be a catalyst for identifying, designing and testing new CSR frameworks and business models, for example, Prahalad's Bottom of the Pyramid model and Visser's CSR Pyramid for Developing Countries. Research into CSR in developing countries is still relatively underdeveloped and tends to be ad-hoc with a heavy reliance on convenience-based case studies or descriptive accounts. The focus is often on high profile incidents or branded companies and a few select countries (e.g. Brazil, China, India, South Africa), with a general lack of comparable benchmarking data (Visser, 2007).

Another way of handling corporate social responsibility in Africa is to develop totally new theories with their basis in African culture. Ubuntu and African renaissance are attempts at conceptualizing African values so that they can be applied to African businesses. These theories stress the values of sharing, community and harmony with the past and the present. Omoluwabi, a Yoruba construct, emphasizes the need for Africans to be careful yet innovative in the application of ideas claimed from other cultures.

Practising CSR in accordance with these principles prevent discrepancies, ensures accountability and trust between African businesses and the societies they find themselves in. By adapting and developing CSR theories that are more compatible with African culture and developing appropriate legislation to streamline how companies carry out CSR, the limits imposed on the African business by Western theories of CSR would be overcome (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011).

3.11 CSR and its Importance in Business and Brand Building

CSR has become multi-disciplinary and any discussion on the subject is increasingly evident in the business world (FTSE, 2001; Ross, 2000), by politicians (Hewitt, 2001) and the media (Macalister, 2001; Roberts and Hunt, 2001; BBC Radio 4, 2001). Scholars discuss the subject in a variety of subject areas: accountancy and law (Whitehouse, 2001); marketing (Adkins, 1999a, b); economics (Kell and Ruggie, 2001; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001); political theory (Held, 2002; Moon, 2001) and by those concerned with business ethics (Maclagan,

1998). CSR is said to improve the company's profitability and financial performance (Van der Laan et al., 2008; Ruf et al., 2001), create customer loyalty (Mandhachitara and Poolthong, 2011), enhance firm reputation (Chen and Wang, 2011) and contribute to the continuing health and growth of business (CCPA, 2000). Evidence of organisations benefiting by practising corporate social responsibility and reporting can be seen in a study of ten entrepreneurs who had developed successful new ventures (Joyner et al., 2002). The study found that all ten organisations and their entrepreneurs went beyond the requirements of the law with respect to corporate social responsibility and in their interactions with their stakeholders. The organisations benefited by growing in size and establishing their presence in the community.

CSR has emerged as a significant theme in the global business community and has already moved into the mainstream activity. The growing emphasis on business social responsibility is affecting the relationships between companies and their various stakeholders including customers, employees, communities and governments. Larger companies have already incorporated CSR in their strategic plans as an essential element for long-term sustainability.

Whilst it was initially considered as the domain of larger organisations having a greater impact on the society, SMEs' social behaviour is no longer overlooked. People have started recognising the importance of SMEs as a predominant form of business in all economies and the net influence they can potentially have within society (Sen, 2011). The idea that CSR is a win-win activity, that is, it helps both society and is a strategic business activity, reflects "the exchange process" (Kotler, 2000, p. 11).

An American study into consumers' response to CSR activity found that the consumers' response is understandably determined by whether or not they support the particular type of CSR activity, or "domain". The domain was defined as an area of corporate support such as the community, "diversity" (e.g. women, gay rights, disabled), employee welfare, the environment, and production standards (such as safety issues) (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001,p. 2). The study concluded that it is the marketers' responsibility to establish CSR preferences among the customer base in order to improve competitive positioning and to produce more effective market segmentation strategies (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001, p. 16). Therefore, CSR is not only regarded as a tactical public relations opportunity, but it is also regarded as a business strategy (Adkins, 1999b, p. 20; Macchiette and Roy, 1994, p. 55):

"...what consumers know about a company can influence their reactions to the company's products…Corporate associations ...can be both a strategic asset and a source of sustainable competitive advantage…[Hence] ...marketers spend great sums of money each year on corporate advertising, corporate philanthropy, sponsorships, cause-related marketing, and public image studies" (Brown and Dacin, 1997, p. 16).

It has traditionally been the role of marketing to manage the image of the company in order to produce a positive effect on the organisation's business. Marketing communications, notably public relations activity, is used in order to improve the competitive position, by delivering the messages designed to create or maintain a good image (Adkins, 1999a, b; Darby, 1999a, b). Consequently, 'doing good deeds' (CSR) produces a positive public relations story. The marketing literature concentrates on marketing's role in the management of customer perceptions and CSR's effect on the (corporate) brand. The branding expert, Kevin Lane Keller, has written about the associations created in the mind of the consumer as a result of corporate activity.

"…a socially responsible corporate image association involves the creation of consumer perceptions of a company as contributing to community programmes, supporting artistic and social activities and generally attempting to improve the welfare of society as a whole" (Keller, 1998, p. 421).

Marketing theory dictates that it is an understanding of customer behaviour that enables customer perceptions to be managed and that this is vital to organisational success. Consequently, CSR in the marketing literature has concentrated on understanding customers' perceptions of CSR and examines CSR's role in affecting the customers' response to new products. An estimated number of 122 published studies empirically examined the relationships between CSR and financial performance during the period 1971-2001 (Margolis and Walsh, 2001). The positive results have revealed that corporate managers should routinely take CSR management into account in business decision making.

Many surveys have suggested that a positive relationship exists between a company's corporate social responsibility (CSR) actions and consumers' reaction to that company and its products (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Creyer and Ross, 1997; Ellen et al., 2006; Smith and Langford, 2009). However, other investigations have demonstrated

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that the relationship between a company's CSR actions and the consumers' reaction is not always direct and evident and shows that numerous factors affect whether a firm's CSR activities lead to consumer purchase (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Ellen et al., 2000; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Valor, 2008).

The question, "Is CSR really profitable?", is easily the most studied and debated aspect of this emerging field. A variety of studies have been generated dealing with each side of this debate. Doane (2005), for example, argues that the idea that "the market can give both short-term financial returns and long-term social benefits" is a 'myth'. Simultaneously, authors such as Crowther (2004) argue that there must be some profitability dimension to CSR otherwise leading firms would not be pursuing it as aggressively as they have been over the last few years.

The on-going debate on this subject has led many researchers to conclude that the link between responsible business practices and financial performance is 'inconclusive' (Porter and Kramer, 2006), although Conrad and Abbot (2007) argue that the link is an essential one if the field is to remain successful. Interestingly, Goering (2012) also found that, even if CSR activities are a purely costly retail endeavour, CSR does not necessarily decrease the manufacturer's final profit. His model thus suggests a theoretical rationale for the confusing empirical findings of little to no correlation between profits and CSR posited by Benabou and Tirole (2010, p. 12).

Surroca and Tribó (2008) argue that superior performance will be achieved through stakeholder satisfaction. Porter and Kramer (2006) posit that CSR and related philanthropy is a major source of competitive advantage from the consumers' perspective and ultimately contributes towards the firm's bottom line. McWilliams and Siegel (2001) raised this issue pointing out that support for CSR creates a reputation that a firm is reliable and honest and that consumers will tend to assume that products from such corporations would be of a higher quality than those from companies that do not enjoy this perception.

3.12 CSR and Brand Management

Kitchin (2003) integrated corporate social responsibility into the branding definition, which states that brands are designed to embody the core values of a product, therefore CSR in branding means that corporate social responsibility is a core part of the brand and the associated activities communicate these brand characteristics. Bhattacharya, Smith and Vogel (2004) suggest that, if CSR is a core part of the brand, the brand promises should be supported by the brand's actions. Kitchin (2003) believes that linking both corporate social responsibilities with the brand can be essential in developing the values and personality of brands. Middlemiss (2003) argues that CSR is important for building and protecting the reputation demanded by a company's customer base.

Where CSR links strongly to brand identity is through brand heritage. Urde, Greyser and Balmer (2007) suggests that an organisation's brand heritage can provide organisations with a basis of competitive advantage, authenticity, credibility and also aid organisations when building relationships with a range of stakeholders. Urde et al. (2007) defines brand heritage as a dimension of a brand's identity, which is found within their track record, core values, symbolism, history of the organisation and longevity.

Retail organisations such as the Co-operative (UK) embody CSR within their brand image by putting customers and their wellbeing at the forefront of their business culture. Where CSR has been part of a brand's heritage, it may influence individuals to identify with organisations for self enhancement purposes. It is important for a firm that, when they start a CSR campaign, there is a good fit between the brand of the firm and the cause (charity) they support. There is a good fit between the brand and the cause when they both have a similar base (Nan and Heo, 2007). They further explain that the fit is high when they both share similar values (e.g. Johnson & Johnson first aid products and Red Cross).

Ellen, Mohr and Webb (2000) investigated the impact of the fit between a cause and the brand. Their opinion reflects what Nan and Heo (2007) mentioned. In their study, the participants evaluated the firm more positively if the cause (e.g. charity donation) had a high fit with the firm's core business instead of a low fit. Ellen, Mohr and Webb (2000) tested if customers would evaluate a cause marketing offer more positively if the donation was incongruent, rather than congruent, with the company's core business. Furthermore, Werther

and Chandler (2005) argue for strategic CSR as insurance for global brands, saying that a CSR mindset incorporated in the brand strengthens the brand-user bond and reduces the brand's vulnerability to internal management failures.

Bhattacharya, with colleagues, (2007) examines the influence of the extent to which a company's social activities are integrated into the brand's competitive positioning on consumer attitudes to CSR. They argue that brands that base their positioning on CSR and integrate CSR strategy in core business strategy are more likely to reach CSR-specific benefits from consumers than brands that solely engage in CSR without positioning the brand accordingly. Moreover, the study made by Melo and Galan (2011) confirms CSR as a valid source of intangible competitive advantage by analysing the impact of CSR on brand value. Their study also emphasises the importance of connecting CSR with corporate strategy by saying that, without alignment between the two, CSR is not used to its full potential and the positive impact from CSR on brand value will be less.

A prevailing understanding of CSR is based on the notion of stakeholders' expectations (Carroll, 1979; Whetten et al., 2002), which are of important concern to corporate marketing (Balmer and Greyser, 2006). This means that an organisation operates within a network of different stakeholders who can influence the organisation directly or indirectly (Habisch et., al, 2005). Therefore, the scope of CSR focuses on a company's commitment to avoid harm and improve a stakeholder and society's well-being (Mohr et al., 2001). Market orientation has been identified in the marketing and strategic management literature as important to firm strategy (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Hult and Ketchen, 2001). One of the main aims for taking corporate marketing is value creation which goes beyond profit maximisation and includes long-term business survival alongside the meeting of societal (and stakeholder) needs and expectations (Balmer and Greyser, 2006).

3.13 Perspectives of CSR

In the works of George Steiner (1971), the idea of CSR has developed differently around the world because of unique histories, cultures and institutions. It means that CSR has become company specific.

Matten and Moon (2004) have compared CSR in Europe to that in the United States, and have proposed a conceptual framework of 'explicit' versus 'implicit' CSR, while recognizing that these are matters of emphasis, not wholly dichotomous in the United States.

They define "explicit CSR" as that seen in the United States, where companies volunteer to address important social and economic issues through their CSR policies; in significant part because there are less stringent legal requirements to meet than in Europe for such things as health-care provision, employee's rights, and environmental protection (p. 9).

In contrast, in Europe and the UK, responsibility for these issues is undertaken as part of a company's legal responsibilities, and thus CSR is 'implicit' in the way the company does business (ibid). The results of their work suggests that Britain shares with Europe institutional and legal features that reflect its European character, so that business is assigned, by law, 'an agreed share of responsibility for society's interests and concerns' (Matten and Moon, 2004, p. 9). In this analysis, Matten and Moon (2004) have implicitly interrogated the question of whether there is an 'Anglo-American' system of corporate governance, at least at the level of agreed conclusions on the perennial debates of the corporate purpose, and whether shareholders only, or stakeholders in addition, should comprise the full ambit of managerial strategy and concern.

In recent years, much criticism has been directed towards developed countries for using developing nations as a dumping ground for "e-waste" and other environmentally hazardous materials. There has been a spike in the number of mass protests and demonstrations being staged by international and local human rights groups to highlight the abysmal work conditions and massive exploitation of human labour being carried out in some particular countries. This brings out the need for organisations to be socially responsible in today's global economy.

Most research on CSR in developing countries to date has either generalized about all developing countries (e.g. Frynas, 2006), or focused at a national (rather than a regional) level. In terms of generic literature, Corporate Citizenship in Developing Countries (Pedersen and Huniche, 2006) is a useful compendium, as are special issues on CSR in developing countries (Schmidheiny, 2006; Prieto-Carron, 2004).

Despite the focus on countries in the literature, only about a fifth of all developing countries have had any CSR journal articles published on them. Of these, the most commonly analyzed and written about countries are China, India, Malaysia, Pakistan, South Africa, and Thailand. Analysis at a regional level (notably Africa, Asia, and Latin America) is becoming more common, but papers at the sector, corporate, or individual level remain relatively scarce.

3.14 CSR in Africa and Ghana

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is not a new one for Africa; it has existed over a span of more than fifty years. Nevertheless, it remains a controversial issue. To some, CSR is a stalking horse for an anti-capitalist, anti-corporate agenda, which distracts business from its core task to make profit, and obliging it beyond paying taxes. Others view CSR as no more than window-dressing for outrageously exploitative business behaviour, especially in those developing countries that have threadbare regulatory institutions. Still others believe its main purpose is to provide a fig-leaf of respectability for investments in high-reward sectors in countries where human rights abuses are prevalent (Brenthurst Foundation, 2010).

The literature on CSR in Africa is heavily dominated by South Africa (Visser, 2005a), while other pockets of research exist for Côte D'Ivoire (e.g. Schrage and Ewing, 2005), Kenya (e.g. Dolan and Opondo, 2005), Nigeria (e.g. Amaeshi et al., 2006), Tanzania (e.g. Egels, 2005), Ghana (e.g. Boon and Ababio, 2009), Mali, and Zambia (e.g. Hamann et al., 2005). Very few papers are focused on industry sectors, with traditionally high impact sectors like agriculture (e.g. Blowfield, 2003), mining (e.g. Kapelus, 2002), and petrochemicals (e.g. Acutt et al., 2004) featuring most prominently. Two good sources of literature on the region are Corporate Citizenship in Africa (Visser et al., 2006) and the Journal of Corporate Citizenship special issue on CSR in Africa (issue 18, summer 2005). The latter concludes that 'academic institutions and researchers focusing specifically on corporate citizenship in Africa remain few and under-developed' (Visser et al., 2005, p. 19).

This is confirmed by a review of the CSR literature on Africa between 1995 and 2005 (Visser, 2006a), which found that only 12 of Africa's 53 countries have had any research published in core CSR journals, with 57% of all articles focused on South Africa and 16% on Nigeria. The latter partly reflects the high media profile generated around corporate

citizenship issues and the petrochemical sector, especially focused on Shell and their operation's impact on the Ogoni people (Ite, 2004). Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah (2011) also maintain that the CSR concept in Ghana has become synonymous with the mining industry where there appears to be more environmental and human rights concerns, with various interest groups calling for ethical, social and environmental responsibility from companies operating in the area.

This notwithstanding, the stiff competitive environment in which the mobile telecommunications companies operate to attain a stronger customer base and superior customer satisfaction, places enormous demand on these companies to act responsibly towards the environment. It is evident that various institutions and civil society groups are increasingly mounting pressure on telecommunications companies in Ghana to provide improved services as well as act responsibly. For instance, communications experts in Ghana have vehemently called on the government, as a matter of urgency, to set up a National Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Framework to define parameters for CSR in the country, according to Yeboah (2010).

The lack of easy blueprints for examining the responsibilities of companies does indeed point to the need for critical consideration. The time has come for government to act proactively in ensuring that these companies operate within the confines of the laws regulating their operations. Companies should also be concerned with the quality of life of their employees and the general well being of the communities in which they reside and this should form part and parcel of their CSR agenda. It will therefore be worthwhile to conduct empirical investigation into the activities of these corporate entities to examine the extent to which these CSR activities are impacting on the lives of ordinary Ghanaians and the ultimate growth of the organisations involved. Hence, there is a great need for intensifying the amount of research on CSR activities in Africa (Amoako et al., 2011). Hence, this researcher explores CSR activities in the mobile telecommunications industry in Ghana.

According to Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah (2011), CSR is a controversial issue for business managers and their stakeholders. Due to the large range of contrasting definitions, and often varying use of the terminology (O'riordan and Fairbrass, 2008), it has no universal definition. The concept is constantly being re-examined and re-defined to serve changing needs and times. In defining what CSR means in Africa, Dartey-Baah makes the following

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observations, which poses a challenge to defining the actual meaning and intent of CSR activities. In view of this, he noted the following characteristics:

- CSR tends to be less formalised or institutionalized in terms of the CSR benchmarks commonly used in developed countries, i.e. there are rarely CSR codes, standards, management systems and reports.
- Where formal CSR is practised, this is usually by large, high profile national and multinational companies, especially those with recognized international brands or those aspiring to global status.
- Formal CSR codes, standards, and guidelines that are most applicable to developing countries tend to be issue specific (e.g. fair trade, supply chain, HIV/AIDS) or sector-led (e.g. agriculture, textiles, mining).
- In developing countries, CSR is most commonly associated with philanthropy or charity, i.e. through corporate social investment in education, health, sports, development, the environment, and other community services.
- Making an economic contribution is often seen as the most important and effective way for business to make a social impact, i.e. through investment, job creation, taxes, and technology transfer.
- Business often finds itself engaged in the provision of social services that would be seen as government's responsibility in developed countries, for example, investment in infrastructure, schools, hospitals, and housing.
- The issues being prioritized under the CSR banner in Africa are different from most developed countries. For example, tackling HIV/AIDS, improving working conditions, provision of basic services, supply chain integrity, and poverty alleviation.
- Schmidheiny (2006) noted that social issues are generally given more political, economic, and media emphasis in developing countries than environmental, ethical, or stakeholder issues.
- The spirit and practice of CSR is often strongly resonant with traditional communitarian values and religious concepts in developing countries, for example, African humanism (Ubuntu) in South Africa.

Baskin (2006) notes that corporate responsibility in emerging markets, while more extensive than commonly believed, is less embedded in corporate strategies, less pervasive and less politically rooted than in most high-income countries (Visser, 2007).

In relation to Ghana specifically, Ofori (2007) recognised that Ghanaian managers believe that operating in a community involves supporting the community through social programmes, beyond corporate philanthropy, to strategic actions that respond to the different needs of the communities in which businesses operate. Ghanaian managers seem to have a positive attitude toward CSR and this attitude is largely influenced by both individual and societal ethical values. However, managers and executives in Ghana engage in CSR activities primarily to enhance their corporate image among customers, and secondly for the well-being of the society. No comprehensive policy framework to set the parameters of CSR activities in Ghana exists. Furthermore, there is no institutional body regulating corporate activities on CSR and, as such, reporting on CSR is not consistently done among corporate bodies (Ofori and Aboagye-Otchere, 2005).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is not an entirely unknown concept in the Asian region. In the past, national leaders like Indira Gandhi of India and Lee Kuan Yew of Singapore have stressed that local businesses should act with a greater sense of responsibility and consider the social, moral and environmental consequences of their enterprises and their resultant effects on the safety and well-being of the communities which they serve. Over the years, Asian companies have started to realize the significant effects that corporate social responsibility can have on businesses, employees and stakeholders alike. The move towards building more socially responsible enterprises has been gradually gaining momentum across the region.

In recent years, many Asian governments have initiated a series of measures aimed at encouraging private organisations to participate more effectively in community development projects. Asia is the region most often covered in the literature on CSR in developing countries, with a significant focus on China (e.g. Zhuang and Wheale, 2004), India (e.g. Balasubramanian et al., 2005), Indonesia (e.g. Blowfield, 2004), Malaysia (e.g. Zulkifli and Amran, 2006), Pakistan (e.g. Lund-Thomsen, 2004), and Thailand. Other countries that have had less attention include Bangladesh (Nielsen, 2005), the Pacific Forum Islands (Prasad, 2004), Sri Lanka (Luken and Stares, 2005), Vietnam (Prieto-Carron, 2006b), Argentina,

Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Czech Republic, Egypt, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Morocco, Mexico, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Russia, South Africa, Thailand, and Turkey (Kaufman et al., 2004).

The Journal of Corporate Citizenship special issue on CSR in Asia (issue 13, spring 2004) provides a good overview of the status of the debate. Editors Birch and Moon (2004) note that CSR performance varies greatly between countries in Asia, with a wide range of CSR issues being tackled (e.g. education, environment, employee welfare) and modes of action (e.g. foundations, volunteering, and partnerships).

A number of quantitative studies confirm this picture of CSR variance. In a survey of CSR reporting in Asia, Chapple and Moon (2005) find that nearly three quarters of large companies in India present themselves as having CSR policies and practices versus only a quarter in Indonesia. Falling somewhere between these two extremes are Thailand (42%), Malaysia (32%), and The Philippines (30%). They also infer from the research that the evolution of CSR in Asia tends to occur in three waves, with community involvement being the most established form of CSR, followed by successive second and third waves of socially responsible production processes and employee relations.

In a comparative survey of CSR in 15 countries across Europe, North America, and Asia, Welford (2005) speculates that the low response rates from countries like Hong Kong, Malaysia, Mexico, and Thailand may in itself be an indicator of CSR being less prevalent in developing countries. This seems to be borne out by the research findings, in which these countries fairly consistently underperform when compared with developed countries across 20 aspects of CSR measured by the survey. More specifically, Malaysia is generally the weakest in terms of CSR performance; with Thailand being relatively strong on external aspects (such as child labour and ethics) and Hong Kong being generally better on internal aspects (such as non-discrimination and equal opportunities) (Visser, 2007).

Organisations like the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI) are already leading the way in terms of incorporating more employee-centric policies and promoting a greater degree of transparency in their financial reporting and public accountability standards. These organisations clearly believe that the private sector should play a greater role in improving infrastructure, health and safety standards in the local

economies and act as a catalyst in the broader economic development process. Even corporate heavyweights like Nike have started implementing better corporate standards in Indonesia after the backlash they received in the international news media over unfair labour standards.

In a build up to address issues on CSR, the region organized a summit (The CSR Asia Summit 2012), which took place in Beijing, China. Focusing on "Local Innovation for Global Challenges", the conference brought together over 500 delegates to explore CSR challenges, opportunities and solutions aimed at China, Asia and beyond.

The summit deliberated on the following;
- Greater emphasis by the government to regulate CSR. A growing number of laws and regulations contain CSR elements and requirements.
- Rising popularity of social media. This has facilitated public discussion on social and environmental issues.
- Stakeholder expectations are increasingly sophisticated and clearly articulated.
- Rising employee expectations. A new generation of employees knows its rights and expects them to be met.
- Greater awareness of business impact on the environment.
- Expanding awareness by consumers of their rights.

The idea that business is part of society, and therefore has community and national responsibilities is established in the culture and economic history of many African countries. This combined with the influence of multinationals and international institutions such as the UN Global Compact means that CSR is being carried out both by local businesses and foreign investors, and is increasingly encouraged by many governments. Surveys of CSR amongst businesses in Africa have found that the most common approach to CSR issues is through philanthropic support, in particular focusing on education, health and environment (Visser et al., 2006).

3.15 Arguments against CSR

Some critics of CSR, such as the economist Milton Friedman, argue that a corporation's principal purpose is to maximize returns to its shareholders, whilst obeying the laws of the countries within which it works. Others argue that the only reason corporations put in place social projects is utilitarian, that they see a commercial benefit in raising their reputation with the public or with government.

Another concern is when companies claim to promote CSR and be committed to sustainable development whilst simultaneously engaging in harmful business practices. For example, since the 1970s, the McDonald's Corporation's association with Ronald McDonald House has been viewed as CSR and relationship marketing. More recently, as CSR has become mainstream, the company has beefed up its CSR programmes related to its labour, environmental and other practices. All the same, in McDonald's Restaurants v Morris & Steel, Lord Justices Pill, May and Keane ruled that it was fair comment to say that McDonald's employees worldwide 'do badly in terms of pay and conditions', and it was true that 'if one eats enough McDonald's food, one's diet may well become high in fat etc., with the very real risk of heart disease'.

It is not every CSR activity that is positive. Distinguishing between good and bad deeds may help us better understand the relationship between social performance and financial performance (Strike, Gao and Bansal, 2006). For instance, research suggests that irresponsible behaviour may be a more important determinant of firm value than responsible behaviour (Clark, 2008; Frooman, 1997; McGuire et al., 2003). Research also shows that philanthropy is a tool commonly used by firms that are known for irresponsible behaviour (Brammer and Millington, 2005; Williams and Barrett, 2000) and may be part of a strategy of doing good deeds to compensate for prior bad deeds (Kotchen and Moon, 2008). Recent studies have observed that firms not only do good but also bad, and may do both simultaneously (Fombrun, Gardberg, and Barnett, 2000; Mishina et al., 2010). For example, even as Nike donated millions of dollars following the 2004 South Asian tsunami, it faced accusations of exploitative labour practices in developing countries (Strike et al., 2006). Therefore, customers may make decisions based on how a CSR activity is perceived.

Good image may result in favourable decision. While negative shocks typically have a negative impact on firms. Although, not all firms are affected to the same degree (Knight and Pretty, 1999). Recent research shows that this variation is, to some degree, a function of reputation; and in times of crisis, firms with strong reputations for CSR suffer less because they are expected to face fewer deadweight costs (Godfrey et al., 2009; Schnietz and Epstein, 2005). This means that firms with a better brand image resulting from good CSR activities have a greater chance of surviving competition than firms with poor brand image resulting from bad CSR activities.

In difficult times, society and markets might expect firms saddled with associations of irresponsible behaviour to incur greater challenges (and higher deadweight costs) in regaining the confidence and image of their key stakeholders (Muller and Kraussl, 2011). Some theorists also posit that there is a negative relationship between CSR and corporate financial performance (CFP). This seems to imply that the pursuance of CSR activities will bring about competitive disadvantage to the company (Aupperle et al., 1985) as the resulting costs may lead to the need to bear other costs.

There are two models predicting negative relationship between CSR and CFP: the trade-off hypothesis and the managerial opportunism hypothesis. First, because social accomplishments involve financial costs, the trade-off hypothesis points out that social responsibility may siphon off capital and other needed resources from the organisation as suggested by Friedman (1970), putting it at a relative competitive disadvantage compared to other firms that are less socially active. Hence, a firm's higher levels of corporate social responsibility may lower its financial performance as compared to competitors as also noted by Preston and O'Bannon (1997, p. 421). Another possibility is that the pursuit of private managerial goals might lead to a negative relationship between CSP and CFP.

The managerial opportunism hypothesis states that "when financial performance is strong, managers may attempt to cash in by reducing social expenditure in order to take advantage of the opportunity to increase their own short-term private gains. Conversely, when financial performance of firms weakens, managers may attempt to offset and perhaps appear to justify their disappointing performance by engaging in obvious CSR activities (Preston and O'Bannon, 1997, p. 423).

Moreover, some authors (McWilliams and Siegel, 2000; Ullmann, 1985; Aupperle, Carroll and Hatfield, 1985; Waddock and Graves, 1997) posit that there is a neutral relationship between CSR and CFP. This implies that investing in CSR activities will not result in any financial gain hence organisations should not waste resources in trying to invest in CSR programmes. Companies have provided very little to citizens of Ghana as far as CSR activities are concerned; and pay less attention to CSR capabilities as a means of improving corporate financial performance (Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah, 2011).

3.16 CSR Drivers

The topic of CSR has been the subject of much research over the past two decades. Researchers have identified the reasons why firms develop CSR strategies, such as reputation improvement, government regulations, competitive advantage, stakeholder pressures, critical events, and top management pressures (Hall and Vredenburg, 2004; Kassinis and Vafeas, 2006).

Other demands for CSR come from internal stakeholders, reflecting instrumental, relational and oral needs of employees, for example Aguilera et al. (2007). Of interest then, is what shapes or drives a firm's CSR response arising from stakeholders' demands. In effect, the reason most companies take CSR actions is either for the purpose of complying with regulations (Wagner, 2005) or as a response to external constraints (Jaffe et al., 1995). Apparently, business leaders react to CSR issues forced by exogenous factors rather than truly understanding the advantages that CSR will bring (Chen, 2011).

Whether actions by business that provide business benefits are ultimately regarded as socially responsible by stakeholders is a question that remains open. There are emerging methods of assessing corporate social performance but these are not established and are subject to considerable debate. However, common threads in the literature involve establishing principles for action and using stakeholder analysis and engagement as a way of determining precise activities. Nevertheless, there is an increasing focus both by business on CSR and by society on the actions of business (Moir, 2001). Business firms are the economic engine of society and the making of profits is a social responsibility (Carroll, 1979; Henderson, 2005). However, in the current climate, issues of a social nature are bearing on firms to the point that CSR appears to be the new battle ground for competitive success (Porter and Kramer, 2006).

If this is true, then firms not only need to be concerned about how to best meet the interests of their shareholders, but also the interests of society at large. In this sense, strategy takes on significant meaning not only with respect to fulfilling social responsibilities and the development of firms, but also with respect to the development and sustainability of society/nations (Raimond, 1996; Rodriguez et al., 2002).

As strategy is concerned with understanding and addressing issues that impact on a firm's ability to achieve its mission so that products/services can be produced to meet the needs of the markets, it serves, through effective resource configuration, to build and sustain competitive advantage. Considering CSR in light of these dimensions offers a means to systematically explore ways in which social responsibilities can be built into strategy. Otherwise, firms run the risk of equating CSR with codes of ethics, triple bottom line reports and public relations campaigns, for example. Such approaches are too limited, too defensive and are too disconnected from strategy (Galbreath, 2009). Yoon and colleagues (2006) mentioned that the motivation of firms using CSR is for image improvement. It is important that customers are not aware of this motive when a firm uses CSR.

Of course, there are firms who sincerely use CSR to improve society. A firm using CSR will be seen as insincere when there is suspicion that the firm has ulterior goals (Campbell and Kirmani, 2000). So using CSR with some self-interest isn't bad as long as the customers do not get suspicious.

3.17 Difference in CSR between Western and Non-western Countries

Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2011) indicate that the difference in CSR between countries in Africa and those in the west can be examined by looking at the various drivers for or causes of CSR in developing countries, like those in Africa. Although these drivers are not all unique to developing countries, together they build up a distinctive picture of how CSR is conceived, incentivized, and practised in Western and non-western countries. They mentioned the seven major drivers as:

1. **Cultural Tradition** - While many believe CSR is a Western invention (and this may be largely true in its modern form and practice), there is evidence to suggest that CSR in developing countries draws strongly on indigenous cultural traditions of philanthropy, business ethics, and community "embeddedness". Visser (2005) suggests that the

traditional philosophy of African humanism (Ubuntu) is what underpins most of the approaches to CSR in Africa.

2. **Governance Gaps** - CSR is often seen as a way to plug the governance gaps left by weak, corrupt, or under-resourced governments that fail to adequately provide various social services (housing, roads, electricity, health care, education, etc.). A survey by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD, 2000) illustrates this perspective. When asked how CSR should be defined, Ghanaians stressed building local capacity and filling in when government falls short. There are, however, some criticisms of CSR used for this purpose.

3. **Market Access** - CSR is sometimes used as a partnership approach to creating or developing new markets. For example, the AED/Mark Partnership with Exxon Mobil was created on the basis of developing a viable market for insecticide-treated mosquito nets in Africa, while improving pregnant women's access to these nets, through the delivery of targeted subsidies (Diara et al., 2004).

4. **International Standardization** - Often CSR is driven by standardization imposed by multinationals striving to achieve global consistency among its subsidiaries in developing countries. For example, the Asia study by Chapple and Moon (2005) found that multinational companies are more likely to adopt CSR than those operating solely in their home country, but that the profile of their CSR tends to reflect the profile of the country of operation rather than the country of origin.

5. **Stakeholder Activism** - In developing countries, three stakeholder groups emerge as the most powerful activists for CSR, namely development agencies (Jenkins, 2005), trade unions (Kaufman et al., 2004) and business associations (WBCSD, 2000). In Ghana, there is a fourth group, which is the civil society organisation (CSO). These groups provide a platform of support for local NGOs, which are not always well developed or adequately resourced to provide strong advocacy for CSR. The media is also emerging as a key stakeholder for promoting CSR in developing countries (Vivarta and Canela, 2006).

6. **Political Reform** - CSR in developing countries cannot be divorced from the socio-political reform process, which often drives business behaviour towards integrating social and ethical issues. In South Africa, the political changes towards democracy and redressing the injustices of apartheid have been significant drivers for CSR. Visser (2005) lists more than a dozen examples of socio-economic, environmental, and labour-related legislative reforms in South Africa between 1994 and 2004 that have a direct bearing on CSR.

7. **Socio-economic Priorities** - There is a powerful argument that CSR in developing countries is most directly shaped by the socio-economic environment in which firms operate and the development priorities this creates. Amaeshi et al. (2006), for example, argue that CSR in Nigeria is specifically aimed at addressing the socio-economic development challenges of the country, including poverty alleviation, health-care provision, infrastructure development, and education.

In addition to proving the benefits of CSR, developing countries face a major problem of implementation of CSR plans, in that they lack a reasonable framework to assess their effectiveness. There is little evidence to show that the organisations in these countries have employed CSR plans based on international CSR standards, policies and principles. However, scholars are reluctant to directly adopt CSR principles, standards and policies in the developing world for many reasons. Studies (Chambers et al., 2003; Welford, 2005; Baughn et al., 2007) have found that cultural differences are the major limitation to adopting international CSR standards in the developing world.

In addition, authors argue that there are many differences among the developing countries themselves, and hence framework development is a major issue. Despite this, Visser (2007) has introduced a common CSR framework for Asian and African countries based on Carroll's CSR pyramid concept. Accordingly, an organisation's first obligation is economic responsibility, the second is philanthropic, the third is legal and the fourth is discretionary responsibility.

The aim of the present study is to develop a CSR framework for a specific country, such as Ghana, to identify the extent to which CSR practices affect brand perception and brand value of firms and to examine the link between CSR activities and organisational brand value increases in the telecommunications industry in Ghana.

3.18 African Models of CSR- Discussion on CSR Drivers in Africa

The purpose of CSR in Africa cannot be to strengthen NGOs and inter-governmental organisations, but rather to grow African economies. Instead of waiting for others to take the lead, and then resist their efforts as undue interference, and being mindful of the potential for the exploitation of African people and resources by unscrupulous external (and local) actors,

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it is time for Africa to offer its own set of principles and understanding in CSR. This is because, if Africa is to lead and take ownership of CSR and the wider development debate and not be a passive, occasionally complaining recipient of external thinking, it needs to be proactive and display forward-thinking leadership. It needs to take this further than others have already done.

Africa has to note that CSR is not about pity but an investment in stability and prosperity. Moreover, it is impossible to differentiate CSR from development policy and to separate development policy from an overall competitiveness strategy. There is a need therefore for a holistic approach to governance, integrating corporate and sovereign CSR. Overall, an effective CSR strategy promotes the strengthening of domestic law and good tax policy with regard to business, rather than inventing parallel mechanisms that further undermine African institutions. These are the tools that other countries have used to ensure corporations behave and contribute publicly, and no international mechanism can substitute for that (Brenthurst, 2010). Africa must therefore develop her own CSR theories that take cognizance of her people, culture and values. Africans are community-conscious and therefore any business operating in Africa must set out its CSR activities to benefit the community within which it operates. Onwauchi (1972) postulates that culture "is the sum total of the integrated learned behaviour patterns characteristic of members of a society. It is the sum total of a people's customary way of doing things". Hence, African CSR theories must be developed on the basis of the African culture, and applications of any theory must be tailored along the lines of doing things in Africa.

3.18.1 Ubuntu

Archbishop Desmond Tutu, in explaining the meaning of Ubuntu, stated that 'one of the sayings in our country is Ubuntu – the essence of being human'. Ubuntu speaks particularly about the fact that you can't exist as a human being in isolation. It speaks about our interconnectedness. You can't be human all by yourself, and when you have this quality – Ubuntu – you are known for your generosity. We think of ourselves far too frequently as just individuals, separated from one another, whereas you are connected and what you do affects the whole world. When you do well, it spreads out; it is for the whole of humanity. A person with Ubuntu is open and available to others, affirms of others, does not feel threatened that others are able and good, for he or she has a proper self-assurance that comes from knowing

that he or she belongs in a greater whole and is diminished when others are humiliated or diminished, when others are tortured or oppressed. Archbishop Desmond Tutu proposes Ubuntu as a South African ethic or ideology focusing on people's relations with each other (Mbigi and Maree, 1995). Ubuntu comes from the Zulu and Xhola languages. A rough translation in English would be "humanity towards others" and "the belief in a universal bond of sharing that connects all humanity". The cardinal belief of Ubuntu is that a man can only be a man through others. In its most fundamental sense, it stands for personhood and morality. The key values of Ubuntu are group solidarity, conformity, compassion, respect, human dignity and collective unity.

According to Mbigi and Maree (1995), the challenges for African organisations are primarily social and political innovation rather than the technical. The authors propose that the innovation of the African people ought to be integrated with successful management techniques from the West and the East. This requires internal, creative thinking since this approach cannot be imported but has to be done by local people. The authors also propose that religion, since so embedded in African society, should be considered when developing management models. In the Shona (largest indigenous group in Zimbabwe) tribal culture, in order to contextualize any concept or practice successfully one must be prepared to trace its roots, what is called Nhorowondo.

The authors suggest that if Africans are going to adapt processes they must be prepared to trace their history. They must find out who the people were who developed that particular practice and what their agenda was; and then proceed to unpack only the elements of that particular practice that are appropriate and able to address their own problems. According to Ubuntu, change efforts have to create harmony between the individual and the community as well as nature, particularly ancestral spirits (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011).

3.18.1.1 Ubuntu CSR Theory

The application of the Ubuntu concept as CSR theory lies in the wisdom that business organisations operating in Africa must be seen by the community as being 'human' towards the community. This being 'human' must be defined by the community. The CSR activities of firms in Africa must be in consonance with the values of solidarity, conformity, compassion, respect, human dignity and collective unity.

The firms must operate and contribute to the humanness of the society in which they find themselves. Indeed, if firms will go by the values of Ubuntu in their activities they will win the heart of most African communities.

3.18.2 Omoluwabi

Omoluwabi is an exploration of character as an organising principle (www.omoluwabi.com accessed 23-05-2011). The background is that the 21st century is a time of great abundance and choice offered across the world that narrows distance with incredible speed. People live in a world with access to the body of knowledge and wisdom as well as information across all cultures available to all who have technology. The question is: how adaptive are people in this unpredictable and explosive pace of change? The primary basis of the Omoluwabi model is that the only true asset in this modern era is character.

For many centuries, the Yoruba people of the West coast of Africa have used the concept of Omoluwabi to signify an evolved character. In fact, it was extremely important amongst the Oyo, whose empire was the basis or model for the current definition of Yoruba. This concept was a prevalent socio-economic tool and of important religious significance. Omoluwabi is a description of an evolving model, which has seven elements, but as being developed, it could and should have other dimensions as well as applications. The elements are linked to ancient Yoruba concepts and values (Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah, 2011).

3.18.2.1 Omoluwabi CSR Theory

Firms operating in Africa must be seen to have character and this character must be consistent with the values of the community that firms operate in. The character of firms must be enduring and unchanging in the face of difficulties and challenges. The CSR activities of firms operating in Africa must be consistent and reliable. CSR activities must not be done due to difficulties and they must not be done based on the convenience of operating firms. When things are difficult, firms operating in Africa should be seen to be "loyal" to the society and consistent in their commitment to sustainable development. Firms must not cut their budget to the detriment of community and sustainable development.

3.18.3 Nnoboa

Nnoboa is a communalism concept among the Akans of Ghana that shows how individual members of communities come together to help each other to accomplish specific tasks. The idea is that if an individual in the community does not contribute to the achievement of a specific task then that individual does not benefit from the gains accruing from the task. This system is used by farmers' associations to help their members. They come together to help clear a member's farmland and prepare the land for the sowing season. The individual farmer so helped also joins other members to help clear another member's land and prepare the land for sowing. A rough English translation of Nnoboa is "weeding to help".

3.18.3.1 Nnoboa CSR Theory

This concept appears to support the social contract theory discussed earlier in this literature. The Nnoboa concept confirms that Africans believe in reaping where one sows and that everything comes at a price. This is against the traditional notion that Africans like free and cheap things. Firms operating in Africa must sow and reap in Africa. In other words, firms must not exploit Africans. This theory connotes the idea of a fair exchange in business. Firms must use resources judiciously. Hence, CSR activities of firms operating in Africa must be supported from resources generated from the firms' investment. This defeats the notion that CSR is purely philanthropic. From the review of the literature above, the following hypotheses are hereby proposed:-

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brands value

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance

3.19 Summary CSR Literature

From the above literature, it can be concluded that, although there is a good number of definitions of CSR, there is no end to the explanation and expansion of the meaning of CSR. Moreover, CSR has different meanings and characteristics in different continents and cultures. What constitutes CSR activities in Western Europe may not constitute CSR activities in Asia and Africa. So, for example, the direct application of Western CSR theories in Ghana and Africa may be unsuccessful.

CSR drivers are many and vary from one firm to another; and what drives CSR activities in Africa may not drive CSR activities in other cultures.

The main driver of CSR activity is image and profit improvement in some firms while, without regulations and external pressure, some firms will not embark upon CSR at all. While most authors cited in this literature indicate a positive relationship between CSR activities and a firm's business performance, there are a number of authors who conclude that there is a neutral relationship and others even posit a negative relationship between CSR and company financial performances (CFP) and therefore brand performance. It was also observed that the more a firm is known for social irresponsibility, the greater the negative impact on the firm's brand performance and therefore corporate brand value. Positive CSR activity therefore leads to a higher brand value of firms. Furthermore, many firms are turning towards more socially responsible behaviour in order to stay competitive in their industries. However, not all CSR activities necessarily build corporate brand/image and CSR activities do affect the choice of brand by customers. There is, however, a positive relationship between CSR activities and organisational brand value. The next section reviews the literature on the brand concept.

3.20 The Brand Concept

This section reviews literature on branding and how brand building efforts of organisations are influenced by their CSR activities. This section also introduces some hypotheses on the relationship between branding and CSR activities. Brands are considered as collections of tangible and intangible attributes including a name, logo, or design. These represent and differentiate one service or product from another as managed by the brand owner, and the consumer's perception (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2003). Brands are therefore composed of functional and symbolic elements (Elliot and Percy, 2007; Keller, 1993, 2008; Morgan and Pritchard, 1999).

Brand has been defined by the American Marketing Association as "a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or services as distinct from those of other sellers". The legal term for brand is trademark. "A brand is a name, term, sign or symbol, or design, or a combination of them intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers" (Keller, 2003). Branding is to help achieve and maintain a loyal customer base in a cost effective way in order to achieve the highest possible returns on investment (Jones and Quitas, 1996).A successful brand is an identifiable product, service,

person or place, augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant, unique added values that match their needs more closely. Furthermore, its success results from being able to sustain these added values in the face of competition (De Chernatony and McDonald, 1998, p. 20). Plummer (1985) discusses the duality of brands and suggests that they are composed from two elements: the input, related to what the brand owner wants consumers to feel about their brand; and the outtake, which is the consumers perceptions of the brand.

A brand may identify one item, a family of items, or all items of that seller. If used for the firm as a whole, the preferred term is "trade name". The creation of a strong corporate identity is crucial for companies to encourage positive attitudes in their different target markets (van Riel and Balmer, 1997). "Brands only properly exist in the minds of consumers and represent the totality of experience. Thus brand is as much about internal understanding as external communications" (Ind, 2007). Brands are composed of tangible and intangible variables (Elliot and Percy, 2007; Keller, 1993, 2008; Morgan and Pritchard, 1999; Patterson, 1999). Tangible visual elements include logos and designs to signify and identify the nature of the service or product (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2003).

The main components of a brand identity are the name and logo, which communicate the characteristics of an organisation. Theorists agree that corporate name and logo should be recognizable, evoke positive effect and allow the transmission of a set of shared associations (Henderson and Cote, 1998; Henderson and Cote, 1998; Janiszewski and Meyvis, 2001; Klink, 2001). According to Kotler et al. (2001), brand can be divided into four different levels.

- *Attributes*: A watch can be nice looking, have many technological features and be expensive.
- *Advantages*: An expensive watch may give the owner a certain status, or one with many features may help the owner be on time. One should look upon the advantages with the attributes in mind.
- *Values*: The buyers of a specific brand will most likely share values with the brand, i.e. the customers of BMW probably value performance, comfort and prestige.
- *Personality*: One can compare a brand with human attributes, and if the brand was actually a person what type of person would it be?

According to Rowley and Berman (2000), brands identify with the customer both psychologically and physically to increase the appeal of products and services. Branding therefore concentrates on generating an additional emotional value to the customer, which fundamentally creates imaginative and visual associations for information – a way for consumers to simplify the time-consuming process of search and comparison before deciding what use branding is to differentiate their product and service offerings from those of their competitors (Kotler et al., 2001). According to Fan (2005), branding is a social construct, as well as an economic construct. As an economic construct, brands have been studied from both the marketing and financial perspectives. As a social construct, brands have not yet been fully understood owing to the dearth of academic research in this area.

3.21 History of Branding

The word "brand" originally comes from the Old Norse word *"brandr"*, which means "to burn". The livestock owners historically used to burn their animals to differentiate them from other owners. From branding livestock to branding goods is a small step. In the Greek and Roman eras branding became more popular; shop-owners used signs to present goods or services that were offered. The brand was used as a mark of identification and the good craftsmen were hoping customers would be looking for their particular mark on the goods. Early branding was both a sign of authorship and a way to differentiate products and the first brands were developed by industrial concerns over 100 years ago to wrest control of sales of products from retailers (www.branding.com).

Brands are said to have started with consumer goods. Proctor & Gamble and other consumer product companies began branding their products in earnest in the mid-to-late 1800s. But more interesting to the researcher is how far back in time branding goes. For instance, companies that sold patented medicines and tobacco began branding their products as early as the early 1800s. Around the same time, some fraternities and sororities branded their pledges (literally) during initiation rites as a form of identification and bonding (http://www.brandingstrategyinsider.com). David Aaker (1991a) suggests branding has been practised since the medieval era in Europe, when tradesmen and craftsmen used their names on products to avoid substitution: however, it was not until the 20th century that differentiated branding became an aspect of modern marketing.

3.22 Various Definitions of Brand and Branding

Brand is the sum total of how someone perceives a particular organisation. Branding is about shaping that perception. Branding is the art of aligning what you want people to think about your company with what people actually do think about your company, and vice-versa. Branding is the encapsulation of a company's mission statement, objectives, and corporate soul as expressed through the corporate voice and aesthetics (Cohen, 2011).

David Aaker (1991) has written extensively on managing brands and he provides a definition of the brand concept as "a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as a logo, trademark or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors. A brand thus signals to the customer the source of the product and protects both the customer and the producer from competitors who would attempt to provide products that appear to be identical" (Aaker, 1991, p.7). Morgan and Pritchard (1999) suggest that brands may be understood on functional and unconscious levels. Indeed brands reflect individuals' perceptions of greater discourses within the world around them as they experience it. Brands are a "unique combination of product characteristics and added values both functional and non-functional, which have taken on a relevant meaning which is inextricably linked to that brand, awareness of which might be conscious or intuitive" (Morgan and Pritchard, 1999, p.140). In other words, a brand is an entity that offers customers (and other relevant parties) added value based on factors over and above its functional performance. These added values, or brand values, differentiate the offer and provide the basis for customer preference and loyalty.

De Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) attempted to conceptualize brand by introducing two dimensions, namely, performance needs (functionality) and personal expression needs (representation). Subsequently, De Chernatony (1993a) tried to empirically test this model in both product and service markets, and demonstrated that a brand can be conceptualized by these two dimensions in both types of markets.

Generally, as noted by Harris and De Chernatony (2001), there is a shift in the branding literature from a focus on the concept of brand image, which relates to the consumers' perceptions of brand differentiation, to brand identity that focuses on the distinctiveness of

the brand (Kapferer, 1997). Generally, understanding the concept of brand is the first step in order to understand the concept of brand equity.

3.23 Brand Equity

Over the past two decades in particular, marketing research and marketing practice have paid increasing attention to the processes associated with building a strong relationship between brand and consumer; and it is often argued that brand is the most valuable asset for any company (Aaker, 1991a, b, 2004; Kapferer, 1997). The concept of brand equity is of particular relevance to consumer choice. In essence, brand equity measures the value of the brand, both to the organisation and to the consumer. For the consumer, this added value arises from the brand's role as an indicator of desirable attributes and as the basis for building an emotional bond (Teas and Grapentine, 1996).

Brand equity is a central concern of brand image as a symbolic or intangible brand element. Positive brand equity can contribute to successful brands and is based upon a collection of dimensions managed by brand owners (Aaker, 1991a; Elliot and Percy, 2007; Graeff, 1995; Keller, 1993, 2008; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). From the above review, the following hypothesis is proposed:-

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association

One of the most important aspects of a brand positioning in the product category is how different or similar the brand is perceived to be in comparison to other brands in the product category (Sujan and Bettman, 1989, p.454). Therefore, brand positioning influences purchasing decisions in a way that consumers see the brand as unique, true and the one which meets his/her needs. The idea of positioning, although it relates to modern branding strategies, dates to Plato's assertion that memories evoke related memories, thus colouring interpretations (Mentz et al., 2013). The main point is that the meaning of one idea depends on the positioning of the association in the network of memory. The idea of positioning can be represented through the "mind map". From the review of the literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:-

H4: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position.

Consumers are aware of a large number of brands when making buying decisions, and brands with higher awareness levels are more likely to be part of the final buying decision. Brand awareness is also said to influence the brand's perceived quality, as found in a consumer choice (MacDonald and Sharp, 1996).Therefore, it is hypothesised that:-

H5: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness

Lai et al. (2010) also reveals that CSR has a positive effect on industrial brand equity and brand performance; and brand equity includes brand awareness, brand perceived quality, brand association and brand loyalty. From the review of the literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:-

H6: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality

David Aaker further explains brand equity as a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to its name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers (Aaker, 1991, p.16). Indeed to really understand brand equity, consumers' perceptions are the most important factor. They lead to preference for specific brands in terms of perceived added value; and can potentially impact upon the success of the brand (Elliot and Percy, 2007). Keller (1993, p.2) presents a conceptual model of customer-based brand equity, defined as: "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand". Within this definition, three concepts are important. The first is the comparison between consumers responses to the marketing of a particular brand compared with the response to the same marketing of a similar unnamed product or service. Secondly, brand knowledge, which is defined in terms of brand awareness and brand image and is "conceptualized according to the characteristics and relationships of brand associations" (Keller, 1993, p.8). The third concept is the consumers' response to marketing, described as the consumers' perceptions, preferences and behaviours that result from the marketing mix.

Brand knowledge, as an element of brand equity, is composed of brand awareness and brand image. Keller (1993) suggests both are aspects of memory and while brand awareness relates to consumers recall and recognition, brand image is memories held of the associations they

link to the brand. Additionally, Keller (2003, p.70) draws attention to the important role of strong, favourable and unique associations in the creation of a positive brand image: "A positive brand image is created by marketing programmes that link strong, favourable and unique associations to the brand in memory". The benefits of CSR, such as increased profit, customer loyalty, and a positive attitude toward the brand, have been widely studied by McDonald and Rundle-Thiele (2008) and they posit that customers will be willing to know about the brand when they have a better perception about CSR activities of the firm in question. From the above review, a hypothesis is formulated as follows:-

H7: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge

In defining brand equity Aaker (1991a) grouped assets and liabilities into five categories. These are loyalty, awareness, perceived quality, brand association and other proprietary brand assets—patents, trademarks, channel relationships which should be linked to the name and/or symbol of the brand.

Most consumers feel a greater sense of security with brand names for a number of reasons and, as a strategy, products and services with established brands are usually priced higher than generic products and services. In order to promote good business, a well-known brand must depend on its reputation by making sure it maintains the assured form of security it has projected in the minds of its customers that gives them some assurance of the brand of the organisation. Big brands work more actively toward moderating any damage that may result from customer dissatisfaction, as consumer complaints directed at big brand names automatically generate instant and wide-spread interest in the media. It is therefore hypothesised that:-

H8: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty

When examining brands and their significance to customers, an important construct to include is customers' loyalty to a brand. According to Jacoby and Kyner (1973) and Jacoby (1975), brand loyalty reflects (an) individuals' bias toward a brand. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) further indicate that customers' loyalty toward a brand is so significant that "it is at the heart of any brand's value" (p. 17).

As noted by Aaker (1996) "... a brand without a loyal customer base usually is vulnerable or has value only in its potential to create loyal customers" (p. 21). From the review of the literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:-

H9: The higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase.

Brands differ in the power and value they have in the market due to different factors. Powerful brands are known to have brand equity. There are brands of which buyers have a high degree of brand awareness, brand acceptability, brand preference and brand loyalty respectively. Brand equity is based on the scope, consisting of brand loyalty, name, awareness, perceived quality, strong brand relations, and other assets like patents and trademarks.

Also, brands that have strong brand equity are seen as a valuable asset to the firm and can be bought or sold for a price (Kotler, 2003). Lauritsen and Perks (2015) have indicated that brand value of firms is boosted when knowledge of their CSR activities is communicated. The undernoted hypothesis is formulated:-

H10: The higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase.

Brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities joined to a brand via its name and symbol, which adds or subtracts from the value offered by goods or services to a firm's customers (Aaker, 1991). A company's value depends largely on the brand value. Many private equity deals and merger and acquisition transactions account for brand equity. The main reason is that investors must make sure that their investment is adequate, and it will provide a high rate of return. Any dealer of the brand must therefore ensure he gets his return on investment and needs to be sure that the price is close to the real value of the brand.

Brand equity relates to the fact that different outcomes result from the marketing of a product or service because of its brand name or some other brand element. It represents the marketing effects uniquely attributable to the brand and the added value endowed to a product or service as a result of past investments in the marketing activity for a particular brand. Brand equity serves as the bridge between what happened to the brand in the past and what should happen to the brand in the future.

Brand equity has been defined by Aaker (1991a, p. 4) as "a set of assets such as name awareness, loyal customers, perceived quality, and associations that are linked to the brand and add value to the product or service being offered".

Keller (1993), on the other hand, defines brand equity as the effect of the brand on the consumers' response to the marketing activities associated with a particular product. It is clear from the above definitions that "brand equity is a multi-dimensional concept" (De Chernatony and McDonald, 1998, p. 396) and can be considered from a number of different perspectives, including financial markets, the consumer, the firm, the employees and the channel of communication (Kimet al., 2003;Vazqueet al., 2002; Supornpraditchaiet al., 2007).

The definition of brand equity from the financial perspective emphasizes the brand as a name, which represents an asset that is of value to the organisation because of its ability to create future earnings/cash flow (Shocker and Weitz, 1988; De Chernatony and McDonald, 1998; Kimet al., 2003). From a consumer's point of view, brand equity represents attributes such as better product performance, stronger risk reduction, lower information costs and a positive image of the product.

Consumer-based brand equity represents the added value of the brand to the consumer (Farquhar, 1989) and can be defined as "the overall utility that the consumer associates with the use and consumption of the brand; including associations expressing both functional and symbolic utilities" (Vazquezet al., 2002, p. 28). From a firm's point of view, brand equity represents attributes such as lower financial risk, incremental cash flow, higher rent, higher entry barriers, lower marketing and distribution cost for extensions and protection from imitation via trade marking (De Mooij, 1998). Moreover, the brand can create stronger customer loyalty, reduced price elasticity of demand, and increased marketing effectiveness, opportunities for licensing agreements as well as brand extensions and a stronger competitive position (Keller, 2003).

Finally, employee-based brand equity (EBBE) is another dimension of brand equity, which focuses on the employees' perception toward the organisation brand. EBBE reflects "uniqueness of company brand associations, brand consistency, brand creditability and brand clarity" (Supornpraditchaiet al., 2007, p.1728). Aaker (1991a) proposed the first comprehensive model of brand equity. He identified five dimensions of brand equity, namely,

brand name awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty (Goodyear, 1993; De Chernatony, 1993a; De Chernatony and Riley, 1999).

Keller (1993) developed a customer-based brand equity model, which focused on familiarity and awareness, and favourable strong and unique brand associations. He argued that brand equity is determined mainly by brand knowledge, which comprises awareness, attributes, benefits, images, thoughts, feelings, attitudes and experience. Subsequently, these and other models have been tested in a variety of contexts. Faircloth et al. (2001) examine the relationship between brand image, brand attitude and brand equity using Aaker's (1991a) and Keller's (1993) models. Their results provide some support for both models, in that brand image and attitude create brand equity, although the role of brand awareness was not sufficiently explored and evaluated.

Yoo and Donthu (2001) came out with a "multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale (MBE)" based on Aaker's and Keller's models and focused particularly on brand awareness, perceived quality, associations and loyalty. The study provides a generalized measure of brand equity and brings out the differential impact of different dimensions of brand equity.

In a comparative study, Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995) examined the effect of the main dimensions of consumer-based brand equity on purchase intent (based on Aaker's (1991a) and Keller's (1993) conceptual models of brand equity). Specifically in the service sector, Muller (1998) examined the determinants of brand equity in the case of the restaurant industry and found that quality of the product or the service, service delivery and symbolic image were the main determinants of brand (Mourad et al., 2011).

Companies, products and their brands have their life cycles, which can more or less overlap. This means that brand will have both its high point and its "top form" and will enter the process of decay, eventually. Therefore, the assignment of the brand manager is to recognize the brand's "top form" and to undertake all the necessary actions to keep it there as long as possible. The same refers to the brand's associated equity. According to Pitta and Prevel Katsanis (1995, p. 57), brand equity is a subject of growth and reinforcement, or decay, and assault by competitors, or it can be harmed by intentioned actions of a management. The value associated with the product or service is communicated through the brand to the consumer. Consumers no longer want just a service or a product but a relationship based on

trust and familiarity. Consequently, the company will enjoy an earnings stream secured by loyalty of customers who are buying the brand (Yates, 1999).

3.23.1 Measures of Brand Equity

Aaker's Brand Equity Ten encompasses the four elements mentioned above as well as financial measures, as presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Brand Equity Ten

Loyalty Measures	▪ Price Premium ▪ Satisfaction/Loyalty
Perceived Quality/ Leadership Measures	• Perceived Quality • Leadership
Association/ Differentiation Measures	• Perceived Value • Brand Personality • Organisational Associations
Awareness Measures	• Brand Awareness
Market Behaviour Measures	• Market Share • Price and Distribution Indices

Source: Aaker (1996, p.105)

3.23.2 Brand Equity and Brand Strength Measurement

Aaker sees the brand strength as the sensitive and credible measure that supplements the short-term financial measures. This measure is defined by Zimmerman et al. (2001, p. 46) with four different elements: brand identity, brand knowledge, brand positioning and perceived quality. These originate from Aaker's four dimensions of brand loyalty, perceived quality, associations and awareness. The appraisal of the brand strength can reveal areas of the brand's vulnerability (Cravens and Guilding, 2001 p. 58). In this way, managers can consider adequate actions that should be taken in order to make adjustments in the brand development and brand management strategy and implementation, and they can make provisions for resource allocation.

Even though Aaker sees all elements of the Brand Equity Ten as the elements of the brand strength, this researcher will focus attention on the following five elements: brand identity, brand knowledge, perceived quality, brand positioning and brand loyalty. In addition to these five variables this researcher adds customer performance and brand awareness as components of brand strength in this research. The strength of brand is determined by the consistency of the different brand identity components (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005).

According to Aaker (1991, 1996), brand equity is a multidimensional concept. It consists of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary brand assets.

Other researchers identify similar dimensions. Shocker and Weitz (1988) propose brand loyalty and brand associations, and Keller (1993) suggests brand knowledge, comprising brand awareness and brand image.

Below are some of the factors that could determine brand value:

i. **Brand leadership**- That which stands for the ability of the brand to influence the market;

ii. **Brand stability** - The characteristic that has made the brand the inherent "foundation" of the market;

iii. **Market** - The structural attractiveness of the market, its projected growth;

iv. **International presence of the brand** - The ability of a brand to distinguish itself between regional, national and international brands due to its attractiveness and appeal in a multiplicity of markets;

v. **Brand trend** - The brand's ability to remain contemporary and significant to the consumers;

vi. **Marketing support** - The quantity and quality of the investments made to support the brand; and

vii. **Legal protection**- The protection enjoyed by the brand that is received from the legal system, patents, trademarks, etc.

Measurement of the above variables, based on a detailed audit would determine a brand's strength. This provides the discount rate that needs to be applied to the adjusted estimates of the brand's earnings for determining its present value.

3.24 Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty can be defined as "a term used to describe the tendency that consumers have to stick with the products or services bearing brand names they know and trust". Brand loyalty is seen to be of great importance to an organisation as it maintains its recognition and reputation since it accrues profit through the promotion of repeated purchases by customers.

When examining brands and their significance to customers, an important construct to include is customers' loyalty to a brand. According to Jacoby and Kyner (1973) and Jacoby (1975), brand loyalty reflects (an) individuals' bias toward a brand. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) further indicate that customers' loyalty toward a brand is so significant that "it is at the heart of any brand's value" (p. 17). As noted by Aaker (1996) "... a brand without a loyal customer base usually is vulnerable or has value only in its potential to create loyal customers" (p. 21).

Finally, Heiens et., al. (2006) define loyalty as a construct typically viewed as the likelihood of one repeatedly purchasing the same brand. Erdem (1998) indicates the need for research that furthers our understanding of customers' loyalty toward a brand because of the motivational function served by value.

Relating value to loyalty, the value of something represents it having enough meaning to a person that they are motivated to acquire, retain or increase possession of it, in order to satisfy their needs, desires, wants, or purposes (Rokeach, 1973). Brand loyalty has been explained as a behavioural response and as a function of psychological processes (Jacoby and Kyner, 1973 referred to in Chaudhuri and Buck, 1995). It is also seen as a function of attitudes and habit. Contrary to brand attitudes and habit, which are brand specific, the concept of brand loyalty shows a concept that explains consumer's buying behaviour patterns within a product class (Day, 1969 referred to in Arjun Chaudhuri, 1995).

Altering the look and feel of a brand can have unfortunate consequences for a company, as it runs the risk of alienating brand-loyal consumers who may not recognize or trust the product or service under different packaging. In addition to the greater security offered by trusted brand names, many consumers simply do not want the hassle of trying out different products or services once they have found one they are comfortable with. Customers find it very difficult to try new brands thinking that purchasing different products and services can result in wasted time if the product or service is unsatisfactory to the consumer, irrespective of the fact that they have wasted money if the product or service is non-refundable.

Most consumers feel a greater sense of security with brand names for a number of reasons and, as a strategy, products and services with established brands are usually priced higher than generic products and services. In order to promote good business a well-known brand must depend on its reputation by making sure it maintains the assured form of security it has

projected in the minds of its customers that gives them some assurance of the brand of the organisation. Big brands work more actively toward mitigating any damage that may result from customer dissatisfaction.

3.25 Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is an important and undervalued part of brand equity. Awareness can influence perceptions and attitudes and it drives brand choice and loyalty. It reflects the salience of the brand in the customer's mind (Aaker, 1996). It is a part of the communication process. It has a key role in the consumer decision making process and in determining the consideration. Consumers are aware of a large number of brands when making buying decisions, and brands with higher awareness levels are more likely to be part of the final buying decision. Brand awareness is also said to influence the brand's perceived quality, as found in a consumer's choice (MacDonald and Sharp, 1996).

3.26 Brand Acceptability

Social marketing is a design, implementation and control of a plan that seeks to add the acceptability of a social idea, cause or practice in a target group (Kotler, 1975cited in Ballasy, 2004). A social class is a social group, usually defined by its members having equivalent socio-economic status. Generally, occupation and income serve to distinguish social classes but some researchers stress other factors like education, lifestyle, prestige or values (O'Shaugnessy, 1975). It is seen to be of great importance that, as an organisation or a firm, there is the need to brand your product corresponding to the fact that your target market will be willing to accept every product you place on the market.

So in this case it is imperative to put into consideration the social status of your target market as branding is being done. Accessibility, in other words, refers to how easy the target market of a brand finds it, as people interact with and purchase the brand of an organisation. Taylor (2006) deduces that it is clear that unknown or foreign brand names need more media expenses and exposure to achieve the brand acceptability and brand recall in comparison to any other indigenous brand names. Distribution channels and location play a very important role when dealing with brand accessibility, not disregarding the hours of operation, wait times, product availability and process simplicity; these on the other hand, form a perception about the brand to the customer. A brand must be at the right place at the right time for a sale to occur. Nevertheless, accessibility could be dependent upon other factors.

3.27 Components of a Brand

There are three basic components that constitute a brand, namely, brand personality, brand positioning and brand strategy (Doyle, 2002).

3.27.1 Brand Personality

Brand personality is defined as the attribution of human personality traits (seriousness and imagination) to a brand as a way to achieve differentiation. It is argued that it is usually done through long-term, above-the-line advertising (television, radio, print media) and appropriate packaging and graphics. These traits inform brand behaviour through the people who represent the brand - the employees. The personality of a brand is really the perception that consumers have of the brand in question. There are three types of appeals, namely, sensual, rational and emotional that helps shape the personality of the brand. The sensual appeal of a brand revolves around the look, feel and sound of the product while the rational appeal is directed at the physical performance of the product and the emotional appeal is centred on the psychological benefits that the product is able to conjure in the mind of the consumer (Doyle, 2002).

The findings of research conducted by Keller, Heckler and Houston (1998, p.53) indicate that making special reference to functional aspects, for example, ease of use, durability and performance can positively impact upon a consumer's perception of the product. Coca-Cola has elected to address the needs of their South African target audience in a number of different ways (Sunday Times, 2005, p.3). Firstly, emphasis has been placed on ensuring that the product is always freely available to consumers wherever they might want to consume the product. Secondly, the product must always be served cold to the consumer. Coca-Cola has over the years invested heavily in providing refrigerators to shop owners in black townships to achieve loyalty among their customers as well as be in a position to serve the product cold (as it was intended) to the consumer for immediate enjoyment. Thirdly, the product is well-priced to ensure that the consumer receives excellent value for money. Fourthly, the product is attractively packaged to ensure that it is easily recognizable but also trendy enough to appeal to a younger audience.

Finally, Coca-Cola have ensured that their marketing communication not only focuses on stimulating demand but also places emphasis on their projects designed for the upliftment of communities. For example, Coca-Cola gives R10 000 to a charity for every goal scored in the Coca-Cola Cup (Sunday Times, 2005, p.3).

3.27.2 Brand Positioning

Positioning is an important part of branding. Positioning is the process by which a firm offers its brand to the consumers. It is necessary that the message is communicated by all the organisation's activities because any of them may be the specific feature that customers analyze and develop their perception on (Arnold, 1992).

Traditionally, marketers use the marketing mix, the 4Ps of product, price, place and promotion, to position the brand and to create brand values around a coherent set of policies for each of these Ps (Lancaster and Reynolds, 1995; Kotler, 1997). While 4Ps marketing remains central to product and sales strategies, the organisation's marketing mix is more appropriate in an environment where customer value is created through the activities of the entire company. However, these credentials, or what the organisation is known for by customers, are sustainable only if the core processes that run end-to-end through the company are suitably aligned. Thus, it is the positioning of the organisation's brand in conjunction with its core processes that creates and delivers customer value through the organisation.

The core thought behind brand positioning is the idea that each brand (if at all noticed) occupies a particular point or space in the individual consumer's mind, a point that is determined by that consumer's perception of the brand in question and in its relation to other brands (Sengupta and Dahl, 2008). Some of the functional dimensions according to which a brand can be positioned include features like big/small, fast/slow, and male/female (Ratnatunga and Ewing, 2005). The marketing mix can hence be viewed as "the tactical detail of the brand's positioning strategy; any decision on positioning has direct and immediate implications for the whole marketing mix" (Evans, Moutinho and van Raaij, 1996). Conversely, all elements of the marketing mix – promotion, pricing, distribution and, of course, the product – are critical factors in positioning (Shostack, 1987) since they have an impact on the perceptual space of consumers (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Elson, 2004; Ries and Trout, 1986).

Brand positioning refers to the reason why a customer chooses a particular brand in preference to others. It is then better for marketers to look at things from the point of view that, if positioning is to be effectively achieved with the customer, it must first be achieved within the organisation. Shultz and Shultz (2004, p.27) note that brand starts inside with its people and their commitment and enthusiasm, not with ingredients and gimmicks and made-

up characters. The understanding of brands within marketing departments, and beyond them into the whole company can be achieved through exercises and group discussion (Shultz and Shultz, 2004, p. 27).

According to Shocker et al. (1994) and Keller (1998), in that "perceived brand globalness (position in the mind of the consumer) creates consumer perceptions of brand superiority and, thus, preference for global brands even when quality and value are not objectively superior" (Özsomerand Altaras, 2008, p. 5). Batra et al. (2000) found a direct relationship between the perceived non-localness of the brand and attitude toward the brand. A study by Steenkamp et al. (2003) investigating consumers from the USA and South Korea found that perceived brand globalness is positively related to both perceived brand quality and prestige, and resulting from this relationship, to the likelihood of a brand purchase. Holt et al. (2004) found that quality explained on average 44 per cent of brand preferences, lending further support that perceived quality has a significant direct association with global brand preference.

As Aaker (1996) states, brand positioning is the part of the brand identity and demonstrates an advantage over competing brands. All products and all organisations have a position. An increasing number of organisations are trying to manage the positions occupied by their brands and are using positioning strategies to move to new positions in buyers' minds and so generate an advantage over their competitors (Fill, 2002). From the review of the literature above the following hypothesis is hereby proposed:-

H11: The higher the level of brand position consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

Positioning involves placing a brand in a way that the target market perceives it as different and superior in relation to competitors (Crawford, 1985; Kotler, 2003). Positioning is important as it "sets the direction of marketing activities and programs – what the brand should and should not do with its marketing" (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). Thus, the development of the marketing programme should be linked to positioning to ensure that marketing mix decisions are consistent and supportive (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). For example, when a company claims high prestige, it can support this claim by charging a premium price, by limiting the number of distribution outlets, and/or by producing less than demanded (e.g. Bhat and Reddy, 1998). When brand images are strong, they can be used to enhance a person's self-image, and appeal to stakeholders (Keller, 1993) and influence

customers' purchase decisions, which in turn have an impact on the corporation's financial revenue (Muñoz, 2004).From the above literature the undernoted hypothesis is formulated:-

H12: The higher the level of brand image and identity consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

David Aaker (1991) considers consumers and brand owners' perspectives and presents the assets and liabilities associated with a particular brand as components of the overall brand image. These may alter the perceived value of a brand for brand owners and consumers.

3.27.3 Brand Strategies

The brand strategy originates from the position of the brand within the broader portfolio of the entity that has possession of the brand. A brand could be fighting for its survival in a high growth segment or perhaps be content with functioning within a mature or declining segment (Doyle, 2002). For example, internet search engine Google spent only 5 million dollars on marketing its brand in 2004 but has proven to be much more successful than many of its better established competitors who spent far more on their marketing campaigns. Evidence of this success is the fact that Google occupied the 20th position of the best known global brands in a survey conducted by Interbrand in 2008.

Ohnemus (2009) contends that a dynamic management of a firm's strategic branding position can lead to a more optimized financial performance. In addition, given the dynamic environment of business markets, suppliers need to be constantly repositioning their offerings to better respond to the changing needs of their customers. At times, this might call for a change in a brand's strategic positioning to remain competitive and relevant to customers (Beverland et al., 2007): meaning that strategically positioning your brand is far more important than just investing in a communication campaign. So in communicating a product or service, benefits must be situated within the brand audit.

3.28 Brand Preference

Buyers may sample a number of brands, liking some more than the others. This experience triggers the process of consumer inference and the question of the ones I like and those I do not like. Differences in brands or attributes are assumed to be the cause of such differences. It may be summed up that one has preference for a brand or some grouping of attributes. However, buyers could form attraction to brand features, relating them to satisfaction that is

reinforced by advertising and repeat buying. In the process, preferences are formed and developed, based on the interaction of buyer experience and brand strategy. This suggests that what customers want depends on what customers have experienced. Brand strategy plays a defining role in this evolution and can have enduring consequences. Advertising will have a data effect by letting a brand be included in a consumer's consideration. Firms also offer that advertising will promote differentiation by adding a brand's strength of preference (Mitra and Lynch, 1995).

3.29 Brand Image and Identity

The concept of brand identity originates from the corporate identity concept. The metaphorical use of the notion "identity" in the corporate context suggest that companies can be described through specific characteristics, due to the similarity with human beings (Karjalainen, 2003, p. 3). This was the starting point for Aaker's brand personality concept. According to Gagliardi (2002, p. 33), brand reflects the values and beliefs of the "brand originator" who is rooted in a particular culture. Therefore, brand can be perceived as the representation of the values that are specific to a certain company. This stands for both product and corporate brands.

According to Keller (2011), achieving the right brand identity involves creating brand salience with customers. Brand salience relates to aspects of the awareness of the brand, e.g., how often and easily the brand is evoked under various situations or circumstances. To what extent is the brand top-of-mind and easily recalled or recognized? What types of cues or reminders are necessary? How pervasive is this brand awareness? A highly salient brand is one that has both depth and breadth of brand awareness, such that customers always make sufficient purchases as well as always think of the brand across a variety of settings when it could possibly be employed or consumed. Identity functions in two directions: the brand towards the customer; and customer towards the brand.

Since the focus of each market oriented company is the customer, we can certainly claim that the former approach is much more "in use" than the latter. Brand towards the customer approach denotes that companies are becoming aware of the values, wishes and needs of their customers, and are attempting to generate brands that are communicating these values to the customers, and consequently meet the needs of their customers. If the "mission" of the company is successful and it results in loyal customers, we can say that the company understands its customers.

The second direction, being customers towards the brand, comes from the values of the customers, although the customer is the one searching for the value-match. The result is basically the same. Identification with the brand, as such, relates to the acceptance of certain values, which are represented by the brand. The value of the brand in question is higher than the value that the customer would obtain by buying another brand/product. The relationship between customer and brand can then be seen as the perfect "fit" (Jokanovic, 2005).

Brand knowledge is the fifth level of brand awareness (Aaker, 1996, p. 115), and it refers to both brand awareness and brand image (Chandon, 2003, p. 1). Brand awareness is one of the elements of Brand Equity Ten. It can affect both consumer perception and attitudes of the brand. The levels of brand awareness are as follows (Aaker, 1996, p. 114): recognition, recall, top-of-mind, brand dominance, brand knowledge and brand opinion. Since recognition is usually "attached" to new brands, brand knowledge is appropriate for well-established brands. One of the problems indicated by Aaker in the same study is that, for some brands, name imagery cannot be separated from the familiarity with brand symbols and the brand imagery.

3.30 Importance of Branding

In order for a brand to continue growing in popularity, the company concerned must invest resources in it to ensure that it enhances the image of the brand in the eyes of the target market and thereby protects its future cash flow (Dewhirst and Davis, 2005). As customers continue to use a brand and gain satisfaction and experience with the brand, they develop trust in the brand. Therefore, brands allow companies to develop a unique identity for themselves and get the opportunity to attract a large number of repeat purchases. Companies that have a history of strong brands are able to command a higher market share and premium price than products that are unbranded. When companies develop trust in their customers through brand satisfaction, they are able to build relationships with them, strengthen their brands and make it more difficult for competitors to imitate. If customers are satisfied with a company's brands, potential competitors are reluctant to enter the market because the existing products are able to satisfy customers.

Bovée and Arens (1994, p. 158) note that the fundamental differentiating device for all products is the brand, that is, the combination of name, words, symbols or design that identifies the products and their source and differentiates them from competitive products.

Without branding, consumers could not tell one product from another. Branding reduces price comparisons because it is difficult to compare prices on two items with different brands (Arens and Bovée, 1994, p. 158). Branding helps consumers recognize and identify products easily as product proliferation takes place in the market. Brands also ensure standards in quality, taste and size consistently.

When branding is done effectively, advertising can also be effective if it takes advantage of the brand's positioning. Consumers must be familiar with and believe in the brand's promise, which translates into effectiveness of advertising (Arens, 2002). Because brands represent attitudes and feelings about a product, they enable companies to position themselves and their products favourably in the minds of their consumers by establishing a unique identity.

3.31 Brand as a Product

A product is one of four elements of the marketing mix. There is also a product mix, which includes brand, label, sign, mark and package. This mix is what most people think of when they think of a "brand" (Crainer and Dearlove, 2003, p. 19).

3.32 Service Branding

Service branding refers to intangible services. With services, brands are perceived through the service that is associated with it and not the material things that the brand symbols are attached to. Consumers expect to get some benefits from products and they tend to associate a brand with the service they expect to be delivered. Therefore, service brands need to be given much attention. There has been a noticeable amount of discussion on whether the principles of branding services differ from those of products (e.g. de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003; de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999). Each discussion shares a common belief that it is the emphasis given to different elements of the branding strategy that differentiates service branding from product branding, yet the conceptual basis of "the brand" remains rather similar. Hence, the service experience and service performance are important in building service brands (Matear, Gray and Garret, 2004).

De Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) emphasize the uniqueness of services by pointing out that, since service depends on the culture of an organisation and the attitudes and training of its employees, it is more difficult to build and sustain it successfully, but it is also more difficult to copy by competitors. Accentuating this, Doyle (1989, p. 87) has pointed out that

service is perhaps the most sustainable differential advantage. The critical task of services branding, according to Ball and Shivakumar (2008) and McDonald, de Chernatony and Harris (2001), is to bring tangibility to the intangible. However, this task becomes more difficult when the brand represents a network of independent organisations.

3.32.1 Executing the Service Branding Strategy

Having devised a core set of functional and emotional values for a service brand, these then need to be supported by an appropriate execution strategy (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999). According to de Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003), the execution of a services brand strategy needs more consideration due to factors such as the intangible nature of services, the variable perceived quality of a services brand (which is reliant on all employees acting in the same way), and the numerous interfaces through which customers interact with the service brand. It is also argued that successful service brands, and thus, effectively implemented service branding strategy; derive from carefully nurtured relationships, which develop employees and consumers' respect for certain functional and emotional values of the brand. Thus, the execution of a service brand also requires greater emphasis on internal marketing (McDonald, de Chernatony and Harris, 2001).

De Chernatony (2001) suggest that services brands can be developed through a process, which consists of setting clear brand objectives, defining clear positioning and selecting appropriate values. Supporting this process, Dobree and Page (1990) have further developed it by listing five steps for effective branding services. These are building a brand proposition, which is consistent with defining a brand positioning; overcoming internal barriers, which comprises of assuring employees from the benefits of the brand strategy and thus attenuating the possible counteraction; measuring delivery against the proposition; continual improvement; and expansion. Expansion means that organisations must continually re-evaluate their brand proposition and increase the amount and qualities of the services offered and reach out to consumers in order to create a thriving brand. These rudiments should thus be included in an organisation's long-term strategy for securing the continuous evolvement of the brand.

De Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) have identified themes specific to services brands in their research and through them, they recognised three criteria of importance in the success of services brands. These are focused position, consistency and values.

A clearly focused position can provide a key competitive tool to attract customers from competitors' brands and it is strongly linked with communication to ensure comprehension among both employees and consumers. Consistency reflects in the fact that it must extend to encompass the experience of the brand by all stakeholders, not just consumers; there must thus be common perceptions of the brand among all stakeholders. Values are something managers need to represent in their own behaviour in order to commit employees to the brand vision. The point that has been stressed here is the responsibility of managers in creating an organisational culture where management commitment precedes staff commitment (De Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003).

Hence, these elements can be assumed to be in a crucial position in long-term brand development. Through a clearly and strongly focused position a service brand can, in addition to achieving a competitive advantage, survive in the unstable market environment and through times of increasing competition. Further, through consistency, a coherent brand image can be created and sustained. In addition, values, when successfully embedded, ensure the true commitment of the employees to the brand vision in a network and thus, through enthusiasm, make the consistent behaviour and actions of employees possible.

3.33 Organisational Brands and Value

Value is the trade-off between what a consumer gives and gets from a brand. Intangible values are the benefits which customers experience that are not the physical parts of the brand, but can include the parts of the brand personality. These features of the brand cannot be seen, tasted, felt, heard or smelt before they are bought like trust, freedom, power and excitement. However, tangible values are the benefits that the customer experiences that are the physical parts of the brand. Perceived value is the consumers' overall estimation of the benefits of goods. It is based on what they get such as quality, satisfaction, or convenience and what is given like price, time and effort. Moreover, perceived value is completely based on the individual. Perceived quality is the consumer's perception about the goods overall excellence in comparison to other goods. It is also based on the individual (Aaker and Biel, 1992) referred to it in Ryan, 2002). Brand value can be enhanced through brand management, and in this way increase the value of the company in the eyes of the customers as well as potential investors. Therefore, companies are increasingly recognizing the importance of brand guardianship and management as the key to successful business management (Yates et al., 1999). The value associated with the product or service is communicated through the

brand to the consumer. Consumers no longer want just a service or a product but a relationship based on trust and familiarity. Consequently, the company will enjoy an earnings stream secured by loyalty of customers who are buying the brand (Yates, 1999). Building a strong brand is a successful strategy for differentiating a product from competing brands (Aaker, 1991).

Marketing literature is replete with factors reported to influence organisational brand value. Kevin Lane Keller (2003) identified factors, such as brand identity, brand relationships, brand response and brand meaning as factors affecting organisational brand value. Similarly Broyles et al. (2009) reported factors, such as manufacture brand loyalty and retail brand loyalty as factors affecting organisational brand value. A study done by Steenkamp et al. (2003) investigating consumers from the USA and South Korea found that perceived brand globalness is positively related to both perceived brand quality and prestige, and resulting from this relationship, to the likelihood of a brand purchase.

Examples of these types of brands include corporate brands, political party's charities and so on. The brand goes beyond the product or service that is being offered and is incorporated into the organisation. The organisation then becomes the brand. Avon and Unilever, for example, have taken the concept of the brand to the core of the corporation (Crainer and Dearlove, 2003, p. 19).

In recent years, corporate branding has become a significant issue in both industry and academia. Firms are devoted to enhancing corporate brand value to maintain their competitive advantages. Some literature indicates that corporate brand value is an essential element of an enterprise; higher corporate brand value creates an attractive brand (Aaker, 1996; Balmer et al., 2003; Czellar and Palazzo, 2004; Keller and Aaker, 1992; Kolter, 2003). Therefore, firms should emphasize the influence of corporate brand value on their customers, and identify superior brand strategies.

Coca-Cola calculates that only about 4 per cent of its value can be attributed to its plants, machinery and locations. The real value of the soft drinks giant lies in its intangible assets, and first amongst these is its brand. Likewise, the microprocessor company Intel, which makes more profit than the world's ten biggest PC makers combined, believes that 85 per cent of its worth lies in its brand equity and intellectual capital: the brand name, patents, know-how, its people and processes (Hope and Hope, 1997). The ability of corporate brands

to influence perceptions and behaviours and even "channel consumer perceptions" is stressed by a number of authors (Chun and Davies, 2006; Kay, 2006).

The main prerequisites for the establishment of a successful brand are as follows (Melewar and Walker 2003, p. 168):

- Brands should be linked to corporate strategy
- Brands are a shorthand summary of its company
- Brands should be constantly manifested through the marketing mix
- Brands should be consistently positioned across markets
- Brand should deliver value, which should be expressed in consumer terms
- Brands portray a continuous relationship between the company and its buyers and users
- Good brands should provide a platform for innovation and differentiation
- A company should understand its markets' macro environments, competitive force, cultural dynamics and national identity

3.34 Corporate Brands

Branding literature makes differences in the following types of brands: a corporate brand, a portfolio of product brands and a product brand. Corporate brand is defined at the level of the company. The positive image of a strong organisation usually extends to credibility of the products sold under the company's brand, both existing ones and those that are new to the market (Siburian, 2004). According to Aaker (1996), when brands are managed separately and independently, or on an ad hoc basis, overall resources allocation among brands may be less than optimal. Hence, having the corporate brand, or in other words, cohesive brand portfolio, instead of a number of individual product brands is more rational from the company's point of view.

Corporate brand is defined primarily by organisational associations (Aaker, 2004, p. 7). It is very important to note that organisational associations are equally important for both product and corporate brands. Nevertheless, the power, number and credibility of the organisational associations are larger in cases of corporate associations. The main distinction between the product brand and its "umbrella" (corporate) brand(s) is that once the product brand is established, it begins its life in the eyes of customers independent of the organisation that

created it. Corporate brand is permanently tied to both organisations and other brands of the company: product brands.

The main prerequisite for successful corporate branding strategies is that corporate brand has to provide the sincerity, which will assure potential buyer that the product will satisfy their needs on a physical, emotional and all other levels. That is why the corporate brands can be identified as "endorsers" before the product brand in question "begin to have a life on their own". At the same time, corporate brand has to provide the valued relationship with the respected company (Aaker, 2004, p.7).

The main differences between the corporate brand and the product brand will be summarized in the following section. The first difference is in the longevity. In this sense, product brands, along with products, might appear and disappear, and the products, along with their brands have a regular life cycle. The corporate brands, on the other hand, have roots that are much "deeper" than the roots of the product brand. "Heritage" of the corporate brand is the basis for its success and "everlasting life". Heritage helps the brand to reappear even after a crisis. Corporate brand can provide a message, which can be different from that of the product brand. Corporate brands with a long successful history can be perceived as reliable, high quality but at the same time as déjà vu: boring and outdated. In these cases, a combination of successful organisational heritage and injection of the energy of the new brand is the right solution to the problem (Aaker, 2004, p. 7).

Corporate brand imagery is formed through the different dimensions of the corporate marketing mix, namely, corporate identity; corporate communications; marketing and stakeholder management; corporate brand management; corporate reputation; and organisational identity (Balmer and Greyser, 2006). The resulting synthesis of these elements, allows organisations to develop more elaborate and meaningful associations across a range of stakeholder groups. Thus, a higher level of complexity is attributed to the corporate brand (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). Moreover, corporate branding requires management engagement in the process of linking strategic vision, organisational culture and corporate images (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). The synthesis of internal and external brand communication allows for the development of a congruous corporate brand identity. Yoo, Donthu and Lee (2000) proposed that brand equity leads to customer value addition and value addition to a firm.

From the literature above, this researcher proposes that organisational brand value comprises of shareholders' willingness to invest and buy shares in the organisation; a belief in the great future of the organisation; and market value of the organisation will remain competitive now and in the future.

3.35 Integration of Corporate Social Responsibility and Branding

There is a growing interest in the ways in which CSR can build and enhance brands and in what Blumenthal and Bergstrom (2003) have described as the "convergence of branding and corporate social responsibility". Middlemiss (2003), for example, suggests "CSR is taking centre stage to provide more sustainable, long term brand value". Bronn and Vrioni (2001) argue that "having a pro-social agenda means having a powerful marketing tool that can build brand image and the brand equity sector" while Yan (2003) emphasizes that CSR "marks the difference between brands that have captured the imagination of tomorrow's consumers and those that are proving to be causalities". Klein and Dawar (2004) argue that marketing plays "a role in consumers' brand and product evaluations". Girod and Michael (2003) have stressed that "CSR can be a key tool to create, develop and sustain differentiated brand names".

According to Rowley (2004), brands identify with the customer in both psychological and physical ways to increase the appeal of products and services. Brands thrive through the relationships they form with customers (De Chernatony, 2001). The better the relationship, the better the performance of the brand. Branding therefore concentrates on generating an additional emotional value to the customer, and fundamentally creates imaginative and visual associations for information as a way for consumers to simplify the time-consuming process of search and comparison; necessitating the use of branding to differentiate product and service offerings from those of competitors (Kotler, 2000). According to Fan (2005), branding is a social construct as well as an economic construct. As an economic construct, brands have been studied from both marketing and financial perspectives. As a social construct, brands have not yet been fully understood owing to the dearth of academic research in this area.

A brand may have many other meanings depending on the role it plays, the value it has and more importantly, to whom it is related. To brand owners, a brand is mainly a differentiation device: the living memory and the future of its products (Kapferer, 1997). To brand users, a

brand may create an emotional bond with them, which turns the brand into an icon. Brands represent not only the products or services a company provides but the organisation itself: the brand is therefore the company and any organisation's brands therefore become synonymous with the organisations' values, mission and policies (Goodyear, 1996; de Chernatony and McDonald, 2003). Therefore, a CSR policy of an organisation can be synonymous with an image or perception of the organisation's brand. A brand is no longer just the interface between the company and its customers, or the general public; it is the face of the company. Branding is a key function in marketing that means much more. Jones (2005), in making a business case for CSR, indicated that brand value enhancement is achieved through CSR activities. Doing CSR activities, according to David (1996), can improve the brand equity of firms. From the above review, the following hypothesis is formulated:-

H13: The better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

Consumers no longer want just a service or a product but a relationship based on trust and familiarity. Consequently, the company will enjoy an earnings stream secured by loyalty of customers who are buying the brand (Yates, 1999). Huang (2015), states that a strong customer relationship with a brand significantly influences value. Customer performance is linked to a good customer relationship. It stands to reason that a good relationship with the customer can lead to greater patronage of goods or services of the firm. Moreover, if the relationship supports the lifecycle of the customers who have had a previous positive experience then it is likely they will continue to love the firm's brand and firm valuation will increase (Romaniuk, 2013; Castana and Perez, 2014; Maxian, Bradley, Wise and Toulouse, 2013; Nguyen, Melewar and Chen, 2013). Research done by Kumar (2015) points out that the understanding that marketing value should be seen as an integrated part of an organisation is a current and evolving theme. Duguleana and Duguleana (2014) confirm this concept, indicating how marketing activities increase brand awareness and leads to an increase in brand valuation. They also specify how such activities have a distinctive impact on the firm's valuation.

H14: Brand awareness has a positive and significant relationship with organisational brand

H15: There is a positive and significant relationship between customer performance and organisational brand value.

The following questions attempts to addresses the gaps identified in the literature review:

1. Does CSR aid corporate brand building?

2. What is the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value?

3. What is the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the stakeholder value of organisations?

4. Do customers and the public prefer some CSR activities to others?

5. What are the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries?

It is important to note that building a corporate brand is not limited to symbols and name but includes activities that establish corporate credibility, reputation and distinctiveness (Keller, 2008) and CSR initiatives are a good example of such an activity.

3.36 Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter reviewed literature on CSR and branding and how CSR can be used when linked to building corporate brands. The chapter also sought to explore how CSR activities affects brand perception. It is on this basis that the study seeks to make a novel contribution to this new strand of thought in Ghana's mobile telecommunications industry where the CSR activities of Vodafone has been looked at in the light of brand building efforts in Ghana. The next chapter highlights the research conceptual model proposed for the thesis and the 15 hypotheses proposed from literature review as well as the explanation of the research model.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

4.1 The Conceptual Model

This chapter brings together literature on both CSR and branding that addresses the main research question and forms the basis for proposing the conceptual model for the thesis. A growing body of academic research corroborates and attests to the generally positive influence of CSR on consumers' company evaluations and product purchase intentions (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Carrigan et al., 2004; Creyer and Ross, 1997; Maignan, 2001; Schroeder and McEachern, 2005; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004). Experimental results of Mohr and Webb (2005) indicated that CSR had an important and positive influence on company evaluation and purchase intent. This company evaluation can be seen as brand evaluation as well since company products and services are the brands of the company. Researchers have investigated the interface between CSR and the customer broadly, and as the literature shows, this is a truly complex matter. Many surveys developed at an international level suggest that a positive relationship exists between a company's CSR actions and consumers' reaction to that company and its product (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

The links to consumers' positive product and brand valuations, brand choice, and brand recommendations documented the relationship between CSR and consumer attitudes. As a result of the broad literature, Devinney et al. (2006) proposed a new concept highlighting the important role that CSR plays in consumer behaviour issues and therefore consumer behaviour towards brands. Corporate social initiatives are the "activities undertaken by a corporation to support social causes and to fulfil commitments to corporate social responsibility" (Kotler and Lee, 2005, p. 3). Whether consumers will react positively to these corporate social activities or not depends on their evaluation and perception of the organisational brand. Corporations wanting to attract potential stakeholders are show casing actions that further a particular social good (Castaldo et al., 2009). However, engaging in corporate social responsibility with the wrong motives can potentially undermine the corporate brand identity and adversely affect a brand's established reputation.

Investing in corporate social responsibility can secure competitive advantages, financial benefits (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006), build brand awareness (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002)

and create brand legitimacy (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006; Uggla, 2006; Vaaland et al., 2008; Werther Jr and Chandler, 2005), which can in turn strengthen the relationship of stakeholders with the corporate brand.

However, few corporations fully leverage the brand building opportunities that corporate social responsibility offers (Blumenthal and Bergstrom, 2003). By strategically engaging in social initiatives that are consistent with the brand's values and desired brand image, corporations can create fresh brand meaning and enhance existing stakeholder associations (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).

Furthermore, the integration of corporate social responsibility into the corporate brand introduces a powerful means by which corporations can build brand equity (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002). Brand based corporate social responsibility empowers organisations to fulfil the brand's promise building trust based relationships (Kitchin, 2003). Therefore, corporate social responsibility is a brand building tool that can be integrated into the corporate brand strategy to ensure the consistency of the brand's actions and the continued fulfilment of the brand promise and an organisation's goals.

In developing a strategy, it is critical that each of the organisation's social actions is integrated to align with the brand's core values and business strategies (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006). Moreover, corporate philanthropy should not take precedence over the continued success of the brand as those firms that do not have strong organisational abilities may reap negative outcomes from corporate social responsibility (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006). Under the agency theory framework, a negative effect of CSR on value creation can also be expected considering that the effort to fulfil the demands of an expanded group of stakeholders may bring additional agency conflicts.

The continued cultivation of a corporation's abilities alongside developing a culture of social awareness and proactive responsibility is a critical balance. From the review of the extant literature, a conceptual model for this study is developed as presented in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Researcher's Conceptual Model

CSR ACTIVITY   BRAND STRENGTH
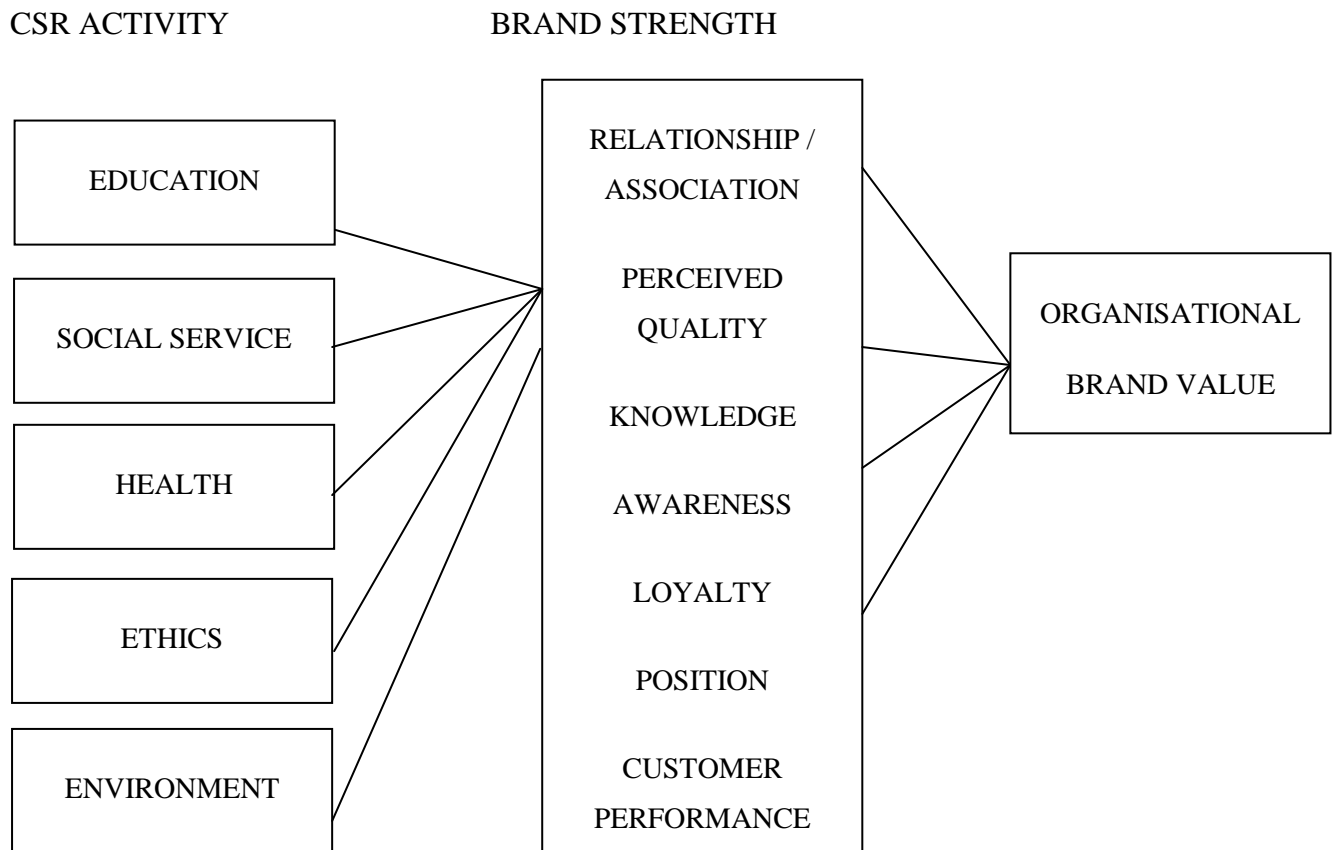
Source: Researcher's Model

Literature source: Hoeffler and Keller (2002), Broyles et al. (2010); Mohr and Webb (2005); Visser et al. (2006); Steenkamp et al. (2003); and Yoo, Donthu and Lee (2000).

4.2 Explanation of Research Model

There are many CSR activities of organisations in the telecommunications sector in Ghana as most of the organisations are involved in almost all the five types of CSR activities. As presented in Figure 4.1, these CSR activities are in education, social services, health, ethics and the environment. The more relevant a CSR activity is to the target audience, the better the customer perception of the brand and, hence, the better its contribution to brand strength. The greater the number of CSR activities of an organisation, the higher the customer perception of an organisation's contribution towards the society; and the higher the brand strength, the higher the organisational brand value.

The brand strength and management are influenced by perceived association, brand quality, brand knowledge, awareness, loyalty brand position and the customer performance relationship with the brand. Brand strength is influenced by the type and number of CSR activities undertaken by organisations. The level of brand strength determines the organisational brand value. Surveys of CSR amongst businesses in Africa have found that the most common approach to CSR issues is through philanthropic support, in particular focusing on education, health and the environment (Visser et al., 2006).

Organisations engaging in CSR activities in Africa tend to be more focused on education, health and the environment because these activities benefit the target audiences' needs; hence, they can influence the nature of the response they get from stakeholders and consequently on the way the organisation is perceived and valued. As pointed out by Yoo et al. (2000), brand equity leads to customer value creation and firm value addition. From the research conceptual model proposed, CSR activities leads to brand strength, which in turn leads to organisational brand value. This is so because customers have a better perception of firms engaged in CSR activities that meet their needs compared with firms that engage in CSR activities that do not meet the needs of the beneficiaries.

There is no doubt that many factors account for accessing the brand value of an organisation. For example, one popular industry method by interbrand concentrates on the price premiums afforded the brand and then considers a number of discount factors to determine the appropriate long-term brand value (Murphy, 1989). According to Kotler and Armstrong (2003), "customers' attitude toward a brand is as a result of satisfaction or dissatisfaction after using a brand". Customers' development of attitudes towards brands may be caused by the brand's presence in advertisements and customers' post-usage evaluation of the brand, which influences the formation of one's evaluation of that brand, and their resultant attitude towards a brand (Allen et al., 2011). Devinney et al. (2006) proposed a new concept bringing out the important role that CSR plays in consumer behaviour towards brands. For the purpose of this study, the researcher has selected 13 items as independent variables using the findings of the authors above. They are CSR-health; CSR-ethics; CSR-education; CSR-environment; CSR-social services; brand relationship; brand positioning; brand loyalty; brand knowledge; brand perceived quality; brand awareness; brand relationship; customer performance; as the determinants of organisational brand value.

4.3 Hypotheses

From the review of the literature above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brands value

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association

H4: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position

H5: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness

H6: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality

H7: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge

H8: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty

H9: The higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H10: The higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H11: The higher the level of brand position consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H12: The higher the level of brand image and identity consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H13: The better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H14: Brand awareness has a positive and significant relationship with organisational brand

H15: There is a positive and significant relationship between customer performance and organisational brand value.

4.4 Summary of Chapter

This chapter covers brands and how CSR activities influence brand building efforts and brand value of organisations through consumer choices. The chapter covers definitions of a brand, history of branding, importance of branding in business decisions and how consumers' perception of CSR activities affects their behaviour towards brands. The conceptual model explains how brand strength is influenced by brand loyalty, brand position, brand association, brand knowledge, brand quality and brand relationship. The literature also mentions how branding strategies are crafted and implemented. The chapter concludes with a research conceptual model crafted from the synthesis of literature on branding and CSR.

The model seeks to explain that CSR activities influence brand strength, which then determines the organisational brand value. The model seeks to confirm and indicate that CSR is a tool that can be used to build brands. Organisational brand values can be influenced by CSR activities that the organisation undertakes. CSR is a tool in building brands and organisational image. From the literature it is evident that there is a relationship between the CSR activities of organisations and the behaviour of customers towards the product, services and the brands of organisations; and that corporate brands can be enhanced with CSR programmes. The researcher seeks to empirically test the relationship between CSR and branding building efforts of organisations. The next chapter gives details of the research designs and methods used in collecting and analysing data as well as their philosophical and epistemological underpinnings.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that underpins the study and details strategies employed in collecting and analysing data as well as the philosophical position that underlies the choice of chosen methods. Methodology refers to the philosophical assumptions that guide any particular study whereas methods point to specific techniques and processes for collecting and analysing data informed by those philosophical assumptions (White, 2000). Methodology decisions influence the manner in which data are collected and so go a long way to determine how research aims and objectives are achieved (Gill and Johnson, 2010).

The chapter sets out the philosophical arguments that underlie the qualitative and quantitative methodologies, and justifies the mixed-methods approach adopted for this research. A discussion of the practitioner-relevance of the research; the testing of relationships between CSR, branding and organisational value; and ethical considerations conclude the chapter. Principally, the rest of the chapter focuses on the following:

- Research purpose;
- Research objectives and questions;
- Research design;
- Research paradigm;
- Data types and sources;
- Sampling procedure;
- Research instruments, measurement techniques and administration of those instruments; and
- Methods of data synthesis, analysis and interpretation of research findings.

Ethical considerations of this research, including data collection, storage and management, archiving and disposal in accordance with data protection legislation, are also discussed.

5.2 The Research Strategy

5.2.1 Research Objectives

The objectives of this research are to:

1. Determine the relationship, if any, between CSR and brand strength of firms;

2. Determine the relationship, if any, between CSR activities and the organisational brand value of firm;

3. Establish the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the overall stakeholder and organisational brand value of the case organisation;

4. Determine which type of CSR activities customers and the public prefer in the telecommunications industry in Ghana; and

5. Find out the cultural differences that lead to different understanding of CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries.

5.3 Philosophical Stance and Research Paradigms Underpinning the Study

Two separate methodological orientations dominate research in social sciences: quantitative and qualitative. The difference between the two can be found in the philosophical assumptions made about the nature of the social world (ontology) and the grounds of knowledge about the social world (epistemology). According to extant literature, the quantitative paradigm/approach dominated social and behavioural studies for most part of the twentieth century. The qualitative paradigm has gradually gained prominence in the last quarter of this century (Teddie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The philosophical choices the researcher makes affects the way the research is organised, how data is collected and analysed, and expectations and outlook of the research (Berg and Lune, 2004). Research philosophy adopted by any researcher contains important assumptions about the way in which the world is viewed and these philosophical issues are central to the choice of research design. These assumptions underpin research strategy and the methods used (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2004; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). There are deeply ingrained ontological assumptions, which affect people's views and impressions of the difference between what is real and what is not, as well as attributes that are deemed as real to one set of phenomena over others.

It is important that these underlying assumptions are identified, established and considered, so that the researcher is not blind to certain relevant aspects of the phenomena under investigation as well as to avoid implicit assumptions that have the potential to relegate those aspects to the background, take them for granted and hence shield them from questioning, consideration or discussion. There is the need, therefore, to understand the link between the two philosophical trusts since ontological positions or assumptions held by any researcher about the nature of reality will influence the epistemological choices, hence research procedures adopted and conclusions made.

5.3.1 Ontological Assumptions

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality. Ontological assumptions discuss whether reality is viewed as objective and therefore external to an individual; or subjective, a product of an individual's mind (Punch, 1998). In the context of the social sciences, Blaikie (2000) describes ontology as comprising a claim about what actually exists; what that which exists looks like; what major components make it up; and the nature of interaction that ensues among its constituent units. He describes the root definition of ontology as the science or study of being. It raises questions as to the assumptions researchers have about the way the world operates and the commitment held to particular views.

Ontological inquisitions seek to describe our view (whether claims or assumptions) on the nature of reality, and specifically, whether that which is claimed to be real is an objective/external reality that really is, or whether it is a subjective/internal creation of thoughts or minds. Two poles of ontological assumptions relate to whether reality exists independently of those who live it (objectivism) or only through experience of it (constructionism); whether reality is an internal, unwitting fabrication by those who experience it or an actual, external reality independent of social actors. Centrality of ontological assumptions lie with the nature of social phenomena: whether social reality is external to social actors or constructed by them (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

5.3.1.1 Objectivist Ontology

The world is seen as an ordered, structured place that is governed by physical laws. Studying the world from this position can be done objectively and without concern for how people create meaning. Objectivism portrays the position that social entities exist in reality external to social actors (Saunders et al., 2009). The ontological position of objectivism implies that social phenomena confronts us as external reality that is beyond the reach and influence of

social actors themselves; that rules and regulations, structures, mission, hierarchy and other such elements of social configuration constitute a reality that is totally outside the control of those who inhabit it. It is argued that data from objects that exist separate from and independent of the researcher (an external reality) is more objective and hence less open to bias in the context of social research (Saunders et al., 2009). Through the process of social interaction, social phenomena are in a constant state of revision (Remenyi, Williams, Money and Swartz 1998). Smirich (1983) notes that objectivists would tend to view the culture of an organisation as something that the organisation "has".

5.3.1.2 Constructivist Ontology

Constructionist ontology views our perception of this world as being internally constructed. We thus individually and collectively create meaning from our experiences in a world where we can never know what is real. The ontological position of constructivism holds that social order and their meanings come about through the actions of social actors themselves. It considers and envisages the social setting as a social product; that social actors have a role to play in shaping social order and that, so far as social interaction continues to ensue, social order continues to be under a state of revision and change. Social actors themselves thus construct social order.

This position is opposed to the position that society is pre-fabricated and that individuals within the social setting are merely conforming to structures that predated them. This assumption therefore stresses the non-passive involvement of individuals inhabiting social settings in the construction of social reality and urges researchers to consider the way in which social reality is an ongoing accomplishment of social actors rather than something external to them, which totally constrains them.

5.3.2 Epistemological Assumptions

Epistemology is about "how it is possible to know what can be known, it relates to methods and standards through which reliable and verifiable knowledge is produced considering views about the most appropriate ways of enquiring into the nature of the world" (Chia, 2002). Strongly tied to the nature of reality (ontology) is what constitutes knowledge of that reality. Blaike (2000) describes epistemology as "the theory or science of the methods or grounds of knowledge". For him, concerns of epistemology border around claims or assumptions about

what can be known about what exists, how that which exists may be known, and possible ways of gaining knowledge of that which can be considered as real. Epistemological assumptions discuss the grounds on which knowledge is founded (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004) and beliefs about the way in which knowledge is construed (how we come to know).

The debate commences with two contrasting views of how social science research should be conducted. It presents extreme positions on the issues of whether knowledge is something that can be acquired or something personally experienced (Burrel and Morgan, 1979). The view that knowledge is "hard", objective and tangible suggests that a researcher adopts the role of an observer. However, to view knowledge as personal, subjective and unique in nature requires that researchers become involved with their subjects. To subscribe to the former is to be positivist and to prefer the latter is to be interpretivist (Daft and Weick, 1984). Although it is now possible to draw up comprehensive lists of assumptions and methodological implications associated with each position, it is not possible to identify any philosopher who ascribes to all aspects of any one particular view. Occasionally, an author from one side produces ideas that belong more neatly to those of the other side (Silverman, 1998).

5.3.2.1 Positivism

Positivism is a philosophy of science based on the view that information derived from logical and mathematical treatments and reports of sensory experience is the exclusive source of all authoritative knowledge, and that verified data received from the senses are known as empirical evidence (Macionis and Gebber, 2010); and that there is valid knowledge (truth) only in scientific knowledge (Larrain, 1979). The key idea of positivism is that the social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition (Saunders et al., 2009).

Proponents of positivism are of the belief that methods used in natural sciences are also applicable to the study of social phenomena; that the social world can be studied scientifically and so advocate the application of natural science methods to the study of social order. It asserts the deductive generation of testable hypotheses to explain social phenomena in a value-free manner that affirms the position that knowledge is arrived at through the gathering of facts that form the basis of laws. The French philosopher Auguste Comte (1853) is cited by Easterby-Smith et al. (2004, p.28) as the first person to encapsulate this view when he

said: "All good intellects have repeated, since Bacon's time, that there can be no real knowledge but that which is based on observed facts."

Comte's statement contains two assumptions. First, an ontological assumption that reality is external and objective; and second, an epistemological assumption that knowledge is only of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality. Another important component of the positivist approach to research is that the research is undertaken in a value-free way. The assumption is that the researcher is independent of, and neither affects nor is affected by, the subject of the research (Remenyi et al., 1998; Bell, 2005). Positivists are of the stance that knowledge is valid only if it is based on observation and measurement of pre-existing external patterns and regularity that cause and effect relationships are generalisable and lend themselves to predicting outcomes. Positivism underpins the quantitative methodological research approach.

5.3.2.2 Interpretivist Epistomology

Interpretivism is also referred to as phenomenology. The key premise of phenomenology is the view that the social world and reality are neither objective nor exterior but are socially constructed (Easterby-Smith et al., 2000). This epistemological approach advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand the differences between humans in their roles as social actors. It emphasises the difference between conducting research among people rather than objects. It advocates that reality is not fixed but changes and develops according to people's experiences and social context (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

Epistemologically, interpretivism is diametrically opposite to positivism and posits that reality resides in people's minds rather than in external objects. All that can therefore be known of reality and the outside world are people's perceptions, interpretations and the sense they make of the world around them. Its ontology is nominalist; it assumes that the social world has no real, concrete structure but consists of concepts, names, labels, etc that are used to describe, negotiate and make sense of the external world. Interpretivism underpins the qualitative methodological research approach (Shotter, 1993; Saunders et al., 2009).

Qualitative researchers claim that the experiences of people are essentially context-bound; that is, they cannot be free from time and location or the mind of the human actor. Researchers must understand the socially constructed nature of the world and realise that

values and interests become part of the research process. Complete objectivity and neutrality are possible to achieve; the values of researchers and participants can become an integral part of the research (Smith, 1981); and researchers are not divorced from the phenomenon under study. This calls for reflexivity on their part; they must take into account their own position in the setting and situation, as the researcher is the main research tool. Language itself is context-bound and depends on the researchers' and informants' values and social location. Detailed replication or duplication of a piece of research is impossible because the research relationship, history and location of participants differ from study to study.

Qualitative methodology is not completely precise, because human beings do not always act logically or predictably. Investigators in qualitative inquiry turn to the human participants for guidance, control and direction throughout the research. Structure and order are, of course, important for the research to be scientific. The social world is not orderly or systematic; therefore it is all the more important that the researcher proceeds in a well-structured and systematic way.

5.3.3 Pragmatism

Pragmatism is a rejection of the idea that the function of thought is to describe, represent, or mirror reality. Instead, pragmatists develop their philosophy around the idea that the function of thought is an instrument or tool for prediction, action, and problem solving. Pragmatists contend that most philosophical topics - such as the nature of knowledge, language, concepts, meaning, belief, and science - are all best viewed in terms of their practical uses and successes rather than in terms of representation. Pragmatism is the philosophy of common sense. It uses powerful human inquiry as a focal point. Inquiry is viewed as a continuing process, which acknowledges the qualitative nature of human experience as a problematic situation that emerges and is recognised. Recognition involves the doubt associated with questioning an existing belief system. Doubt is resolved through critical reasoning and ultimately tested in action.

In the philosophy of common sense, because actions are assessed in light of practical consequences, Shields (1998) argues that researchers have to consider objectives and the practical challenges before embarking on their research. Pragmatism argues that the most important determinant of the research philosophy adopted is the research question; one approach may be "better" than the other for answering particular questions (Saunders et al.,

2007). If the research question does not suggest unambiguously that either a positivist or interpretivist philosophy is adopted, it confirms the pragmatist's view that it is perfectly possible to work with both philosophies (Silverman, 1998; Saunders et al., 2007).

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) suggest that it is more appropriate for the researcher in a particular study to think of the philosophy adopted as a continuum rather than the opposite. They contend that pragmatism is intuitively appealing largely because it avoids the researcher engaging in what they see as rather pointless debates about such concepts as truth and reality. They hold the view that researchers should study what interests them and bring value and meaning to them; and that they should do it in ways that bring positive consequences.

5.4 The Qualitative Method

Van Maanen (1983, p.9) defines qualitative techniques as "an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomenon in the social world". Qualitative research allows researchers to understand human phenomena and is useful in investigations of interpretations and meanings that respondents give to events they have experienced. A qualitative investigation is interested in distilling meaning and understanding phenomenon, as it is not possible to assign meaning to a phenomenon (or behaviour) without describing the context and understanding the position of the people who affect, or are affected by the phenomenon (Tillal et al., 2002; Goulding, 2005; Bell, 2005).

Rather than relying on large sample sizes to remove bias as is done in a quantitative study, a qualitative approach values the views of specific research subjects and attaches importance to what might be learned from their respective experiences (Silverman, 1998). Qualitative research is used optimally for situations that will increase understanding, expand knowledge, clarify the real issues, generate hypothesis, identify a range of attitudes and behaviour, and identify distinct behavioural groups (Gordon and Langmaid, 1988). Goulding (2005) states that qualitative research facilitates the ability to gain valid insight develop theory and aid efficient decision making. It is not always possible or desirable to use quantitative methods to obtain information from respondents, as people may be unwilling or unable to answer certain questions, or are unwilling to give truthful answers to questions that invade their privacy, embarrass them or have a negative impact on their ego or status (Malhotra, 2004).

From the negative perspective, Tillal et al. (2002) identify a number of contentious issues pertaining to qualitative research. Firstly, the inability of the researcher to interpret events from the subject's point of view is questioned. Secondly, the relationship between theory and research can be weak, as qualitative research approaches are criticized for not instilling theoretical elements. Thirdly, qualitative research is thought to have limited external validity, the extent to which qualitative findings can be generalized beyond the confines of a particular case. Additionally, qualitative data collection and analysis may be labour-intensive and time-consuming (Bell, 2005).

5.5 The Quantitative Method

Quantitative research places emphasis on methodology, procedure and statistical measures of validity to determine relationships between one set of data and another to produce quantifiable conclusions (Tillal et al., 2002). A central advantage of quantitative methods is their ability to use smaller groups of people to make inferences about larger groups that would be prohibitively expensive to study (Holton and Burnett, 1997). Statistical analysis is used to test any relationships and large sample sizes are used to minimize sample bias. Such research produces results that show the strength of dependent variables; measures how much, how often, and ranks factors in the order of importance. The strengths of the quantitative paradigm are that its methods produce quantifiable, reliable data that are usually generalisable to some larger population (Silverman, 1998).

The greatest weakness of the quantitative approach is that it de-contextualizes human behaviour in a way that removes the event from its real world setting and ignores the effects of variables that have not been included in the model (Bell, 2005). Quantitative research methods are criticized for their apparent orderliness and linearity, and their lack of concern for resource constraints. They are weak when used with the objective of discovery. Once data collection is underway, there is little an investigator can do upon realizing that a crucial item has been omitted from the questionnaire, or upon discovering that a question is ambiguous or being misinterpreted. Quantitative research is considered unable to take account of the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences (Gable, 1994; Silverman, 1998).

5.6 Mixed-Methods

Creswell (2009) observes that a study tends to be more qualitative than quantitative and vice versa, and mixed-methods research resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Combining the deductive and inductive approaches is a method advocated for behaviour-oriented studies (Kamath et al., 1987; Bell and Young, 1998) and prevents the research from becoming method-bound. The problems addressed by social science researchers are complex, and the use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches by themselves is inadequate to address the complexity (Creswell, 2009). Mixed-methods research involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2007). Mixed-methods help provide a more complete picture of the investigated phenomenon by combining different research strategies (Erzberger and Prein, 1997).

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) suggest that utilising mixed methodologies within the same study helps the researcher to delve into a dataset in order to understand its meaning and to use one method to verify findings from the other method. In further support of this position, Creswell (2009) states that, there is more insight to be gained from the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research, than from either form, by itself. Mixed-methods generate new knowledge through a synthesis of knowledge from different approaches and reflects the complexity of a multi-faceted phenomenon (Foss and Ellefsen, 2002). When a researcher's hypothesis or model is supported by multiple or complementary types of data, the researcher can be much more confident about the validity of the results (Polit and Hungler, 1999).

The main criticism of mixed-method research lies on the ontological and epistemological underpinnings of a study. The ontological critique is that it is impossible to combine a view of social phenomena as stable and objectively verifiable with a view of social meanings as mainly constituted by subjective experiences (Ahrens and Chapman, 2006). Critics argue that scholars who attempt to do that end up with an eclectic mix of research practices with incompatible ontological points of departure (Modell, 2009). In turn, the epistemological critique is that researchers are not detached from the social phenomena they analyse and that it is impossible to ignore "the context bound and skilful character of social interaction" (Silverman, 1993, p.158). Drawing on these two critiques, some scholars have questioned the

usefulness of triangulation and its legitimacy as a validation technique (Ahrens and Chapman, 2006; Llewellyn, 2007).

Mixed-method researchers respond to the above criticisms by positing a different paradigm: pragmatism (Howe, 1988; Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2007). Burrel and Morgan (1979) argue that quantitative and qualitative research methods are mutually exclusive because their underlying assumptions are seen as contradictory. In support of this view, Polit and Hungler (1999) state that qualitative and quantitative researchers often operate with a different set of assumptions about the world and ways of learning about it may be seen as inevitably irreconcilable. Adopting a contrary position, Gable (1994) and Remenyi et al. (1998) insist these alternate research methods should be seen as the ends of a continuum and suggest both methods are selected because they provide the required data to produce a complete piece of research. Qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be viewed as polar opposites or dichotomies. Instead, they represent different ends on a continuum (Newman and Benz, 1998).

5.7 Research Paradigm and Methodological Choice

Paradigms represent ways of seeing the world through a definition of the field (Kuhn, 1996). Hence, there is the need to decide on the paradigm through which a research topic is seen, and to determine the paradigm in which the research will be located. The choice of a socio-economic paradigm, which suggested description, measurement, and understanding of variables, inclined the study to adopt mixed-methods. Based on the socio-economic paradigm adopted and the multiplicity of issues involved, the study concluded that one methodology would not effectively address all aspects of the research question. It was considered that the mixed-method approach, which combines the qualitative and quantitative methods, was more likely to provide a robust methodology for this study. As O'Leary (2004, p.150) noted:

"Collecting credible data is a tough task, and it is worth remembering that one method of data collection is not inherently better than another. Therefore, which data collection method to use would depend upon the research goals and the advantages and disadvantages of each method".

There is a lot of work on CSR and branding from which the author formulated hypotheses and defined a theoretical framework, which inclined the study to deduction. On the other hand, there was limited literature concerning brand-building effort using CSR in the context of emerging markets and Africa, and Ghana specifically. It was therefore appropriate to work inductively by generating data and analysing and reflecting on the theoretical themes before using the survey method to gather the data for a more predictive work. Easterby-Smith et., al. (2004) recommend that, before adopting any method of data collection, the research question and objectives of the research need to be clearly considered.

Thus, the author's philosophical stance (pragmatism); the demands of the inquiry context and the diverse information needed to answer the research questions; as well as a consideration of approaches by previous researchers on CSR and brand value, brand equity and organisational brand value influenced the choice of mixed-methods. Prior to discussing how the research was undertaken, the strengths and weaknesses of the qualitative, quantitative and mixed-methods were examined to assist the author to devise the appropriate strategies for fieldwork.

5.8 The Philosophical Stance and Assumptions on this Study

This study shares the view of Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) that, although at the moment mixed method research is not in a position to provide perfect solutions, it is appropriate to adopt a method and philosophy that brings together the insights provided by qualitative and quantitative research into a feasible solution. In addition, this study agrees with mixed-method studies in that a pragmatic view on research can be productive because it offers an immediate and valuable middle position philosophically and methodologically (Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2007; Teddie and Tashakkori, 2009). The either-or approach was not adopted as a means of identifying the influence of CSR on building brands and business practice as the study was based on the following two premises:

a) On the one hand, this study subscribes to an objectivist view of CSR since the topic is treated as an element of objective reality, which reveals itself through the adoption of CSR strategies by Vodafone to improve measures such as customer patronage and brand value through better brand perception. These measures have certain "real" properties independent of individuals;

b) On the other hand, the study employs a subjectivist view of CSR as it is acknowledged that the way individual actors respond to CSR measures might vary and follow less deterministic patterns.

The choice of a research approach is important as it enables a more informed decision to be made about the research design, helping to decide on research strategies and choices that are effective (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Ontologically, the study rejected nominalism in favour of realism and assumed that multiple realities exist, such as those of the author; customers; employees; the public; academicians; students; the Government; and the readers or audience interpreting this study. Epistemologically, the researcher adopted pragmatism given the multi-dimensional nature of the research questions, which suggested the possibility of working with both positivist and interpretivist philosophies (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007), and pragmatism as it is intuitively appealing (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

The author recognized that CSR is complex and has varied definitions, and that not just one particular definition is universally accepted. Hence, predictability is difficult, calling for a move away from the strong predominance of a positivist approach to alternative methodologies such as the qualitative approach (Carson and Coviello, 1996; Hill and McGowan, 1999). The other aspect of this research was to measure relationships between CSR and branding and to test hypotheses, which inclined the study to the positivist approach. Considering the foregoing discussion, the pragmatist stance, which accommodates the quantitative and the qualitative traditions, was adopted for this study.

5.9 Research Design Approaches by Previous Researchers on CSR and Branding

Barnes (2011) conducted researched on CSR and its effect on brand trust and used Turker's (2009) CSR scale and Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman's (2001) brand trust scale. Melo (2010), when researching CSR and brand value, used the KLD database.

Created by the firm Kinder, Lydenberg and Domini, KLD is amongst the earliest research tools for evaluating CSR performance (Márquez and Fombrun, 2005), and is regarded as one of the most well-established assessment agencies, widely used and generally accepted to be a reliable source of information (Cuesta-Gonzáles et al., 2006; Griffin and Mahon, 1997; Hull and Rothenberg, 2008; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000; Ruf et al., 1998; Schnietz and Epstein,

2005; Waddock and Graves, 1997). Interbrand's (2008) Most Valuable Brand Report was used for the brand value measurement.

In this regard, it was observed that the research question for this study was multi-dimensional, dealing with three key factors, namely: CSR; brand building; and customers' market. In addition, the research objectives had both qualitative and quantitative dimensions, as had the socio-economic paradigm within which the research was located. Given the multi-dimensionality of the research, the author was convinced that mixed-methods was the most appropriate methodology as it would offer insight and explanation through the qualitative approach ensuring external validity via the quantitative approach. Additionally, mixed-methods would enrich data collection by enabling the author to draw on the strengths associated with both the qualitative and quantitative methods (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

A useful starting point in deciding research methodology is to review previous approaches and to emulate the most suitable one(s). Branding and CSR have been researched over several years and hence considerable research conceptual framework has been developed over the years. Gurhan-Canli and Fries (2009) examine ideas around company activities towards CSR and consumer characteristics such as attitude towards a brand and personal experience. For this particular study, variables from Turker's (2009) conceptual measurement scale for CSR was used. The Turker (2009) scale was developed from multiple areas including legal, environment, employees and ethics. Turker (2009) conducted empirical research in order to develop a 21 factor variable list, but the scale has not been tested in a wider CSR context. An adaptation of Turker's (2009) scale is used as it provides a multidimensional representation of CSR, which can help determine which dimensions will have an effect on organisational brand value.

5.10 Approach to Mixed-Methods and Sequence of Data Collection

Mixed-method design can be classified as simultaneous or sequential (Field and Morse, 1985). Sequential mixed-method is used if the results of one method are essential for planning the next method (Field and Morse, 1985). A sequential mixed-method was adopted, leading to the choice of sequential explanatory design typically used to explain and interpret qualitative results by collecting and analyzing follow-up quantitative data (Creswell, 2009).

With this approach, a first stage qualitative data collection informs a second stage quantitative study (Tashakkari and Teddle, 1998).

The sequential explanatory strategy was employed as it was reckoned initially collecting qualitative data and subsequently clarifying the data using quantitative techniques would best answer the research questions. In addition, the author required the input of qualitative data to plan for the quantitative survey. The sequential explanatory strategy is supported by Tashakkori and Teddle (1998) and Greene (2007). Thus, initial qualitative data were obtained from in-depth interviews, which enabled the researcher to identify some key variables within CSR perspectives, such as the policy on safety and support offered to employees by the case organisation; the levels of CSR activities in the telecommunications industry in Ghana; brand perception of the telecommunications industry; perception of CSR activities; appropriateness of CSR activities within the telecommunications industry; and areas of CSR activities that the public wants to see. This was followed by the collection of quantitative data done later, which enabled the researcher to understand and confirm earlier qualitative findings.

The qualitative method was adopted as the primary method of data collection to guide the survey questionnaire design for the adoption of the quantitative method as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Link between Research Objectives, Methodology and Methods Employed

Research Objective	Methodology	Method Adopted/To be Employed
RO1. Does CSR aid in corporate brand building?	Quantitative Qualitative	Face-to-face Questionnaire Semi-structured interview In-depth interview
RO2. What is the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value?	Quantitative Qualitative	Face-to-face Questionnaire Semi-structured interview In-depth interview
RO3. What is the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the stakeholder value of organisations?	Quantitative Qualitative	Face-to-face Questionnaire Semi-structured interview
RO4. Do customers and the public prefer some CSR activities to	Quantitative Qualitative	Face-to-face Questionnaire

others?		Semi-structured interview
RO5. What are the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries?	Quantitative Qualitative	Face-to-face Questionnaire Semi-structured interview

Source: Author's Construct, 2015

5.11 Qualitative Data Collection

5.11.1 Approach to Sampling

a)   The sample frame is Vodafone and non-Vodafone subscribers in Accra, made up of academicians, Vodafone staff, public servants, University administrators, and corporate executives.

b)   Given the nature of the enquiry and considering resource limitations, a sample size of 50 was used. Saunders et. al., (2007) suggest that, as interpretivism is characterized by a focus on the meanings that research subjects attach to social phenomena, an attempt was made by the researcher to understand what is happening and why it is happening. The study of sample size subjects may be more appropriate than a large number as with the positivist approach.

c)   The purposive sampling method was employed to obtain a reliable sample size on CSR perceptions and branding. Neuman (2000) suggests that the purposive sampling method is used where the researcher wishes to select cases that are particularly informative, and when working with very small samples.

Parahoo (2006) denigrates purposive sampling as weak with low credibility for findings as participants are self-selected, and may be atypical of the population. Another rationale for the choice of purposive sampling was the researcher's need to obtain information from customers who have had encounters with CSR activities undertaken by corporations within the telecommunications industry in Ghana; and who are aware of the brand building efforts of Vodafone and other networks.

5.11.2 Approach to Interviews

Semi-structured interview questions were framed to elicit clarification and explanation of responses from the earlier literature review. The following questions, as presented in

Appendix III, were asked: What is your understanding of CSR? How do you see CSR activities undertaken by telecommunications companies in Ghana? Do you think CSR is a good strategy for building brands? Will you switch to another brand because of their CSR activities? Does culture influence CSR in Ghana? What is your opinion about CSR activities in Africa against the West and the West against Africa?

5.11.3 Administration of Qualitative Interview

Requests for interview appointments were sought and obtained from target respondents through written and oral communication indicating purpose, nature, content and duration of interviews as well as an assurance of confidentiality and anonymity. The target respondents were also made aware of the researcher's intention to record the interviews and quote when necessary.

Table 5.1 illustrates how semi-structured interview questions were linked to the research objectives to demonstrate their relevance. Interview guides were designed for in-depth interviews with all respondents. Probing techniques were used to gain further clarification (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004) and to induce respondents to expand, explain their answers and focus on the specific content of the interview (Malhotra and Burks, 2000).

All of the interviews for this study were tape recorded. Tape-recording was deemed useful to enable the interviewer to keep eye contact with the interviewees, assist accurate note taking and to check the wording of any statement made that needed to be quoted during analysis (Kvale, 1996).

Jacobsen (2002) says that an interview should be about one and a half hours to be the most optimal. To get a complete picture and full understanding of a certain situation, interviews should be repeated (Jacobsen, 2002). Out of the fifty (50) respondents who were contacted, twenty three (23) cooperated and gave usable responses. The interviews for this study were done only once and lasted for an average of 40 minutes. The interview guide that was used is attached as Appendix III.

5.11.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

(a) Rationale for Choice of Thematic Analysis and Content Analysis

Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Boyatzis, 1998). It is the analysis of textual material in order to indicate major themes or to identify a limited number of themes, which adequately reflect the textual data to be found in them (Howitt and Crammer, 2008). Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that one of the benefits of thematic analysis is its flexibility. Through its theoretical freedom, thematic analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool, which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex account of data. Howitt (2010) states that many of the procedures of thematic analysis are shared by other qualitative data analysis methods, such as grounded theory. Thematic analysis was considered well suited for this study due to the apriori concepts and pre-set questions that needed to be addressed (Lacey and Luff, 2007).

Thematic analysis is not without flaws. It is a widely used qualitative analytic method yet poorly demarcated and rarely-acknowledged (Boyatzis, 1998; Roulston, 2001). Its main flaw is that it is not a single, identifiable approach to the analysis of qualitative data. The absence of clear and concise guidelines around thematic analysis confirms the "anything goes" critique of qualitative research (Antaki, Young and Finlay, 2002). The flexibility of thematic analysis means that the potential range of things that can be said about the data is broad. While this is an advantage, it can also be a disadvantage in that it makes developing specific guidelines for higher-phase analysis difficult, and can be potentially paralyzing to the researcher trying to decide what aspects of the data to focus on. Braun and Clarke (2006) further observe that a thematic analysis has limited interpretative power beyond mere description if it is not used within an existing theoretical framework that anchors the analytic claims that are made. Additionally, thematic analysis is primarily a descriptive approach and is not aimed at theory development (Roulston, 2001; Howitt, 2010).

In spite of the above criticism of thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2006) assert that a rigorous thematic approach can produce an insightful analysis that answers particular research questions. What is important is choosing a method that is appropriate to the research questions, rather than falling victim to "methodolatry", where one is committed to method rather than topic, content or research questions (Holloway and Todres, 2003). Braun and Clark (2006) proposed a six-step approach to thematic analysis involving: (i) Data familiarization; (ii) Initial coding generation; (iii) Searching for themes based on the initial coding; (iv) Review of themes; (v) Theme definition and labelling; and (vi) Report writing.

The author, in analyzing qualitative data, adopts this method and each stage is described in the next section.

5.12 Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

5.12.1 Rationale for Employing the Survey Method

The survey approach gives more control over the research and with the aid of sampling, generates findings that are representative of the whole population at a lower cost than collecting the data for the whole population (Saunders et al., 2007). The main emphasis is on fact-finding and if a survey is well-structured and piloted, it can be a relatively cheap and quick way of obtaining information (Webb, 2000; Bell, 2005).

However, a key drawback of the survey method is that data collected are unlikely to be as wide-ranging as those collected by other research strategies (Malhotra, 1999). There is a limit to the number of questions that any questionnaire can contain and a lot of time will need to be spent ensuring a representative sample, designing and piloting the questionnaire and trying to ensure a good response rate (Baker, 2003). Furthermore, analyzing the results even with readily available analysis software is time consuming (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2004). In spite of these drawbacks, the survey method was used to elicit quantitative data for measuring relationships and key variables, such as brand loyalty and association; CSR activities; and to test hypotheses.

5.12.2 Sample Frame and Sampling Techniques

The population for this research was comprised of customers of Vodafone in Ghana. The sampling frame consists of customers of Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions. Greater Accra is in southern Ghana and Ashanti Region is located at the middle sector of Ghana geographically. The researcher chose Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions because they are cosmopolitan and samples taken from these two regions are representative of the research population. Moreover, the Vodafone customer base has over 50% resident in these two regions.

The basic idea of sampling is that, by selecting some of the elements in a population, conclusions may be drawn about the whole population (Cooper and Schindler, 2001). Here the population is the total number of Vodafone subscribers, which is 7,159,566 according to

the National Communication Authority (NCA) as at the end of December, 2015. A simple systematic random sampling method was employed.

5.12.3 Sample Size for Vodafone Customers

Using Partial least Square (PLS) for data analysis the sample size, according to Hair et al. (2016), can be determined by using the number of constructs for the research. If constructs are more than seven (7) then sample size can be more than five hundred (500). This research has thirteen constructs and hence a sample size of 1200 of Vodafone customers was used. Moreover, PLS is suitable for both small and large sample size.

A simple systematic random sampling method was employed to collect primary data for this study and was based on the consideration of the statistical analysis undertaken as well as sample representativeness of the entire population in respect of generalisability (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 1997).

When planning research that will utilize SEM, sample size is an important consideration to bear in mind (Jackson, 2003). While the technique does not use individual observation, sample size plays an important role in the estimation and interpretation of SEM results (Hair et al., 2006). There is universal agreement among researchers that larger samples provide more stable parameter estimates, however, there is no agreement as to what constitutes an adequately large sample size (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000).

Similarly, Hair et al. (2016) recommends a sample size of more than 500 if research has more than seven (7) constructs.

5.12.4 Sample Size for Vodafone Employees

According to Krejecie and Morgan (1970) a population of 1700 should have a minimum sample size of 313. For the purpose of this study a sample size of 420 was employed. A simple random sampling method was employed.

5.12.5 Customer Survey Instrument

The questionnaire designed for Vodafone customers measured the following CSR dimensions: social, ethical, health, environmental and education. Brand strength was measured on brand association/identity; brand position; brand awareness; brand knowledge; brand loyalty; brand perceived quality; organisational brand value; and customer

performance. CSR, brand strength and brand value constructs were measured on a Liker's scale ratio of 1 for strongly disagree to 7 for strongly agree.

5.12.6 Employee Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire designed for Vodafone employees measured the following CSR dimensions: social, ethical, health, environmental and education. Brand strength was measured on brand association/identity; brand position; brand awareness; brand knowledge; brand loyalty; brand perceived quality; organisational brand value; and employee performance. CSR, brand strength and brand value constructs were measured on a Liker's scale ratio of 1 for strongly disagree to 7 for strongly agree.

5.12.7 Customer Questionnaire Administration

After adjusting the first draft of the questionnaire following the pilot study, the final questionnaire was administered. Excluding those contacted previously in relation to the pilot study, questionnaires were administered to respondents at Vodafone call centres.

Vodafone customer service centres in both Accra and Kumasi were visited. Questionnaires were given to every sixth customer that entered into the customer service centres. The questionnaires were self completed by the customers under the researcher's guidance.

Out of the total of 1200 questionnaires administered, 1118 were returned and found usable, giving an initial response rate of 93%. This is in line with recommended sample size for structural equation modelling analysis using PLS, which is suitable for both small and large sample size (Hair, 2016).

5.12.8 Employees Questionnaire Administration

The simple random sampling method was employed in selecting the respondents from head office to ensure that all the employees had an equal chance of being selected for the study to avoid sampling bias. In all, 420 questionnaires were given out to respondents but only 318 were retrieved and found usable, representing a 76% response rate. The 318 represents 18.8% of Vodafone employees. The questionnaires were self completed by employees under the researcher's guidance.

This survey research was conducted using a final sample of 1118 customers of Vodafone Ghana and 318 employees to assess the effects of CSR activities on brand building in the telecommunications industry in Ghana.

5.13 Quantitative Data Analysis Techniques for this Study

According to Hoyle (1995), chosing the right tools for analysis is crucial in getting the required results in research. The following concepts and data analysis techniques were employed for this research:

   i.   Cronbach Alpha
   ii. Correlation
   iii. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)
   iv. Exploratory factor Analysis (EFA)
   v.   Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)
   vi. Convergent Validity
   vii. Discriminant Validity
   viii. Reflective and Formative Constructs
   ix. Multicollinearity
   x.   Composite Reliability
   xi. Normality Test

5.13.1 Cronbach Alpha

Cronbach Alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale; it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. In order to ensure that data collected has minimal errors, a pilot test of 18 questionnaires for various Vodafone subscribers in Greater Accra was conducted to test how respondents perceive CSR activities of Vodafone and its influences on the brand building efforts of the Vodafone brand. Cronbach alpha value of 0.957 was obtained from the pilot test. Reliability of the measures was accessed by the use of Cronbach's coefficient α. Cronbach's coefficient α allows us to measure the reliability of different variables. It consists of how much variation in scores of different variables is attributable to chance or random errors (Selltiz et al., 1976). As a general rule, a coefficient greater than or equal to 0.7 is considered acceptable and a good indication of construct reliability (Nunnally, 1978).

5.13.2 Correlation

Correlation is a statistical measure that indicates the extent to which two or more variables fluctuate together. A positive correlation indicates the extent to which those variables increase or decrease in parallel; a negative correlation indicates the extent to which one variable increases as the other decreases. Correlation quantifies the extent to which two values of Y, a positive correlation, exist. When high values of X are associated with low values of Y, a negative correlation exists.

In this research, it is, for instance, suggested that Vodafone CSR correlates with positive attitudes of both customers and employees in building the brand: but is this certain? This can be tested through the use of correlation matrix. If all correlations prove to have a p-value under 0.05, the suggestion will be that correlation is high. It is, however, likely that other factors might affect customers' attitudes towards the brand as well. As long as a strong correlation between CSR and Vodafone branding efforts can be confirmed, other variables that might or might not be correlated to brand building efforts are considered to be of less relevance to this thesis. This researcher believes that the results can still be generalized beyond the research context (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

5.13.3 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

It is hard to interpret the material in a neutral way since we are always affected by our own opinions and assumptions. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to do the data analysis (in addition to Cronbach alpha, and Correlations as mentioned earlier). From a review of current literature and findings from initial stages of the research, a model of the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value was developed and tested using SEM. Debate revolving around the relationship between CSR and financial performance has been ongoing over the last three decades. While SEM has been previously employed in CSR research, it has not been used extensively to test the relationship between CSR and brand value.

SEM provides researchers with a comprehensive means of assessing and modifying theoretical models (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). The primary reason for adopting SEM is the ability to frame and answer increasingly complex questions about data (Kelloway, 1998). SEM takes into account measurement error in the variables (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000;

Schumacker and Lomax, 2004) and enables the researcher to specify structural relationships among the latent variables (Smith, 2004) thus producing more accurate representations (Islam and Faniran, 2005).

This represents one of the main advantages of SEM over path analysis in which exogenous variables are measured without error, an assumption that is unlikely to be true in reality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Thus, SEM can be viewed as a more powerful alternative to multiple regression and factor analysis (Fassinger, 1987; Ghasemi, 2009).

Many CSR and branding variables account for brand value and brand strength. Some of these variables are considered latent in that they have an indirect effect on how customers perceive Vodafone brand and their CSR activities. Latent variables refer to those variables that are not directly measurable, also called constructs or factors; they are measured indirectly by their respective indicators (observed variables) (Hoyle, 1995; Smith, 2004; Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). The most important advantage of SEM, which also sets it apart from all other techniques, is the fact that it allows for the consideration of simultaneous equations with many dependent variables (Smith, 2004; Bollen and Long, 1993; Shook et al., 2004). Other multivariate techniques share a common limitation in that they can examine only a single relationship at a time (Hair et al., 2006), while SEM, on the other hand, is the only statistical technique that allows for the simultaneous analysis of a series of structural equations (Smith, 2004). This study used 0.05 significance level in the data analysis.

Some researchers argue that SEM is a very complex and difficult procedure to use (Fassinger, 1987; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Kelloway (1998) argues that some researchers have questioned whether or not the payoff from using SEM is worth mastering sometimes esoteric and complex literature. SEM is more demanding of the researcher than any other multivariate technique (Hair et al., 2006). A peculiar requirement of SEM, for example, is the specification of the model that is to be analysed (Maruyama, 1998; Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000).

5.13.4 Quantitative Data Analysis with PLS Approach

PLS-SEM technique with SMARTPLS 3.6 software was used instead of covariance-based models since it is more suitable for the implementation of predictive studies, which explore complex problems, as is the case in this research (Hulland, Ryan, and Rayner, 2010). This

technique, which is a method mainly adopted for predictive analysis; therefore, it places minimal demands on sample size and residual distributions. Furthermore, only the PLS-SEM technique enables modelling variables of a formative nature, something not achievable with CB-SEM such as LISREL or AMOS (Úbeda-García et al., 2014). The technique has been previously used in similar research as well because of its potential to describe theoretical models and measures (Madueño et al., 2016).

Firstly, the author assessed the suitability of data for the analysis to be conducted. Out of the 1200 questionnaires distributed, 82 instruments were either incomplete or poorly completed. The remaining 1118 usable questionnaires were analysed constituting 93 per cent of all questionnaires administered. In view of the very high completion rate coupled with the fact that the survey was completed under conditions of anonymity, tests for non-response bias were not undertaken (Ledden et al., 2011). Next, the test for common method variance bias was conducted using the Harman's (1967) one factor test, since the conceptual framework of this research was tested using only the data from subscribers. Additionally, the test for normality of data distribution was undertaken by conducting the test for Skewness, Kurtosis, Komogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test (Lings and Greenly, 2010). For a data set to be normally distributed Skewness and Kurtosis should be approximately zero and Komogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test should not be statistically significant. All the above procedures were done with the help of IBM SPSS version 20 software.

Secondly, PLS 3.2.6 (Hair et. al., 2016) was employed to test the relationship between CSR, brand strength and organisational brand value for a number of reasons:

1. Normality diagnostics showed that the data is not normally distributed (Hair et al., 2016; Lings and Greenly, 2010; Chin and Newstead, 1999).
2. PLS is suited for predictive models using much smaller or much larger samples (Chin, 1998; Hair et. al., 2011).
3. The use of both reflective and formative constructs (Ledden et. al., 2011; Lee et. al., 2006; Nijssen and Douglas, 2008). CSR was modelled as a higher order formative construct comprising of five lower order formative dimensions whereas dimensions of brand strength and organisational brand value were modelled reflectively.
4. Theory on effect of CSR on brand strength and organisational brand value in emerging markets is limited and the PLS method is applicable where existing theory is limited (Acedo and Jones, 2007; Ainuddin et. al., 2007).

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PLS SEM is a two-stage approach: test for confirmatory factor analysis (that is test for psychometric properties of reflective constructs and multicollinearity of formative constructs), and test for structural model. For a reflective scale to pass confirmatory factor analysis test, convergence and discriminant validity must be met. To satisfy the conditions for convergent validity, the following steps are recommended:

1. All factor loadings should be significant- that is loadings of 0.6 or higher (Chin, 1998).

2. Composite Reliability (CR) of each construct should be 0.7 or higher (Hair et al., 2016; Hair et al., 1998).

3. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) estimates should be 0.5 or higher (Hair et al., 2016; Hensler et al., 2009).

For a reflective scale to satisfy the conditions for discriminant validity, the square root of the minimum average variance extracted (AVE) must be higher than the highest inter-construct correlation (Hair et al., 2016; Barclay et al., 1995; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Optionally, an author may examine the item cross loadings to ensure that there are no significant cross loadings. For a formative scale to pass the multicollinearity test, the variance inflation factor (VIF) for the independent constructs or items must be < 5 (or 10) (Hair et al., 2016) to ensure that multicollinearity is not a problem.

In the second PLS stage, structural model efficiency were examined. Model efficiency techniques employed in this study include the model's predictive accuracy (R^2) (Hair et al., 2016; Chin, 1998), the model's predictive relevancy (Q^2) (Hair et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2016; Chin, 2010) and effect sizes (f^2) (Hair et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2016; Chin, 2010). Just like the operational definition of traditional multiple regression, Chin (1998) recommends R^2 value of 35% or more to indicate large explanatory power for an endogenous construct. Q^2 value greater than 0 shows predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2016; Chin, 2010). Cohen (1988) provided effect size cut-off values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 for small, medium and large effect sizes respectively for the selected exogenous variable.

Finally, the significance of each path was tested using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009), a procedure available in PLS. This procedure was to ascertain whether relationships between the various constructs under investigation are

significant. For a path to be significant, bootstrap t-value should be greater than 1.96 (two-tailed test).

5.13.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis is used as it is an appropriate method for identifying simple factor structure among many variables (Hair et al., 2006). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is generally used to discover the factor structure of a measure and to examine its internal reliability. EFA is often recommended when researchers have no hypotheses about the nature of the underlying factor structure of their measure. Once the numbers of factors are decided the researcher runs another factor analysis to get the loadings for each of the factors. To do this, one has to decide which mathematical solution to use to find the loadings.

5.13.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Factor analysis attempts to find which sets of observed variables share common variance covariance characteristics that define latent variables. It is a statistical technique that aims at reproducing the data by as few factors as possible. The researcher must determine whether to use exploratory factor analysis (EFA) or confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). CFA aims to statistically test the significance of a hypothesised factor model developed by the researcher. EFA, on the other hand, involves the researcher exploring which variables relate to factors and seeking to find a model that fits the data. The main difference between these types of analysis lies in the way the communalities are used. In CFA, it is assumed that communalities are initially one, in other words, CFA assumes that total variance of the variables can be accounted for by means of its components (or factors); and hence, there is no error variance. On the other hand, EFA does assume error variance and thus communalities have to be estimated (Field, 2005).While, theoretically, EFA is more correct but more complicated, it has been said that the solutions from CFA differ very little from EFA techniques (Field, 2005).

When conducting confirmatory factor analysis it is recommended that data screening should be done in such a way that the correlation matrix is analysed to eliminate variables that do not correlate with any other variables or that correlate very highly with other variables (Field, 2005). In addition, sample size should be assessed to ensure it is large enough (Tabachnick

and Fidell, 2007). A sample size of 288 is in line with most recommendations of sample size (Kline, 2005; Hoyle, 1995; Kelloway, 1998).

Field (2005) also recommends analysing the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO statistic varies between 0 and 1. A value of 0 indicates that the sum of the partial correlations is large relative to the sum of correlations, indicating diffusion in the pattern of correlations and hence FA is likely to be inappropriate. A value of 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable results. Barlett's test of sphericity examines the correlation matrix. The null hypothesis is that all variables are non-collinear; therefore, a value of .05 or less indicates factor analysis is appropriate.

According to Albright and Park (2009), confirmatory factor analysis is a theory or hypothesis driven. To them, with CFA, it is possible to place substantively meaningful constraints on the factor model. Scholars can ascertain the number of factors or set the effect of one dormant variable on observed variables to particular values. CFA allows researchers to test hypotheses about a particular factor structure (e.g., factor loading between the first factor and first observed variable is zero). CFA produces many goodness-of-fit measures to evaluate the model but do not calculate factor scores.

5.13.7 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the same trait is measured by different methods. It is also defined as "the extent to which blocks of items strongly agree (i.e., converge) in their representation of the underlying construct they were created to measure. In other words, how high are each of the loadings and are they more or less similar?" (Chin, 2010. Pg. 674). This can be established by examining the range among highest and lowest items' loading of a construct. The less the range (or difference) among items is, the more will be the convergent validity (Chin & Dibbern, 2010). Cross-loading test (inter-construct correlations) can be used to assess convergent validity as well as discriminant validity (e.g. Turel et al., 2007).

5.13.8 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant Validity is defined as the extent to which traits are distinct (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). For the discriminant validity, PLS is a good way to ensure the extent to which a given

construct of the model is different from other constructs (McLure, Wasko & Faraj, 2005). The square of the correlations among the variables has been compared with the AVE to assess the discriminant validity (Chin, 1998). Finally, examining the factor loadings of each indicator gives a two-fold result for convergent validity and discriminant validity (McLure, Wasko & Faraj, 2005). This has been achieved by looking at factor loadings of an indicator, which should be greater than the construct of it than on any other factor (Chin, 1998; McLure, Wasko & Faraj, 2005).

5.13.9 Reflective and Formative Constructs

According to Bisbe et al. (2007, p. 800), a reflective construct implies that: (1) changes in the construct are expected to cause changes in the indicators, (2) indicators are expected to co-vary and, as a result, a change in the construct is expected to result in a simultaneous change in all indicators, (3) indicators are essentially interchangeable and removing specific indicators does not alter the conceptual domain of the construct, and, finally, (4) all indicators are assumed to have the same antecedents and consequences and share the same nomological network (p. 800). On the other hand, a construct should be modelled as a formative construct if: (1) changes in the indicators are expected to cause changes in the construct, (2) indicators are not expected to co-vary and, therefore, a change in one of the indicators is not necessary associated with changes in other indicators, (3) indicators are not interchangeable and omitting an indicator may alter the conceptual domain of the construct, and lastly, (4) indicators should not be expected to have the same antecedents and consequences and therefore their nomological network may differ (Bisbe et. al., 2007, p. 801).

5.13.10 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity, for the most part happens when there are high correlations between two or more predictor variables. As such, one predictor variable can be utilised to predict the other. This creates redundant information, skewing the results in a regression model. Due to the high correlations among independent variables, it would be difficult to distinguish between the contributions of these independent variables to that of the dependent variable as they may compete to explain much of the similar variance. Examples of correlated predictor variables (also called multicollinear predictors) are: a person's height and weight, age and sales price of a car, or years of education and annual income. It's more common for multicollinearity to

occur in observational studies but less common with experimental data. When the condition is present, it can result in unstable and unreliable regression estimates.

5.13.11 Composite Reliability

Composite reliability measures the overall reliability of a collection of heterogeneous but similar items. It estimates the extent to which a set of latent construct indicators share in their measurement of a construct, whilst the average variance extracted is the amount of common variance among latent construct indicators (Hair et al., 1998).

Composite reliability corresponds to the conventional notion of reliability in terms of classical test theory; both construct reliability and composite reliability can be computed using the pattern coefficients estimated by exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses. Hair et al. (1998) recommends Composite reliability should be equal to or greater than .70 and AVE should be greater than .50. AVE values greater than .50 are considered satisfactory in that they indicate that at least 50% of the variance in a measure is due to the hypothesized underlying trait (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

5.14 Ethical Considerations

This study received ethical approval from the Graduate Board London Metropolitan Business School in 2012. Moreover, the study was conducted using Central University's ethical research code as a guide. The purpose of the study was explained to all the respondents. Respondents were not forced to give information in anyway. Permission was sought from all respondents before interviews were conducted. Respondents who filled the questionnaires did so at their own will. Respondents gave their own time for interviews to be conducted and gave time for questionnaires to be collected. Interviews were conducted in a relaxed atmosphere at the respondent's offices and public places in Ghana and employees and customers were duly assured their data provided will be kept confidential.

5.15 Summary of Chapter Five

This chapter discusses the research strategy; a review of research philosophy; research design approaches by previous researchers on CSR and branding; and qualitative data collection and quantitative data collection analysis. Seeking to understand the role of CSR in building a positive perception of brands in the minds of stakeholders so as to influence their decision

making process; continuing or discontinuing their association with a brand; the researcher adopted both the qualitative and quantitative research methods.

The researcher adopted the mixed method of data collection for the study. The reason being Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2004) recommend that; before adopting any method of data collection, the research question and objectives of the research need to be clearly considered. In this regard, it was observed that the research questions for this study were multi-dimensional, dealing with three key factors, namely, CSR, brand building and customers' market. The research objectives had both qualitative and quantitative dimensions, just as the socio-economic paradigm within which the research was located had. Given the multi-dimensionality of the research, the author was convinced that the mixed-methods approach was the most appropriate methodology since it would enrich data collection by enabling the author to draw on the strengths associated with both the qualitative and quantitative methods (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). To obtain a sample for the study, the researcher employed the non-probability purposive sampling method thereby interviewing academicians with backgrounds in CSR, as well as students who have studied CSR and branding, for their comments on how CSR helps to build brand image. Another rationale for the choice of purposive sampling approach for qualitative data was the researcher's need to obtain information from customers who have had encounters with CSR activities undertaken by telecommunications companies in Ghana and are aware of the brand building efforts of Vodafone and other networks. Semi-structured interview was adopted as the main qualitative method.

For the analysis of qualitative data, thematic analysis was considered well-suited due to the apriori concepts and pre-set questions that needed to be addressed (Lacey and Luff, 2007). Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that one of the benefits of thematic analysis is its flexibility. Through its theoretical freedom, thematic analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool that can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex account of data. Howitt (2010), states that many of the procedures of thematic analysis are shared by other qualitative data analysis methods such as grounded theory. The survey method was used in collecting quantitative data. A mall-intercept survey was used in order to access a variety of age groups. Mall-intercept surveys can also mean greater flexibility, lower cost and more control for the researcher (Hornik and Ellis, 1988).

The sample frame consists of Vodafone customers in the two largest regions in terms of population in Ghana, being Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions.

A sample size of 23 respondents was obtained for the qualitative data and a sample of 1118 respondents made of Vodafone subscribers (customers) and 313 for Vodafone employees were obtained for the quantitative data analysis. In consideration of Stutely's (2003) advice of a minimum number of 30 for statistical analyses in each category of an overall sample, systematic sampling was used to select all the 1200 Vodafone respondents (customers).

The researcher chose Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions because they are cosmopolitan and samples taken from these two cities are representative of the research population. Moreover, the Vodafone customer base has over 50% resident in these two regions. Cronbach alpha, structural equation modelling (SEM), PLS, Convergent validity, Discriminant validity, exploratory factor analysis and Confirmatory factor analysis were used for the quantitative data analysis. The SEM was used to test the relationship among CSR, branding and organisational value. The next chapter deals with qualitative data analysis. Thematic analysis is used and the process of coding and types of coding used for the analysis are described.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA

6.1 Data Gathering Process

The researcher spent about one month using semi-structured interviews with selected respondents mainly the HR Director of Vodafone Ghana, members of academia and the general public. The details of the interview process were spelt out in the communication. Interviews were recorded on a digital device. Respondents were aware that they were being recorded and they were in a welcoming mood during the interview process.

The thematic data analysis methods proposed by Boyatzis (1998), Ritchie et al. (2003) and Bryman (2008) was employed to analyse the issues that were raised by respondents. Individual respondents were analysed according to specific questions posed during the interviews with CSR experts and other stakeholders as presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Profile of Respondents of Qualitative Interviews

Institutions	Position of Interviewees	Gender
University	Senior Lecturer	Male
University	Senior Lecturer	Male
University	Lecturer	Male
University	Lecturer	Male
University	Lecturer	Male
Telecommunications	Head, Human Resources	Female
Post-graduate Student	Subscriber	Male
University Administrative Staff	Subscriber	Female
University	University Administrative Staff	Male
University	Post-graduate Student	Male
National Service Person	Subscriber	Male
Post-graduate Student	Subscriber	Male
Public Company	Corporate Executive	Female
Public Company	Corporate Executive	Male

Undergraduate Student	Subscriber	Female
Private Company	Worker	Male
Public Company	Worker	Male
Public Company	Worker	Male
Civil Servant	Subscriber	Female
General Public	Subscriber	Male
Self Employed	Business Owner	Female
Civil Service	Civil Servant	Male
Civil Service	Civil Servant	Male

Source: Field Data 2014

Table 6.1 shows a profile of respondents. In all, seventeen (17) respondents were males and six (6) were females. Four (4) of the respondents were students and nineteen (19) were workers. There was only one self employed respondent and one telecommunications company employee. Sixteen (16) respondents were public servants.

6.2 Data Coding

Coding is defined as marking the segments of data with symbols, descriptive words, or category names. Coding is one of the main processes used to analyse qualitative data, to discover concepts within the data. It is a means by which a qualitative researcher organises his or her data into categories, represented by codes. It is the analytical method through which researchers generate and use concepts to reduce large amounts of data to smaller more manageable chunks. Two coding methods were used for this work, namely, open coding and selective coding. In the open coding the researcher located initial concepts and assigned initial codes or labels to them in an attempt to condense the mass of transcribed data into categories or codes.

Selective coding involved scanning the data and the developed codes to look selectively for cases that illustrated themes and made comparisons and contrasts after all of the data collection and transcription was completed. Once the information was collected, the data were transformed into coded themes using a content analysis technique. Since there were only 23 respondents, the data were transformed manually, then analysed.

6.3 Major Themes in Thematic Analysis

Generally, seven research questions were developed from the interview out of which about 11 different themes were generated among CSR definitions cited by respondents.

6.3.1 Interview Questions

(i) Understanding of CSR

(Question - What is your understanding of corporate social responsibility?)

The fundamental theme that seemed to run through their understanding of CSR was basically giving back to society. They emphasised that, although CSR was not a legal responsibility, it was needful that companies give back to the societies in which they operate in the form of CSR activities. McGuire, Sundgren and Schneeweis (1988) claim that companies need to satisfy not only stockholders but also those with less explicit or implicit claims. CSR requires organisations to be good stewards of societies' economic and human resources. This role and responsibility of companies involve contributing some of a firm's resources to society to improve the quality of life (Carroll, 1991). Although CSR is not a profit making venture it was suggested that it could help grow the wealth of an organisation. The following responses reflect the views of those interviewed:

Corporate social responsibility briefly is when a company looks at what help they can give to the society in which they are working, as a way of giving back to them what they are taking away from them.

CSR basically is about carrying out activities in an ethical manner, mindful of the fact that it should be sustainable now and for the future, so that's just a brief definition that I will give.

Corporate social responsibility looks at how much they can meet the needs of the people. There are also some areas, most at times where you see organisations focus their attention is health, they look at problems in the society that will benefit and which can be solved that is why it is coined in a business language as a corporate social responsibility. So the onus lies on the organisation to be responsible for the society in which they are doing business.

(ii) CSR activities of telecommunications companies in Ghana

(Question -What can you say about CSR activities of telecommunications companies in Ghana?)

Consumers of services related to the telecommunications industries in Ghana interviewed had a general perception of industries making a huge turnover year after year. Respondents believed that some companies stood a better chance, unlike others, to give back to society greatly. Some identified companies such as Vodafone as these properly positioned companies and greatly praised them for their health related CSR activities and TV shows over the years. Telecommunications companies in Ghana were generally seen to be performing well when it comes to CRS activities. Below were some views summarised from those interviewed:

Telecommunication companies in Ghana are doing pretty well. When you look at the mobile telecommunications thus MTN, they have a foundation called the MTN Foundation that is specifically for projects and they've done a whole lot of projects about society. When you look at Airtel too, they look at real life of difference where they look at people who have problems and how best they can help them out. Vodafone too has a programme, Vodafone health line whereby they help people who have problems. It's also a way of looking at problems within the society and trying to solve them.

As a company, we see CSR activities as a responsibility that we have towards the community that we work in. Vodafone is one business globally, we believe that it's not just about profit, it's not about doing business, it's about doing business in a safe environment, an environment where the people and the public really matter and therefore everything we do, we make sure that the community in which we operate is getting back what they have given us so we see it as a responsibility towards the community.

For the telecommunications industry to benefit from branding they must do the relevant things, they must do things that really meet the real needs of people in society. Whichever society they get into they should not practise CSR because a competitor is doing it, it should be much more relevant. If I don't have water in my village and it's a real need and you come and provide me water then you have done well ...and most of the time they just don't put the water there and leave, they put their logo there.

(iii) CSR activities and choice of brands

(Question - Will CSR activities of any company affect your choice of company brand?)

The question was generally posed as to whether CSR can affect the choice of brand an individual chooses such as a telecommunications network. Yan (2003) emphasizes that CSR marks the difference between brands that have captured the imagination of tomorrow's

consumers and those that are proving to be causalities. Klein and Dawar (2004) argue that marketing plays "a role in consumers' brand and product evaluations". The responses show mixed reactions as to whether CSR has any influence on choice of brand by consumers. Out of about 10 respondents on this particular question, few of them agreed to patronize or switch to a particular network because of CSR activities. Most were of a different view that loyalty to a particular brand is based on the services they receive from telecommunications companies.

CSR activities do affect the loyalty of our customers. For example, we have this programme we call 'health line' that is shown on TV and broadcasted on radio. This is a product or a CSR activity where we are saying that we live in a community where we know that health is one of the key things that affect the public, that affect everybody and we also know that the doctor patient ratio is quite high in our society and as a business what is it that we can do to make sure that we have customers who are healthy, who have access to good health, we have employees, we have the public who have access to good health and so we thought about what we could do. We felt that we need to break a lot of myths around some health situations so that if someone has a particular health challenge, he/she might not think that it has some mythical reason around it, so we engage specialists from various hospitals who come on TV who talk about a particular health challenge, people can dial in and ask questions, they get answers and then you feel that this is something that is medically proven. When we started doing these programmes and the way we have affected people and the way it impacted on their lives, we have seen that our net promoter score in terms of how customers view us, whether customers will recommend us etc. has really shot up so many percentage points and when we talk to customers, what they are saying is that Vodafone is one company that does not just take their money as it were but gives the money back in their activities like that so we know that it really impacted on our customers and their loyalty.

Certainly not. CSR activities of a telecommunications company do not affect my brand loyalty in any way. I expect them to do more in order for me to be moved by these activities because in terms of even service delivery I see quality service to be part of the CSR activities. So if the network is not stable, if they are pricing very high and if they promise and they don't deliver, it means they are falling short of CSR activities. I not only see CSR as doing something for the community, do something for the environment. Economic responsibility must also be in a way that will benefit customers. You must promise what you deliver and let the customers be

aware that yes this is what you are giving to them. And so if you promise quality service and you are giving poor service, I don't think I will be moved by these activities. No way.

(iv) CSR strategy to build brands

(Question - Is CSR a strategy to build brand by the telecommunications companies in Ghana?)

(Question was raised as to why logos and companies' colours are projected so much and a great deal of media hype is seen in the CSR activities of companies in Ghana.)

Respondents predominantly see CSR to be a strategic way of building brands. In fact, most consumers view the rationale behind developing CSR activities to be more of creating and building brands than just helping the society in which they operate. Lai et. al.'s (2010) findings reveal that CSR has positive effects on industrial brand equity and brand performance. Questions were raised as to why logos and companies' colours are projected so much and a great deal of media hype is seen in the activities as well. The majority of the respondents were, however, of the view that CSR is used by corporations as a strategic brand building measure rather than just community development. The following were the views of some respondents:

Every company would have to brand itself to have a unique brand to create a niche for itself, to be able to attract, people must find something that attract them to a particular company, service, what product they want to take and for that reason. You see brand no matter what it is, it has psychological value, issues in it. People just want to identify, so branding must be done so that they are able to give, you see branding is one thing that builds loyalty, customer loyalty and I think for that same purpose it's good to brand.

CSR in building brands brings to mind the issue about corporate investment. What is branding? Branding is from a layman's point of view is kind of developing a niche for yourself, something that will set you apart that everybody will want to identify with just because of the value that people place on you. For example if you want to buy a car, now if you have a number of options, most people will go for a Benz because perhaps they are good and they have also marketed themselves quite well and all that so in terms of developing a niche for themselves they have and if you talk about how branding can help in CSR, the way…if I got the question right, the way I see it is that if organisations go out there to help

society you will be seen to be contributing to society but you also leverage on that sort of investment that you do so really it moves from corporate social responsibility to corporate investment because if I'm consistently seeing MTN or Vodafone to be investing in developmental issues and all that, it is very natural that if I have MTN and Vodafone chips I will likely to be patronizing Vodafone products because in my own mind much as they make profit they somehow give back to the society so I see some level of branding taking place but also the organisation also leveraging on it. Branding is just to distinguish yourself and as you do CSR you somehow distinguish yourself and those who identify and can see are likely to patronize your product. It brings to mind this issue of fair goods. There are these fair goods products for example, in the developed world where they pride themselves as whatever monies they get, a certain percentage will always go to the farmers for example about chocolate production, the investor in chocolate will.

(v) Culture and CSR activities in Ghana

(Question - How does African culture affect CSR practice?)

CSR activities of telecommunications companies in Ghana

Culture, according to respondents, has an influence on CSR to a large extent. The choice of CSR activity initiated in a particular society is dependent on the culture of that society. Individuals are responsive to activities that reflect and magnify their cultures and once an activity reflects that they become open to fully embrace it. Visser (2007) and Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2011) have extensively discussed the juxtaposition of Western and non-western implementations of various CSR in these cultures. That notwithstanding, cultures adhered to in the execution of CSR activities must reflect a positive paradigm. The following responses throw some light on the assertion above:

Okay I think that it (CSR and culture) takes my mind to some of the arguments that were put forward by Vissah and his friends about CSR in the West and if you look at what Carroll talks about, that CSR has four dimensions, you've got the economic bits and then you move on to the legal, philanthropist and ethics, so in that order. But if you come to Africa, according to Vissah and his friends basically they see CSR in Africa to be more of economic, philanthropist, legal and ethics. The ethical issues are not very much regarded in Africa but to add to the debate, I think that CSR in Africa should be focusing more on proper governance, good governance so that the activities in Africa, if it's going to gear towards

CSR should be mindful of how Africa countries are governed because if you want to promote the good of society and there's no good governance then you will not be able to do well and it brings to mind a paper myself and my colleague wrote, on exploring the limits of Western CSR theories of Africa and in the paper it tried to bring to the fore that yes the West has led the way in terms of CSR but it must also be aware that CSR has been there for a long time but in as much as Africa tries to learn from the West there must be the awareness that the African society is already CSR oriented anyway for example if you look at our system in Ghana here we talk about 'nnoboa', if you are an Akan am sure you will know easily but have you heard about 'nnoboa'?

What comes to mind is the issue of Hofstedd cultural of hypothesis where he talks about the fact that there are at least 4 to 5 different cultural orientations, we have long/short term power distance avoidance, feminine or muscular orientation, long term or short term orientation and the like. Now, if you look at literature you will see that national cultures do impact on organisational cultures and so if you situate it within the Ghanaian debate what you'll also get is that the Ghanaian culture has much more orientation towards that.

(vi) CSR activities and the needs of beneficiaries determining CSR rating

(Question - Does meeting the needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities influence their rating of CSR activities?)

The needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities do influence the rating of CSR activities. Ponte et al. (2009) conclude in their study that CSR rankings of organisations were affected by their contribution to CSR activities in third world countries. The majority of respondents answered 'yes' and the remaining were undecided.

Yes, I mean that's exactly what I've said by saying that if you identify the needs because the beneficiaries may have a need so if you provide that need and they benefit from that need then surely a lot of people will see that well, they are meeting a need and therefore why won't I want to do business with them so the more ... is about relevance really. The more organisations carry out works which are relevant, they benefit people and it makes it a good reason why you should patronise their product and makes a good reason why they should be given whatever support they need but I must say that I feel that for most of the organisations out there, they only do CSR because someone else is doing it. As long as someone is benefiting from it, I'm happy to do business with those sorts of firms.

(vii) CSR activities in Africa against the West and the West against Africa

(Question - How do you compare CSR activities in Ghana and Africa with Western countries?)

(This question was aimed at finding out respondents perceptions about CSR practices in Africa compared to Western countries.)

Respondents were of the view that Western companies undertake CSR in a more proactive manner than African companies. Many were, however, not able to base their arguments on substantial evidence. It was assumed that the West seems to have a broader stakeholder interest in environmental issues due to rules and regulations as posited by Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2011). Below are some general assumptions of respondents:

When you take an organisation like General Electric, it's one of the top organisations in the States because it was about one man, a foreigner who went to the states to work but he couldn't speak English, so what did he do? He managed and had employment and was working as a labourer. When he works in the day time, in the evening he spends time to study his English and he worked it out to the extent that he developed a capacity in an area, so when he could stand on his own, he started an organisation, do you know what he was doing for his workers? He was employing all those immigrants who come into the country. He was then training them in English language so that what he became a victim of, they don't become a victim as well. Another organisation also decided to provide computers for the environment in which they find themselves in, whereby they dedicated 1% of their credit hour to working on the project. 1% of the shares of the organisation into that project and 1% of their profit when it's declared on that project to undertake a corporate social responsibility. When you look at the Western world its big time and its big business, of course that's a reason why we have non-governmental organisations making a whole lot of money. When you go to the universities where you have social work it's a whole lot and what's the purpose of social work? Helping people out in the society. So if people are helping people in society and organisations are seeing the need, of course they understand the fact that, the kind of impact you are making on your environment, you also try to help them and it creates a positive image about the organisation and it helps the organisation in the long term.

You will obviously will find some differences but significant or not is quite relative so basically in doing your CSR, Vodafone believes in certain things that you want to do. If you take let's say the green project, it's across the world right if you take recycling, if you take

health and safety it's across the world but maybe the intensity with which you will do it depending on your context might be a bit different so if Vodafone is talking about people should wear seat belts, it's a very strong education and awareness you want to create and it might not be necessarily be the same in UK, Germany or wherever because we have ... If for instance I'm talking about health line which is a great product that Vodafone loves that Ghana has done in our context because we saw this is an area where we think that our people need help. This might not be exactly that for some other country. If I'm talking about people who have delivered in the hospital because they can't pay their hospital bills and we have to go, get them out and it might not necessarily be happening somewhere, so you shape your CSR activity. So we have a theme that obviously that this will be the theme, this will be the area that you want to go into health, education and stuff like that but how you do it and the intensity with which you go into it might be within a local context.

6.4 Some Quotations from Respondents out of which CSR Items were Generated

6.4.1 Analysis of Findings

The researcher has tried gaining a general sense of patterns in the data by including quotes from scholars in order to demonstrate the character of the emergent themes. Here, the researcher directly quotes and refers to scholars from top academic institutions and industry's definitions in relation to the identified theme.

University of Ghana Business School:

"...there are about fifty definitions of CSR but it all boils down to the fact that it is about businesses doing business in a way that is sustainable now and for the long term, so if you talk about corporate social responsibility, it's basically asking organisation that as they pay their taxes, as they engage in ethical way of doing business, they should be able to go beyond that by addressing other issues which may not necessarily be a legal requirement and as you know CSR is not legal, it's voluntary so CSR is basically carrying out activities in an ethical manner, mindful of the fact that it should be sustainable now and for the future...'

Therefore, companies should take interest in the essence of CSR activities as being driven and touched by the needs in societies, although not a legal requirement.

Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration:

"...it's [CSR] what companies do over and above their legal and economic requirements to positively influence their stakeholders...'

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Hence, CSR is a stakeholder management tool, both internal and external.

Head of HR from Vodafone Ghana:

"…Obviously culture plays a role, when we meet our colleagues in meetings, in whatever we do, we exchange things, [expressing their views as to whether an item will work within a particular culture], some say this will not work within my environment…you realize that there is culture, that's why in our pillars in the Vodafone way is: one company, local routes…'

Looking at the cultural perspective of CSR, of course, a CSR project, although unsolicited, must be culturally relevant for the beneficiaries to accept gladly. Culture becomes a key vehicle that drives the implementation of CSR activities in the regions.

Central University College:

'…CSR is the duty a corporate entity or a company has for the community, for the environment and for the organisation itself…'

This gives the holistic beneficiaries of CSR activities, which comprises *'the community, the environment and …the organisation.'*

Central University College:

'…CSR activities in Ghana are an emerging one, it is new. It is now that you see an organisation ploughing back into society and I will say that's within the telecommunications companies, where there seems to be emerging competitions…'

The respondent points out the fact that CSR in Ghana is an emerging one. CSR, interestingly, are carried out by telecommunications companies in Ghana on different scales. The merits of CSR activities in creating marketing shares through gaining a competitive edge over rival companies are noted vastly when such activities are deployed.

How codes were generated and its interpretation:

Before attempting to justify the use of coding and thematic analysis in the qualitative research as well as selective coding in that regard, it is vital to highlight some terms used in the qualitative research such as the 'themes' and 'codes'.

Themes are different from codes in that themes are outcomes of coding. They could also be outcomes of categorisation and analytic reflection. A theme in itself is not something that is coded.

In the qualitative research unit under this topic, themes have been generated and analysed effectively. The data coded were generated from the salient responses summarised and extracted from about twenty-three (23) respondents of the qualitative interviews.

Some qualitative methodologists agree to disagree on the total body of data that should be coded. For instance, Lofland et al. (2006), Strauss (1987) and Wolcott (1999) are of the view that all recorded field data should be considered in analysis. Others such as Seidman (2006) think otherwise. They feel that only the most salient recorded portions are worthy of consideration and examination. This research work supports the views of the latter; therefore generating codes out of the thirteen (13) responses categorised and extracted from the field data. Selective, open and descriptive coding processes were also used to summarize the primary topic of the excerpt generated. This was not to simply reduce each datum but generally to summarize or condense it.

How themes were create:

1. Field data and reports were firstly read through thoroughly by the researcher.
2. Data categorisation was then employed.
3. Data labelling or coding was then carried out.
4. An analysis of specific information that ran through was performed. Individual responses were linked to information recently gathered or a story told and further linked to the identified theory.

6.5 Codes Generated from Content Analysis of Interview

The goal of the research was to generate initial items for a CSR scale. Below are some CSR items generated from the study.

Items below were generated by **Selective** and **Open Coding.**

1. CSR is giving back to society – PATRIOTISM
2. CSR is a strategic tool for creating brand reputation – BRAND IDENTITY
3. CSR helps companies increase profit – PROFIT MAXIMIZATION

4. CSR helps companies increase sales – PROFIT MAXIMIZATION

5. CRS helps to cater for the needs of the poor in society – PHILANTHROPY

6. CSR supports government's quest to alleviate poverty – PATRIOTISM

7. CSR is not a legal responsibility in most parts of Africa – CULTURE SPECIFIC

8. CSR helps companies to provide safe products to customers – BRAND SECURITY

9. CSR helps management to make strategic decisions – BRAND STRATEGY

10. CSR improves the quality of employees' lives – BRAND LOYALTY

11. CSR is a stakeholder management tool – BRAND IDENTITY

12. CSR is culture oriented – CULTURE SPECIFIC

13. CSR takes into consideration the standards of the nation – PATRIOTISM

14. CSR helps companies to provide safe products to customers- BRAND LOYALTY

15. CSR is more proactive in Western countries - CULTURE SPECIFIC

16. CSR is a facilitation tool for communication between the company and her customers - BRAND LOYALTY

17. CSR provides a good and healthy working environment – CARES FOR EMPLOYEES

18. CSR benefits the community, environment at large and the organisation –BRAND SECURITY

19. CSR enhances cultural values and recognitions –RELEVANCE

20. CSR helps employees to become responsible towards the society in which they live– PATRIOTISM

Table 6.2 Themes Generated Out of Codes

THEME	CODE
CSR is giving back to society	**PATRIOTISM**
CSR is a strategic tool for creating brand reputation	**BRAND IDENTITY**
CSR helps companies increase profit	**PROFIT MAXIMIZATION**

CSR helps companies increase sales	**PROFIT MAXIMIZATION**
CRS helps to cater for the needs of the poor in society	**PHILANTHROPY**
CSR supports government quest to alleviate poverty	**PATRIOTISM**
CSR is not a legal responsibility in most parts of Africa	**CULTURE SPECIFIC**
CSR helps companies to provide safe products to customers	**BRAND SECURITY**
CSR helps management to make strategic decisions	**BRAND STRATEGY**
CSR improves the quality of employees' lives	**BRAND LOYALTY**
CSR is a stakeholder management tool	**BRAND IDENTITY**
CSR is culture oriented	**CULTURE SPECIFIC**
CSR takes into consideration the standards of the nation	**PATRIOTISM**
CSR helps companies to provide safe products to customers	**BRAND LOYALTY**

CSR is more proactive in Western countries	CULTURE SPECIFIC
CSR is a facilitation tool for communication between the company and her customers	BRAND LOYALTY
CSR provides a good and healthy working environment	CARES FOR EMPLOYEES
CSR benefits the community, environment at large and the organisation	BRAND SECURITY
CSR enhances cultural values and recognitions	RELEVANCE
CSR helps employees to become responsible towards the society in which they live	PATRIOTISM

Source: Author

Qualitative Inquiry

Table 6.3 Codes-to-Theory Model

CODES	CATEGORY	THEORY
▪ RELEVANCE ▪ PATRIOTISM ▪ POVERTY REDUCTION	NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT/ GIVING BACK TO SOCIETY	RESOURCE-BASED VIEW THEORY (RBV)
▪ BRAND IDENTITY ▪ BRAND LOYALTY	EMPLOYEE AND CUSTOMER	STAKEHOLDER THEORY

	SATISFACTION/ BRAND VALUE ADDITION	

Source: Author

Richards and Morse (2007) clarify that categorisation is how we get "up from" the diversity of data. The sorting of things represented, and concepts are how we get "up to" more general, higher-level and more abstract constructs. Corbin and Strauss (2008) postulate that one's ability to show how these themes and concepts inter-relate lead toward the development of theories.

Table 6.3 above therefore illustrates the codes generated from some responses of field data to illustrate linkages to some CSR theories. The sets of codes were categorised based on themes identified and further linked to a CSR theory.

In some instances, categories could be *sub-categorised* leading to themes and concepts and further linked to related theories.

Coding and Analysis of Data

Data coding was employed during and after the collection of data. In some instances, researchers argue that data coding and analysis are synonymous. Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that data coding is analysis due to the fact that coding is an analytic tactic. On the other hand, Basit (2003) shares a different view in that he believes coding is not synonymous to analysis although it is a crucial aspect of analysis.

The researcher of this work however affirms the view of Basit (2003) and treats coding separately from analytical orientation.

Justification for Codifying and Categorisation

Codes were applied to the qualitative data; a process termed "codifying" (Grbich, 2007). Bernard (2006) further attests to the fact that coding can thus be a method that could enable one to organize and group coded data into categories because they share certain characteristics. This, however, leads to the primary development of patterns.

From the analysis of the code to theory model stated above, systems of codifying and categorisations were used where codes generated from significant responses were further grouped into categories and themes, and concepts developed were further classified under a CSR theory to make a relevant conclusion.

6.6 Summary of Chapter Six

The study set out to examine how organisations use CSR to improve their brands and this chapter discussed the qualitative data gathered and its analysis. It further identified:

(i)   The data collection process;

(ii)   Major themes in thematic analysis; and

(iii)   Quotations from the respondents out of which CSR items were generated.

Generally, seven research questions were developed for the interview out of which about 11 different themes were generated among CSR definitions cited by respondents. In answering the questions, respondents expressed their views that:

- Although CSR was not a legal responsibility, it was needful that companies give back to the societies in which they operate in the form of CSR activities.

- Through CSR, an organisation could strengthen and build a stronger brand for wealth maximization.

- Respondents seemed to be greatly moved by health related CSR activities as the majority made references to Vodafone Health Line.

- The question about respondents switching to a different brand based on CSR activities gained mixed responses. Four out of 10 respondents agreed to patronize or switch to a particular network because of CSR activities while six were of a different view since loyalty to a particular brand is based on the services they receive from telecommunications companies.

- All respondents agreed to the fact that CSR is a good strategy to build brands.

- They also agreed that culture is one of the most important factors that determine business strategy and therefore has some level of influence on CSR activities.

- Most of the respondents agreed that the needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities do influence the rating of CSR activities and the very few remaining were undecided.

- Lastly, their opinion about CSR activities in Africa against the West and the West against Africa was that Western companies undertake CSR in a more proactive manner than African

companies. In addition, there is broader stakeholder interest in environmental issues in the West due to rules and regulations.

From the findings of the research, it was realized that telecommunications companies in Ghana carry out CSR activities on different scales. In addition, it was agreed that CSR can be used in building brands. Telecommunications companies in Ghana should therefore take an interest in developing effective CSR activities as they affect how their image is perceived.

The research used both qualitative and quantitative data. The next chapter deals with how the quantitative data collected was analysed.

CHAPTER SEVEN

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of data analysed from questionnaires administered in the field. The chapter examines the effects of CSR activities on brand building in the telecommunications industry in Ghana using a sample of 1118 respondents (customers) and 313 employees of Vodafone Ghana Ltd. All questionnaire variables/items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale (1-7), where 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree. The following hypotheses are tested:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brand value

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association

H4: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position

H5: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness

H6: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality

H7: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge

H8: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty

H9: The higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H10: The higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H11: The higher the level of brand position consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H12: The higher the level of brand image and identity consumers has with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H13: The better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

H14: Brand awareness has a positive and significant relationship with organisational brand

H15: The is a positive and significant relationship between customer performance and organisational brand value

7.2 Subscribers of Vodafone Ghana

7.2.1 Demographic and Background Information of Subscribers

This section presents an analysis of data on the sex, age, education and marital status of respondents (customers) as summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Profile of Respondents (Customers)

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	632	56.5
Female	486	43.5
Age group		
18-25	448	40.1
26-35	396	35.4
36-45	179	16
46-55	70	6.3
56-65	19	1.7
66 years and above	3	0.3
Missing	3	0.3
Educational background		
SSS/ O' level/A' level	187	16.7
Diploma	293	26.2
Degree	583	52.1

Masters	50	4.5
Missing	5	0.4
Marital Status		
Single	822	73.5
Married	292	26.1
Missing	4	0.4
Total	**1118**	**100.0**

Source: Author Survey 2016

From Table 7.1, about 56.5% of the respondents were males and the rest were females. About 40.1% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 25 years. This is followed by those who were between the ages of 26 and 35 years (35.4%), 36 and 45 years (16%), 46 and 55 years (6.3%), 56 and 65 years (1.7%) and above 65 years (0.3%) respectively. The age distribution of the respondents (customers) is right skewed implying that the majority of them were young people whose opinions will have relevance in both the present and future of the telecommunications industry. Over half (52.1%) of the respondents (customers) were either studying for or holders of First Degree certificates whilst 26.2% and 16.7% of them had Diplomas and SSSCE/WASSCE/"A" Level/ "O" Level respectively. About 4.5% of them had Master's Degree certificates. Seven in ten (73.5%) respondents were single whereas about 26.1% of them were married.

7.2.2 Data Suitability/Quality Test

Before conducting SEM, it is important to establish the suitability of data for the analysis to be conducted. In view of the high response rate (93%) and the fact that the survey was completed under the conditions of anonymity, the test for non-response bias was not undertaken (Ledden et al., 2011). Furthermore, the number of responses obtained met the PLS analysis recommendation proposed by Barclay et al. (1995).

Next, the test for common method variance bias was undertaken. Although this study utilized data from both respondents (customers and employees) of Vodafone Ghana, the main conceptual model was tested using the data from subscribers due to the adequacy of sample size hence the need to test for common method variance bias. This study performed the Harman's (1967) one factor test based on the approach described by Andersson and Bateman (1997) and Podsakoff et al. (2003).

Exploratory factor analysis with extraction of only one factor showed that the factor accounted for about 30.2% of variance explained (which is less than 50% variance). Furthermore, measures were taken in the questionnaire design to minimize acquiescence bias (Lings and Greenly, 2010). Therefore, common method variance bias is not a problem in this study.

7.2.3 Normality Diagnostics

The test of normality of questionnaire items is presented in Table 7.2. Analysis of the scales used in the study questionnaire indicated that fifty-one items had kurtosis $> \pm1.0$; whereas forty-seven items had skewness $> \pm1.0$. More importantly, the Komogorov-Smirnov test of normality showed that $0.143<\alpha<0.287$; $p<0.01$ for all items. Similarly, the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality showed that $0.693<W< 0.936$; $p<0.01$ for all items. These results imply that the data is not normally distributed thus confirming the appropriateness of the usage of PLS statistics.

Table 7.2: Normality Test for Questionnaire Items

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	df	p	Statistic	df	p
soc1	5.99	1.09	-1.633	0.073	3.731	0.146	0.282	1118	0	0.785	1118	0
soc2	5.91	1.14	-1.412	0.073	2.605	0.146	0.273	1118	0	0.81	1118	0
soc3	5.83	1.05	-1.131	0.073	1.85	0.146	0.269	1118	0	0.842	1118	0
soc4	5.62	1.17	-1.059	0.073	1.406	0.146	0.253	1118	0	0.864	1118	0
soc5	5.29	1.34	-0.668	0.073	0.066	0.146	0.215	1118	0	0.903	1118	0
eth1	5.48	1.44	-1.132	0.073	0.911	0.146	0.259	1118	0	0.851	1118	0
eth2	5.63	1.39	-1.279	0.073	1.531	0.146	0.245	1118	0	0.834	1118	0
eth3	5.32	1.31	-0.766	0.073	0.397	0.146	0.218	1118	0	0.899	1118	0
eth4	5.53	1.23	-0.761	0.073	0.366	0.146	0.23	1118	0	0.884	1118	0
eth5	5.60	1.27	-1.249	0.073	1.715	0.146	0.269	1118	0	0.844	1118	0
hea1	5.94	1.14	-1.338	0.073	2.267	0.146	0.243	1118	0	0.815	1118	0
hea2	6.14	1.07	-1.788	0.073	4.506	0.146	0.251	1118	0	0.752	1118	0
hea3	5.93	1.10	-1.384	0.073	2.919	0.146	0.248	1118	0	0.814	1118	0
hea4	6.12	1.10	-1.865	0.073	4.726	0.146	0.254	1118	0	0.746	1118	0
hea5	6.12	1.20	-1.838	0.073	3.909	0.146	0.264	1118	0	0.731	1118	0
env1	4.78	1.52	-0.373	0.073	-0.45	0.146	0.143	1118	0	0.936	1118	0
env2	4.74	1.57	-0.497	0.073	-0.331	0.146	0.154	1118	0	0.93	1118	0
env3	5.30	1.22	-0.727	0.073	0.785	0.146	0.193	1118	0	0.901	1118	0
env4	5.42	1.20	-0.877	0.073	0.98	0.146	0.226	1118	0	0.888	1118	0

env5	5.12	1.43	-0.701	0.073	0.077	0.146	0.195	1118	0	0.91	1118	0
edu1	5.80	1.15	-1.297	0.073	2.626	0.146	0.237	1118	0	0.835	1118	0
edu2	5.60	1.39	-1.387	0.073	1.973	0.146	0.266	1118	0	0.824	1118	0
edu3	5.92	1.13	-1.472	0.073	3.039	0.146	0.261	1118	0	0.808	1118	0
edu4	6.26	1.05	-2.195	0.073	6.631	0.146	0.287	1118	0	0.693	1118	0
edu5	6.13	1.12	-1.734	0.073	3.905	0.146	0.262	1118	0	0.75	1118	0
cp1	5.39	1.32	-1.153	0.073	1.527	0.146	0.234	1118	0	0.864	1118	0
cp2	5.57	1.14	-1.106	0.073	1.89	0.146	0.244	1118	0	0.863	1118	0
cp3	5.59	1.12	-1.065	0.073	1.867	0.146	0.246	1118	0	0.866	1118	0
cp4	5.46	1.31	-0.930	0.073	0.832	0.146	0.216	1118	0	0.883	1118	0
cp5	5.58	1.24	-1.101	0.073	1.464	0.146	0.246	1118	0	0.862	1118	0
bass1	5.62	1.23	-1.145	0.073	1.712	0.146	0.243	1118	0	0.858	1118	0
bass2	5.05	1.52	-0.568	0.073	-0.374	0.146	0.194	1118	0	0.914	1118	0
bass3	5.58	1.13	-0.880	0.073	1.079	0.146	0.235	1118	0	0.88	1118	0
bass4	5.68	1.14	-1.136	0.073	1.79	0.146	0.256	1118	0	0.854	1118	0
bass5	5.64	1.15	-1.263	0.073	2.406	0.146	0.268	1118	0	0.844	1118	0
bp1	5.70	1.10	-1.191	0.073	2.259	0.146	0.262	1118	0	0.849	1118	0
bp2	5.55	1.14	-1.033	0.073	1.739	0.146	0.242	1118	0	0.87	1118	0
bp3	5.48	1.13	-1.028	0.073	1.767	0.146	0.232	1118	0	0.872	1118	0
bp4	5.56	1.16	-1.316	0.073	2.554	0.146	0.261	1118	0	0.842	1118	0
bp5	5.69	1.12	-1.167	0.073	2.13	0.146	0.254	1118	0	0.852	1118	0
ba1	5.70	1.16	-1.371	0.073	2.832	0.146	0.261	1118	0	0.834	1118	0
ba2	5.59	1.12	-1.044	0.073	1.889	0.146	0.24	1118	0	0.867	1118	0
ba3	5.58	1.18	-0.947	0.073	1.197	0.146	0.227	1118	0	0.876	1118	0
ba4	5.80	1.11	-1.220	0.073	2.192	0.146	0.262	1118	0	0.84	1118	0
ba5	5.79	1.06	-0.901	0.073	0.884	0.146	0.252	1118	0	0.861	1118	0
pbq1	5.60	1.05	-0.983	0.073	1.929	0.146	0.239	1118	0	0.868	1118	0
pbq2	5.61	1.05	-0.941	0.073	1.643	0.146	0.24	1118	0	0.87	1118	0
pbq3	5.49	1.24	-1.071	0.073	1.607	0.146	0.227	1118	0	0.871	1118	0
pbq4	5.53	1.11	-0.917	0.073	1.504	0.146	0.222	1118	0	0.879	1118	0
pbq5	5.68	1.09	-1.151	0.073	2.265	0.146	0.254	1118	0	0.853	1118	0
bk1	5.51	1.30	-0.920	0.073	0.939	0.146	0.205	1118	0	0.879	1118	0
bk2	5.99	1.07	-1.472	0.073	3.097	0.146	0.262	1118	0	0.802	1118	0
bk3	5.68	1.09	-1.134	0.073	2.206	0.146	0.255	1118	0	0.855	1118	0
bk4	5.80	1.31	-1.323	0.073	1.663	0.146	0.255	1118	0	0.817	1118	0
bk5	5.85	1.13	-1.200	0.073	1.91	0.146	0.255	1118	0	0.835	1118	0
bl1	5.38	1.32	-1.014	0.073	1.133	0.146	0.217	1118	0	0.88	1118	0
bl2	5.46	1.25	-0.979	0.073	1.16	0.146	0.232	1118	0	0.879	1118	0
bl3	5.64	1.12	-1.050	0.073	1.411	0.146	0.276	1118	0	0.858	1118	0
bl4	5.19	1.57	-1.060	0.073	0.678	0.146	0.211	1118	0	0.867	1118	0
bl5	5.70	1.08	-1.224	0.073	2.401	0.146	0.277	1118	0	0.843	1118	0
obv1	5.69	1.13	-1.239	0.073	2.597	0.146	0.254	1118	0	0.845	1118	0
obv2	5.62	1.24	-1.256	0.073	2.166	0.146	0.245	1118	0	0.847	1118	0
obv3	5.71	1.17	-1.050	0.073	1.419	0.146	0.231	1118	0	0.86	1118	0
obv4	6.04	1.03	-1.560	0.073	3.773	0.146	0.265	1118	0	0.79	1118	0

| obv5 | 6.10 | 0.98 | -1.411 | 0.073 | 2.842 | 0.146 | 0.259 | 1118 | 0 | 0.791 | 1118 | 0 |

Source: Author 2017

7.2.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Reflective Constructs

A test of the psychometric properties of reflective scales used in the study was carried out. This process involves a test of convergence and discriminant validity. Tables 7.3 and 7.4 provide summary of convergent and discriminant validity tests respectively. An examination of the initial results showed that three items had significant cross loadings. These items include "BASS 2" (Profit maximization is the main driver of Vodafone CSR activity.), "BK 1" (I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of brands that practice CSR activities) and "BL5" (Vodafone CSR makes the brand well known).

7.2.4.1 Convergence Validity

Customer Performance

Customer performance was measured using five items. The five-item scale achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.779, a composite reliability of 0.850 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.532, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler et al. (2009). Furthermore, each of the item loading was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009). The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that Vodafone supplies clear and accurate information and labelling about their products and services; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that CSR means a company should be customer oriented.

Brand Association

Brand association was measured using five items. An examination of the initial loadings showed that item "BASS2" (Profit maximization is the main driver of Vodafone CSR activity) cross loaded significantly into other constructs. The offending item was deleted and the measurement model was re-run. The final retained items achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.719, a composite reliability of 0.826 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.543, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler et al. (2009). Furthermore, each of the remaining item loadings was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009).

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The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that they want to be associated with Vodafone brand; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that the higher the level of brand image, the higher the organisational brand value increase.

Table 7. 3: Reliability and Convergent Validity of Reflective Constructs

Factor	Initial, final number of scale items	Item code	Loading	t-value (Bootstrap)	α	C.R	AVE
Customer Performance	5,5	CP1	0.744	39.927	0.779	0.850	0.532
		CP2	0.776	46.314			
		CP3	0.759	41.800			
		CP4	0.735	34.200			
		CP5	0.623	20.701			
Brand Association/Identity	5,4	BASS1	0.673	23.168	0.719	0.826	0.543
		BASS3	0.713	28.563			
		BASS4	0.772	39.506			
		BASS5	0.783	42.624			
Brand Position/Relationship	5,5	BP1	0.718	32.791	0.849	0.893	0.626
		BP2	0.777	45.234			
		BP3	0.797	49.482			
		BP4	0.833	58.438			
		BP5	0.825	52.140			
Brand Awareness	5,5	BA1	0.770	38.916	0.826	0.878	0.590
		BA2	0.771	37.085			
		BA3	0.747	37.390			
		BA4	0.803	55.738			
		BA5	0.746	42.648			
Brand Perceived Quality	5,5	PBQ1	0.790	48.094	0.839	0.886	0.609
		PBQ2	0.782	47.249			
		PBQ3	0.724	34.121			
		PBQ4	0.798	54.205			
		PBQ5	0.805	54.536			
Brand Knowledge	5,4	BK2	0.757	36.410	0.737	0.835	0.559
		BK3	0.735	31.503			
		BK4	0.741	35.438			
		BK5	0.758	38.349			
Brand Loyalty	5,4	BL1	0.737	36.413	0.783	0.860	0.606
		BL2	0.818	56.918			

		BL3	0.805	52.404			
		BL4	0.749	38.665			
Organisational Brand Value	5,5	OBV1	0.718	33.041	0.823	0.876	0.587
		OBV2	0.755	39.748			
		OBV3	0.794	50.205			
		OBV4	0.798	46.923			
		OBV5	0.762	36.253			
CSR							
CSR Social/Community	5,5						
CSR Ethical	5,5						
CSR Health	5,5						
CSR Environment	5,5						
CSR Education	5,5						

Note: All t-values are significant at 0.01 level of significance; Items deleted during CFA: BASS2, BK1 and BL5

Source: Author 2017

To establish the convergent validity, the specific construct items should share a high proportion of variances in common. In this research, convergent validity is indicated by:

1. All factor loadings are significant (Tables 7.3).

2. The relatively high average variances extracted (AVE) (Minimum AVE is 63%) (see: Table 7.3).

3. Composite reliability (CR) is higher than 0.8. (Minimum CR is 0.87) which provides evidence in support of the measure's reliability. Furthermore, the correlation between the indicators is high, which is evidence of internal consistency, and hence, the construct's unidimensionality (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988) (Table 7.3).

Brand Position

Brand position was measured using five items. The five-item scale achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.849, a composite reliability of 0.893 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.626, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler al. (2009). Furthermore, each of the item loading was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009).

The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that they like their relationship with Vodafone brand; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that Vodafone occupies good position amongst network providers in Ghana.

Brand Awareness

Brand awareness was measured using five items. The five-item scale achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.826, a composite reliability of 0.878 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.590, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler *et* al. (2009). Furthermore, each of the item loading was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009). The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that respondents can recognize Vodafone brand among other telecommunication products; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that Vodafone CSR creates brand awareness.

Brand Perceived Quality

Brand perceived quality was measured using five items. The five-item scale achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.839, a composite reliability of 0.886 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.609, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler et, al., (2009). Furthermore, each of the item loading was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009). The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that Vodafone stands for quality; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that they are willing to pay more for products from companies who practice more CSR.

Brand Knowledge

Brand knowledge was measured using five items. An examination of the initial loadings showed that item "BK1" (I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of brands that practice CSR activities) cross loaded significantly into brand awareness and brand loyalty. The offending item was deleted and the measurement model was re-run. The final retained items achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.737, a composite reliability of 0.835 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.559, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler et al. (2009). Furthermore, each of the remaining item loadings was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et

al., 2009). The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that Vodafone CSR makes the brand well known; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that Vodafone is known for reliability.

Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty was measured using five items. An examination of the initial loadings showed that item "BL5" (Vodafone brands perform well) cross loaded significantly into brand perceived quality and brand knowledge. The offending item was deleted and the measurement model was re-run. The final retained items achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.783, a composite reliability of 0.860 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.606, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler et al. (2009). Furthermore, each of the remaining item loadings was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009). The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that they will choose Vodafone even if other networks provide the same services as Vodafone; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that Vodafone CSR activities do affect their choice of brand.

Organisational Brand Value

Organisational brand value was measured using five items. The five-item scale achieved a Cronbach's alpha of 0.823, a composite reliability of 0.876 and average variance extracted (AVE) estimate of 0.587, all meeting the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2016) and Hensler et. al., (2009). Furthermore, each of the item loading was statistically significant using bootstrap t-values (5000 sub-samples) (Efron and Gong, 1983; Tortosa et al., 2009). The item with the highest factor loading was the fact that Vodafone brand has a great future in Ghana; and the one with the least factor loading was the fact that Vodafone CSR activities add values to the organisation.

7.2.4.2 Discriminant Validity

Next, discriminant validity is met by the fact that the constructs presented in Table 7.4 revealed low to moderate correlations between them. Furthermore, the square root of the average variance extracted estimates for each of the eight reflective constructs is greater than the inter-construct correlations between them (Fornell and Lacker, 1981; Barclay et al., 1995).

This shows that each construct is distinct and differs from the other measurement constructs in the model. Further, according to the recommendation of Henseler et al. (2015), the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of correlations was assessed to establish discriminant validity of the constructs. Using SmartPLS (v.3.2.6), HTMT was computed using the strict specificity criterion rate of 0.85 ($HTMT_{0.85}$), implying correlations must not exceed the 0.85 threshold to establish discriminant validity. Results in Table 7.5 show that one correlation , (i.e. Brand Perceived Quality -> Brand Loyalty) fall just shy of the $HTMT_{0.85}$ threshold while all other correlations are well within the $HTMT_{0.85}$ threshold, indicating acceptable discriminant validity of the constructs.

Table 7.4: Discriminant Validity of Reflective Constructs (Square root of AVEs in diagonal-bold)

Factor/construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Customer Performance	**0.729**								
2. Brand Association/ Identity	0.553	**0.737**							
3. Brand Position/ Relationship	0.576	0.626	**0.791**						
4. Brand Awareness	0.517	0.530	0.596	**0.768**					
5. Brand Perceived Quality	0.592	0.567	0.690	0.669	**0.780**				
6. Brand Knowledge	0.486	0.516	0.585	0.646	0.619	**0.747**			
7. Brand Loyalty	0.507	0.523	0.613	0.588	0.663	0.551	**0.778**		
8. Organisational Brand Value	0.529	0.556	0.597	0.575	0.614	0.599	0.596	**0.766**	
9. CSR	0.586	0.608	0.570	0.638	0.595	0.595	0.573	0.586	**NA**

Source: Author, 2017

It is important to establish that each construct is distinct from other constructs and captures some phenomena other measures do not. Discriminant validity is assessed by comparing the shared variance (squared correlation) between each pair of constructs against the minimum of the AVEs for these two constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

In my research, the discriminant validity is established by the fact that all variances extracted (AVE) estimates are larger than the square of each of the inter-construct correlation estimates shown in Table 7.4. This means the indicators have more in common with the construct they are associated with than they do with other constructs. Therefore, the model demonstrates discriminant validity.

Table 7.5: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) of Reflective Constructs

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Brand Awareness -> Brand Association	0.665	0.667	0.040	16.705	0.000
Brand Knowledge -> Brand Association	0.686	0.686	0.041	16.887	0.000
Brand Knowledge -> Brand Awareness	0.847	0.846	0.031	27.762	0.000
Brand Loyalty -> Brand Association	0.695	0.694	0.034	20.672	0.000
Brand Loyalty -> Brand Awareness	0.757	0.758	0.025	30.805	0.000
Brand Loyalty -> Brand Knowledge	0.788	0.787	0.025	31.778	0.000
Brand Perceived Quality -> Brand Association	0.702	0.704	0.035	19.821	0.000
Brand Perceived Quality -> Brand Awareness	0.802	0.802	0.028	28.631	0.000
Brand Perceived Quality -> Brand Knowledge	0.822	0.823	0.028	29.618	0.000
Brand Perceived Quality -> Brand Loyalty	0.855	0.854	0.021	41.427	0.000
Brand Position -> Brand Association	0.753	0.753	0.030	24.907	0.000
Brand Position -> Brand Awareness	0.709	0.712	0.029	24.666	0.000
Brand Position -> Brand Knowledge	0.740	0.741	0.028	26.297	0.000
Brand Position -> Brand Loyalty	0.790	0.789	0.022	35.223	0.000
Brand Position -> Brand Perceived Quality	0.816	0.817	0.022	37.333	0.000
Customer Performance -> Brand Association	0.739	0.739	0.033	22.459	0.000
Customer Performance -> Brand Awareness	0.640	0.641	0.033	19.507	0.000
Customer Performance -> Brand Knowledge	0.641	0.640	0.036	17.765	0.000
Customer Performance -> Brand Loyalty	0.674	0.674	0.030	22.626	0.000
Customer Performance -> Brand Perceived Quality	0.721	0.721	0.030	24.328	0.000
Customer Performance -> Brand Position	0.701	0.701	0.031	22.386	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Brand Association	0.690	0.691	0.034	20.521	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Brand Awareness	0.692	0.693	0.033	20.997	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Brand Knowledge	0.774	0.775	0.031	25.362	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Brand Loyalty	0.787	0.786	0.024	32.836	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Brand Perceived Quality	0.735	0.737	0.031	23.874	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Brand Position	0.711	0.712	0.028	25.240	0.000
Organisational Brand Value -> Customer Performance	0.655	0.656	0.035	18.476	0.000

Furthermore, Table 7.6 presents the item cross loadings of the reflective constructs in the model, following purification. The results show that all the remaining items per construct had loadings 0.6 or higher (Chin, 1998); furthermore, the items had no significant cross loadings thus supporting that fact that the eight reflective constructs model demonstrates both convergence and discriminant validity.

Table 7.6: Item Cross Loadings of Reflective Constructs (Summary convergent and discriminant validity)

Items	cperform	bassoc	Bposition	baware	bpq	bknow	bloyal	Obvalue
"CP1"	0.7444	0.392	0.4862	0.4037	0.4717	0.3439	0.4432	0.4147
"CP2"	0.7759	0.4317	0.4498	0.4232	0.5187	0.405	0.426	0.4051
"CP3"	0.7586	0.4165	0.4388	0.3682	0.4762	0.3683	0.3797	0.4152
"CP4"	0.7349	0.3619	0.3603	0.3606	0.3549	0.323	0.3275	0.3541
"CP5"	0.6229	0.4169	0.3446	0.3213	0.3044	0.3272	0.2418	0.3265
BASS1	0.3607	0.6731	0.3517	0.3849	0.3682	0.3639	0.3151	0.3632
BASS3	0.4	0.7134	0.4299	0.3449	0.3556	0.3357	0.3666	0.3561
BASS4	0.3811	0.7719	0.4792	0.4066	0.4449	0.4248	0.3768	0.4292
BASS5	0.4811	0.7832	0.5651	0.4192	0.4876	0.3903	0.4692	0.4775
"BP1"	0.3792	0.5203	0.7183	0.4598	0.4827	0.4593	0.4088	0.4629
"BP2"	0.501	0.4985	0.7768	0.455	0.5505	0.4588	0.5158	0.4777
"BP3"	0.44	0.444	0.7967	0.4467	0.5407	0.4486	0.4834	0.4496
"BP4"	0.4748	0.4955	0.8332	0.4741	0.5456	0.4632	0.4843	0.4627
"BP5"	0.4789	0.5065	0.8245	0.5133	0.599	0.4787	0.529	0.4993
"BA1"	0.3622	0.3835	0.4453	0.77	0.4656	0.4703	0.4247	0.4119
"BA2"	0.4648	0.4234	0.5336	0.7707	0.5823	0.4822	0.5124	0.4499
"BA3"	0.3548	0.3525	0.4162	0.7469	0.4932	0.452	0.4372	0.4059
"BA4"	0.3906	0.3925	0.4459	0.8032	0.5134	0.5416	0.4145	0.4454
"BA5"	0.408	0.473	0.4428	0.7465	0.5074	0.5256	0.4634	0.4878
"PBQ1"	0.4932	0.4672	0.566	0.5671	0.7903	0.5167	0.5253	0.4825
"PBQ2"	0.5015	0.4449	0.5443	0.5029	0.7823	0.4554	0.4844	0.4551
"PBQ3"	0.3696	0.4626	0.4588	0.4886	0.7236	0.4459	0.5404	0.4615
"PBQ4"	0.4756	0.412	0.5422	0.5474	0.7976	0.4796	0.5163	0.4801
"PBQ5"	0.4686	0.4257	0.5761	0.5011	0.8054	0.5145	0.5179	0.5121
"BK2"	0.3124	0.387	0.4179	0.5034	0.4296	0.757	0.3134	0.4278
"BK3"	0.429	0.3805	0.5256	0.4998	0.5797	0.7345	0.4662	0.4711
"BK4"	0.3284	0.3594	0.4026	0.4361	0.4051	0.7408	0.4028	0.404
"BK5"	0.3785	0.4107	0.4017	0.4866	0.4313	0.7571	0.4586	0.4821
"BL1"	0.3238	0.3648	0.3935	0.4375	0.4706	0.4075	0.7373	0.4048
"BL2"	0.4154	0.401	0.5378	0.4565	0.5531	0.4311	0.8183	0.4814
"BL3"	0.4249	0.4736	0.4905	0.4916	0.5268	0.4791	0.8054	0.5484
"BL4"	0.4086	0.3764	0.4827	0.4402	0.5101	0.389	0.7486	0.4027
"OBV1"	0.443	0.4903	0.4382	0.5185	0.5023	0.4758	0.4513	0.7182
"OBV2"	0.3581	0.393	0.4787	0.3929	0.483	0.4551	0.5245	0.7552
"OBV3"	0.3731	0.3914	0.4817	0.4184	0.4852	0.4159	0.4917	0.7943
"OBV4"	0.4227	0.4389	0.471	0.4551	0.4542	0.4809	0.4019	0.7975
"OBV5"	0.4218	0.4073	0.4107	0.4058	0.4158	0.4622	0.4073	0.7618

Source: Author, 2017

7.2.5 Multicollinearity of Formative Construct-CSR

Table 7.7 presents the multicollinearity test for the five formative dimensions of CSR, namely social, ethical, health, environment and education CSR. An examination of the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance showed that multicollinearity is not a problem since VIF < 5 for all the dimensions (Ledden et. al., 2011; Hair et al., 2016). Furthermore, each of the five formative dimensions was statistically significant (p<0.00001) (Hair et al., 2014). Furthermore, each of the 5 CSR dimensions was captured with five items none of which had a multicollinearity problem.

Table 7.7: Higher Order Structure of CSR and Test of Multicollinearity

Dimensions of CSR	Beta	S.E	T	p	Tolerance	VIF
Social	0.293	0.001	391.180	0.000	0.546	1.830
Ethical	0.268	0.001	358.524	0.000	0.547	1.829
Health	0.277	0.001	361.878	0.000	0.522	1.915
Environment	0.235	0.000	354.408	0.000	0.699	1.431
Education	0.247	0.001	336.048	0.000	0.567	1.763

Note: All formative constructs are significant at p<0.00001

Source: Author 2017

The most significant of the CSR dimensions practiced by Vodafone Ghana is social CSR (β=0.293, t=391.18, p<0.00001). This is followed by health CSR, ethical CSR, education CSR and environment CSR respectively.

7.2.6 Structural Equation Modelling

Having confirmed the psychometric properties of the reflective measures and collinearity diagnostics of the formative measure, the next stage is to examine the structural model in order to assess the model's explanatory power and the significance of the hypothesized paths (Ledden et al., 2011; Lings and Greenly, 2010).

7.2.6.1 Model Efficiency

The results of the model's predictive accuracy (R^2), predictive relevance (Q^2) and effect sizes (f^2) are presented in Table 7.8 below. Organisational brand value showed a substantial explanatory power representing about 53.6% of variance explained in the model (Chin, 1998). This implies that CSR practices and brand strength strongly determine/influence organisational brand value. Also the effect of CSR practices on customer performance, brand association, brand position, brand awareness, brand perceived quality and brand all meet the moderate level of 33% suggested by Chin (1998) showing good explanatory power.

In addition to the R^2, this study also utilized the Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) cross-validated redundancy, a blindfolding procedure in PLS, setting omission distance of 7 as a criterion for predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2016; Chin, 2010). Q^2 – values obtained for organisational brand value, customer performance, brand association, brand position, brand awareness, brand perceived quality, brand knowledge and brand loyalty were all greater than 0 showing predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2016; Chin, 2010).

Table 7.8: Predictive Accuracy (R2), Predictive Relevance (Q2) and Effect Sizes (f2)

Constructs	R^2	Q^2	f^2(Organisational Brand Value)
Customer Performance	0.343	0.180	0.02 (None)
Brand Association	0.370	0.199	0.02 (None)
Brand Position	0.325	0.199	0.02 (small)
Brand Awareness	0.407	0.238	0.00 (None)
Brand Perceived Quality	0.354	0.214	0.02 (small)
Brand Knowledge	0.353	0.196	0.02 (small)
Brand Loyalty	0.328	0.197	0.02 (small)
Organisational Brand Value	0.536	0.311	_
CSR	_	_	0.02 (small)

Source: Author, 2017

Finally, this study examined the effect sizes (f^2) of each of the exogenous constructs in the model to determine the magnitude of their effect on the R^2 value of the endogenous construct-organisational brand value. Just like traditional multiple regression, effect sizes (f^2) values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 show small, medium and large effects respectively (Hair et al., 2016; Chin, 2010; Cohen, 1988). The study obtained small effect sizes for CSR, customer performance, brand association, brand position, brand perceived quality, brand knowledge and brand loyalty on their relationship with organisational brand value.

7.2.6.2 Structural Estimates and Hypotheses Testing

This analysis examines the relationships if any existing between CSR, the dimensions of brand strength and organisational brand value. The proposed models were estimated using partial least squares (PLS). The result of the proposed measurement model tested (showing regression weights) is shown in Figure 7.1. Bootstrap t-values were used to estimate the statistical significance of each path coefficient as presented in Table 7.8. The results in Figure 7.1 show that all paths were statistically significant, with the exception of the effect of brand awareness on organisational brand value.
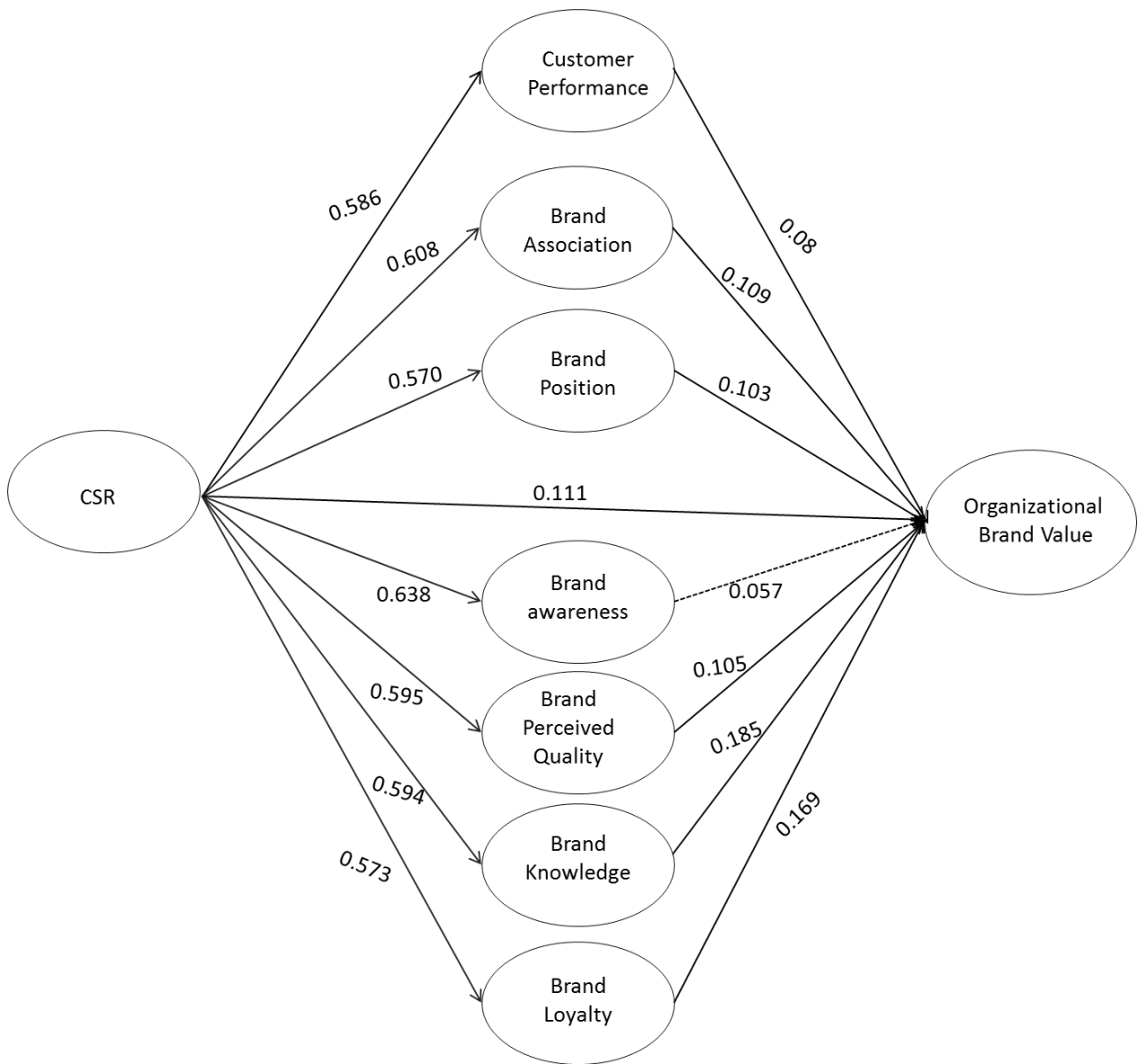
Figure 7.1: Path Diagram for CSR, Dimensions of Brand Strength and Organisational Brand Value-Showing Regression Weights

Note: *Dotted line means path is not statistically significant*

Source: Author 2017

Based on the structural results presented in Figure 7.1, the following hypotheses conclusions were made:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brand value.

A positive and significant association exists between CSR practices and organisational brand value (p<0.01). This means the better the perception of CSR practices; the more the organisation's brand value will improve. Specifically about 1.2% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.111 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by CSR practices. Therefore, hypothesis 1 (**H1)** is supported in the present context.

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and customer performance. Specifically, about 34.3% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.586 times 100%) of the variance in customer performance is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance. Hence hypothesis 2 (**H2)** is supported in the present context.

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and association. Specifically, about 40% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.608 times 100%) of the variance in brand association is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association. Hence hypothesis 3 (**H3)** is supported in the present context.

H4: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and brand position. Specifically, about 32.5% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.570 times 100%) of the variance in brand position is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position. Hence hypothesis 4 (**H4)** is supported in the present context.

H5: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and brand awareness. Specifically, about 40.7% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.638 times 100%) of the variance in brand awareness is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the

better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness. Hence hypothesis 5 (**H5)** is supported in the present context.

H6: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and perceived brand quality. Specifically, about 35.4% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.595 times 100%) of the variance in perceived brand quality is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality. Hence hypothesis 6 (**H6)** is supported in the present context.

H7: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and brand knowledge. Specifically, about 35.3% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.594 times 100%) of the variance in brand knowledge is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge. Hence hypothesis 7 (**H7)** is supported in the present context.

H8: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between CSR practices and brand loyalty. Specifically, about 32.8% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.573 times 100%) of the variance in brand loyalty is explained by CSR practices. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty. Hence hypothesis 8 (**H8)** is supported in the present context.

H9: The higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between brand loyalty and organisational brand value. Specifically, about 2.9% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.169 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by brand loyalty.

It can therefore be concluded that the higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. Hence hypothesis 9 (**H9)** is supported in the present context.

H10: The higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between brand knowledge and organisational brand value. Specifically, about 3.4% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.185 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by brand knowledge. It can therefore be concluded that the higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. Hence hypothesis 10 (**H10)** is supported in the present context.

H11: The higher the level of brand position consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between brand position/relationship and organisational brand value. Specifically, about 1.1% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.103 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by brand position or relationship. It can therefore be concluded that the higher the level of brand position consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. Hence hypothesis 11 (**H11)** is supported in the present context.

H12: The higher the level of brand image and identity consumers has with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between brand association and organisational brand value. Specifically, about 1.2% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.109 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by brand association. It can therefore be concluded that higher the level of brand image and identity consumers has with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. Hence hypothesis 12 (**H12)** is supported in the present context.

H13: The better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between brands perceived quality and organisational brand value. Specifically, about 1.1% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.105 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by brands perceived quality. It can therefore be concluded that the better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. Hence hypothesis 13 (**H13)** is supported in the present context.

H14: Brand awareness has positive and significant relationship with organisational brand. The relationship between brand awareness and organisational value was not statistically significant (p=n.s.). Therefore, brand awareness does not necessarily have a significant positive effect on organisational brand value. Hence hypothesis 14 (**H14)** is not supported in the present context.

H15: There is a positive and significant relationship between customer performance and organisational brand value

The results revealed a significantly positive relationship between customer performance and organisational brand value. Specifically, about 1% (that is the square of the regression weight of 0.08 times 100%) of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by customer performance. It can therefore be concluded that the better the performance of customers, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. Hence hypothesis 15 (**H15)** is supported in the present context.

7.2.6.3 Summary of Hypotheses Tests

A summary of the hypotheses test conducted and conclusions made is shown in Table 7.9. The bootstrap t-values show that all paths were significant (t>1.96) (two-tailed test) hence all fifteen hypotheses were supported in the present context.

Table 7.9: Hypotheses Tests Summary

Hypothesis	Structural path		Path coefficient	t-value (Bootstrap)	Hypothesis Results
H1	CSR OBV	→	0.111	2.763*	Supported
H2	CSR Customer Performance	→	0.586	23.867**	Supported
H3	CSR Brand Association	→	0.608	21.023**	Supported
H4	CSR Brand Position	→	0.570	22.780**	Supported
H5	CSR Brand Awareness	→	0.638	24.115**	Supported
H6	CSR Brand Perceived Quality	→	0.595	21.841**	Supported
H7	CSR Brand Knowledge	→	0.594	19.800**	Supported
H8	CSR Brand Loyalty	→	0.573	25.411**	Supported
H9	Brand Loyalty OBV	→	0.169	4.482**	Supported
H10	Brand Knowledge OBV	→	0.185	4.695**	Supported
H11	Brand Position OBV	→	0.103	2.400*	Supported
H12	Brand Association OBV	→	0.109	3.017**	Supported
H13	BPQ OBV	→	0.105	2.507*	Supported
H14	Brand Awareness OBV	→	0.057	n.s.	Not Supported
H15	Customer Perf. OBV	→	0.080	2.075*	Supported

*Note: **t-value is significant at 0.01 level of significance; *t-value is significant at 0.05 level of significance; OBV (Organisational Brand Value); BPQ (Brand Perceived Quality)*

Source: Author, 2017

7.3 Employees of Vodafone Ghana

7.3.1 Demographic And Background Information

The background information of the employees of Vodafone Ghana who responded are presented in table 7.10 below.

Table 7.10: Profile of Respondents (Employees)

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	158	49.7
Female	160	50.3
Age group		
18-25	42	13.2
26-35	91	28.6
36-45	113	35.5

46-55	68	21.4
56-65	4	1.3
Educational background		
SSS/ O' level/A' level	13	4.1
Diploma	111	34.9
Degree	156	49.1
Masters	38	11.9
Marital Status		
Single	138	43.4
Married	180	56.6
Total	318	100.0

Source: Author, 2017

Majority (50.3%) of the respondents were females and the rest were males. About thirty-six percent of the respondents were between the ages of 36 and 45 years. This is followed by those who were between the ages of 26 and 35 years (28.6%), 46 and 55 years (21.4%), 18 and 25 years (13.2%) and 56 and 65 years (1.3%) respectively.

Majority (61%) of the respondents were First Degree or Master's Degree holders. About 34.9% of them were holders of Diplomas whereas the rest (4.1%) were SSSCE/WASSCE/" A" Level/ "O" Level holders (5%) respectively. Majority (56.6%) of the respondents were married whereas about 43.4% of them were single.

7.3.2 Business Considerations

Employees were asked to rank in the order of importance four CSR business considerations, with 4 being the most important and 1 being the least important.

The average of the rankings were calculated and shown in table 7.11. The most important CSR business consideration is Philanthropic responsibility (highest mean). This is followed by economic, legal and ethical responsibilities respectively

Table 7.11: CSR business considerations

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Legal responsibility	318	1.44	0.70	2
Economic responsibility	318	1.75	0.55	3
Ethical responsibility	318	1.10	0.31	1
Philanthropic responsibility	318	3.35	0.68	4

Source: Author, 2017

7.3.3 Extent of Practice of CSR, Brand Strength and Brand Value

Employees were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the CSR practices, the strength and value of the Vodafone brand. Table 7.12 shows the means, standard deviations and t-test of the construct questions.

All results obtained were statistically significant except the statement "Vodafone ensures that there are policies against all forms of discrimination".

Table 7.12: CSR, Brand Strength and Organisational Brand Value

Code	Item wording	Mean	S.D	t	p
	Social				
soc1	Vodafone is committed to donating to charity	5.90	1.05	31.95	0.00**
soc2	Vodafone CSR also means giving back to the society and helping people	6.14	0.94	40.89	0.00**
soc3	Poor CSR activity can have a negative impact on organizational brand value	6.31	1.01	40.85	0.00**
soc4	Vodafone consults the community before embarking CSR activities	5.42	1.13	22.27	0.00**
soc5	Vodafone has recruitment policies that favour the local communities in which it operates	5.42	0.90	28.29	0.00**
	Ethics				
eth1	Vodafone practice ethical business	5.55	0.82	32.92	0.00**
eth2	As far as I know Vodafone do not encourage child labour	5.66	0.72	41.00	0.00**
eth3	Vodafone is transparent to stakeholders	6.12	0.82	45.84	0.00**
eth4	Vodafone values female employees	4.55	1.48	6.60	0.00**

eth5	Vodafone adverts are ethical	5.42	0.92	27.06	0.00**

Health

hea1	Vodafone CSR activity in Health line TV show is one of the best CSR programs in Ghana	6.24	0.82	48.83	0.00**
hea2	Vodafone should continue the Health line TV show	6.54	0.57	79.63	0.00**
hea3	CSR programs organized by Vodafone contribute to brand building	6.48	0.83	53.49	0.00**
hea4	Vodafone should team up with health organizations	6.36	0.79	53.67	0.00**
hea5	Vodafone should help with rural health in Ghana	6.47	0.75	58.62	0.00**

Environment

env1	Vodafone is involved in waste reduction	4.89	0.90	17.67	0.00**
env2	Vodafone is involved in reduction of air pollution	4.91	0.88	18.46	0.00**
env3	Vodafone considers environmental impact when developing new products	5.61	0.89	32.09	0.00**
env4	Vodafone service provider uses environmentally friendly packaging	6.96	7.84	6.73	0.00**
env5	CSR means environmentally responsible and green	6.35	0.90	46.38	0.00**

Education

edu1	Vodafone should communicate its CSR activities through all available channels	6.19	0.96	40.62	0.00**
edu2	I heard of Vodafone CSR activities through TV	6.35	0.81	51.90	0.00**
edu3	CSR activities should be communicated to all stakeholders	6.33	0.79	52.53	0.00**
edu4	Vodafone should give more scholarship to needy students	6.40	1.03	41.67	0.00**
edu5	Vodafone should build schools for communities in Ghana	6.12	1.21	31.14	0.00**

Employee Performance

ep1	Vodafone encourages me to develop real skills Through training programmes	4.31	1.69	3.29	0.00
ep2	Vodafone ensures that there are policies against all forms of discrimination	3.92	1.57	-0.86	0.39
ep3	Vodafone Management consults employees in decision making	4.42	1.08	6.91	0.00**
ep4	Vodafone is committed to the health and safety of	4.77	1.01	13.48	0.00**

	employees				
ep5	Vodafone ensures a work/life balance among employees	4.82	0.96	15.05	0.00**
	Brand Association				
bass1	The higher the level of brand image the higher the organizational brand value increases	4.23	1.73	2.35	0.02*
bass2	Profit maximization is the main driver of Vodafone CSR activity.	5.61	1.37	20.66	0.00**
bass3	Vodafone CSR raise the profile of the brand in consumer's mind	6.32	0.95	43.51	0.00**
bass4	I easily identify with Vodafone brand	6.33	0.65	64.31	0.00**
bass5	I want to be associated with Vodafone brand	6.29	0.72	56.53	0.00**
	Brand Position				
bp1	Vodafone occupies good position amongst network providers in Ghana	6.19	0.96	40.62	0.00**
bp2	Vodafone offer value for money compared with other brands	6.19	0.81	47.88	0.00**
bp3	Vodafone claim to be the most reliable network in Ghana is true	6.37	0.94	44.81	0.00**
bp4	I like relationship with Vodafone brand	6.01	1.01	35.28	0.00**
bp5	I like to continue the relationship with Vodafone brand	6.14	0.84	45.56	0.00**
	Brand Awareness				
ba1	I am aware of Vodafone products and services	5.88	1.03	32.70	0.00**
ba2	Vodafone provides full and accurate information about its products to customers	6.26	0.83	48.93	0.00**
ba3	I can recall Vodafone adverts easily	6.30	0.92	44.70	0.00**
ba4	I can recognize Vodafone brand among other telecommunication products	6.38	0.84	50.57	0.00**
ba5	Vodafone CSR creates brand awareness	6.60	0.87	53.40	0.00**
	Brand Perceived Quality				
pbq1	Vodafone products are of high quality	6.76	5.74	8.57	0.00**
pbq2	Vodafone has a good service quality	6.33	0.82	50.24	0.00**
pbq3	I am willing to pay more for products from companies who practice more CSR	5.48	0.89	29.28	0.00**

pbq4	I like the professionalism of Vodafone staff	6.25	1.01	39.80	0.00**
pbq5	Vodafone stands for quality	6.48	0.74	60.17	0.00**
	Brand Knowledge				
bk1	I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of brands that practice CSR activities	4.97	1.45	11.93	0.00**
bk2	Vodafone is a well-known brand in Ghana	6.37	1.04	40.51	0.00**
bk3	Vodafone is known for reliability	6.35	0.95	44.20	0.00**
bk4	Red stands for Vodafone	6.60	1.05	44.12	0.00**
bk5	Vodafone CSR makes the brand well known	6.52	0.79	57.29	0.00**
	Brand Loyalty				
bl1	Vodafone CSR activities does affect my choice of brand	5.57	1.07	26.17	0.00**
bl2	If other networks provide the same service as Vodafone I will still choose Vodafone	5.68	0.88	33.91	0.00**
bl3	Vodafone CSR activities increased the level of trust I have in the brand	5.87	0.94	35.29	0.00**
bl4	If Vodafone price is slightly higher than other brands, I will still choose Vodafone	5.51	1.19	22.46	0.00**
bl5	Vodafone brands perform well	6.28	0.93	43.54	0.00**
	Organizational Brand Value				
obv1	Vodafone CSR activities adds values to the organization	6.37	0.90	46.83	0.00**
obv2	I am willing to buy shares in Vodafone brand	5.32	1.04	22.70	0.00**
obv3	I will recommend relations to invest in Vodafone	5.42	0.99	25.55	0.00**
obv4	Vodafone brand has a great future in Ghana	6.42	0.85	50.57	0.00**
obv5	Vodafone share value is likely increase in future	6.20	0.92	42.76	0.00**

Note: **t-value is significant at 0.01 level of significance; *t is significant at 0.01 level of significance

7.4 Summary of Chapter Seven

The chapter discusses the results of data analysed from questionnaires administered in the field and examines the effects of CSR activities on brand building. It was realised that theres is a significant relationship amongst CSR, Brand Strength and Organisational Brand Value.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

The discussion of the results of the qualitative data analysis of the relationship between CSR activities, brand strength and organisational brand value in the telecommunications industry in Ghana is reported in this chapter. The initial qualitative interviews helped in developing a good quantitative research instrument in addressing the research questions for this study. The research questions for this study were:

1. Does CSR aid in corporate brand building?
2. What is the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value?
3. What are the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the stakeholder value of organisations?
4. Do customers and the public prefer some CSR activities to others?
5. What are the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries?

The following were the seven qualitative interview questions that 23 respondents were asked to comment on:

- QIQ1. What is your understanding of Corporate Social Responsibility? This addressed RQ3&RQ5.
- QIQ2. What can you say about CSR activities of telecommunications companies in Ghana? This addressed RQ1, RQ3&RQ4.
- QIQ3. Will CSR activities of any company affect your choice of company brand? This addressed RQ3&RQ4.
- QIQ4. Is CSR a strategy to build brand by the telecommunications companies in Ghana? This addressed RQ1.
- QIQ5. How does African culture affect CSR practice? This addressed RQ5.
- QIQ6. Does meeting the needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities influence their rating of CSR activities? This addressed RQ 3, 4&5.
- QIQ7. How do you compare CSR activities in Ghana and Africa with Western countries? This addressed RQ5.

8.1 Summary of Qualitative Data Analysis Findings

Generally, seven research questions were developed for the interview out of which about 11 different themes were generated among CSR definitions cited by respondents.

In answering the questions, respondents expressed their views that:

Although CSR was not a legal responsibility, it was needful that companies give back to the societies in which they operate in the form of CSR activities. Through CSR, an organisation could strengthen and build a stronger brand for wealth maximization. Respondents seemed to be greatly moved by health related CSR activities as the majority made reference to Vodafone Health line. The question about respondents switching to a different brand based on CSR activities gained mixed responses. Four out of 10 respondents agreed to patronize or switch to a particular network because of CSR activities while six were of a different view since loyalty to a particular brand is based on the services they receive from telecommunications companies. In addition, all respondents agreed to the fact that CSR is a good strategy to build brands. They also agreed that culture is one of the most important factors that determine business strategy and therefore, has some level of influence on CSR activities.

Most of the respondents agreed that the needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities do influence the rating of CSR activities and the very few remaining were undecided. Lastly, their opinion about CSR activities in Africa against the West and the West against Africa was that Western companies undertake CSR in a more proactive manner than African companies. In addition, there is broader stakeholder interest in environmental issues in the West due to rules and regulations.

From the findings of the research, it was realized that telecommunications companies in Ghana carry out CSR activities on different scales. It was also agreed that CSR can be used in building brands. Telecommunications companies in Ghana should therefore take interest in developing effective CSR activities as they affect how their image is perceived. The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand strength (perception, position, image, loyalty and relationship). The results revealed a positive significant relationship between combined CSR (made up of social, ethical, health, environment, and education) and brand strength (made up of customer performance, brand association, brand position, brand awareness, brand perceived quality, brand knowledge and brand loyalty). Among the dimensions of brand strength, brand knowledge is the best explained by CSR activities (that is about 88% of the variance in brand knowledge is explained by the CSR practices of

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Vodafone). This is followed by brand perceived quality, brand awareness, brand association, brand loyalty, brand position and customer performance respectively.

8.2 Summary of Quantitative Data Analysis Findings

The model presented in the conceptual framework was tested using the statistical techniques described in Chapter 5. The statistical techniques involved the SEM, Descriptive Statistics, Crombach Alpha, Correlation Data Analysis using PLS approach. To test the relationships between CSR and brand strength, CSR and organisational brand value and brand strength and organisational brand value, the following hypotheses were developed from the quantitative data:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brands value. This addressed RQ1.

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance. This addressed RQ1.

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association. This addressed RQ1& RQ2.

H4: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position. This addressed RQ1.

H5: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness. This addressed RQ1.

H6: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality. This addressed RQ1.

H7: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge. This addressed RQ1.

H8: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty. This addressed RQ1.

H9: The higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. This addressed RQ5.

H10: The higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. This addressed RQ5.

H11: The higher the level of brand position consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. This addressed RQ5.

H12: The higher the level of brand image and identity consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. This addressed RQ5.

H13: The better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. This addressed RQ1&RQ5.

H14: The higher brand awareness customers have about a brand does not necessarily lead to organisational brand value increases. This addressed byRQ1.

H15: The more customers are satisfied with a brand the greater likelihood of better organisational brand   value.   This   addressed   RQ1.

8.3 Summary of Quantitative and Qualitative Data Analysis

A summary of results for both qualitative and quantitative data analysis, addressing both qualitative and quantitative research questions and how they are linked is hereby presented in Table 8.1 below. It also indicates hypotheses that were supported and those that were not supported.

Table 8.1:Triangulation of Results (Qualitative and Quantitative) Based on Research Questions

Research Questions	Qualitative Interview Questions	Research Conclusion	Quantitative Hypothesis	Research Conclusion
RQ3	QIQ1			
	QIQ2			
RQ1	QIQ2		H1	Supported
	QIQ4		H2	Supported
			H3	Supported
			H4	Supported
			H5	Supported
			H6	Supported
			H7	Supported
			H8	Supported
			H9	Supported
			H10	Supported
			H11	Supported
			H12	Supported
			H13	Supported
			H14	Not supported
			H15	Supported
RQ2			H3	Supported
RQ3	QIQ3		H1	Supported
	QIQ6			
RQ4	QIQ2		H2	
	QIQ3			
	QIQ6			
RQ5	QIQ1			

	QIQ5			
	QIQ6			
	QIQ7		H13,H15	Supported

Source: 2017

8.4 RQ1 Discussion

Does CSR aid in corporate brand building?

All the under listed hypotheses were supported using SEM except H9 and H12.

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brands value

CSR is used for brand building purposes through the marketing and brand promotion of positive activities, such as sponsorship of an event or donation to a charity (Gurhan-Canli and Fries, 2009). There is a growing interest in the ways in which CSR can build and enhance brands and in what Blumenthal and Bergstrom (2003) have described as the "convergence of branding and Corporate Social Responsibility". Middlemiss (2003), for example, suggests that "CSR is taking centre stage to provide more sustainable, long term brand value". Brønn and Vrioni (2001) argue that "having a pro-social agenda means having a powerful marketing tool that can build brand image and brand equity sector" while Yan (2003) emphasizes that CSR "marks the difference between brands that have captured the imagination of tomorrow's consumers and those that are proving to be causalities"; and Klein and Dawar (2004) argue that marketing plays "a role in consumers' brand and product evaluations". Girod and Michael (2003) have stressed that "CSR can be a key tool to create, develop and sustain differentiated brand names". This study confirms that CSR is very important to building brand value. Linking CSR to organisational brand value indicated from the SEM analysis that 54% of the variation in organisational brand value is explained by CSR activities.

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance CSR is said to improve the company's profitability and financial performance (Van der Laan et al., 2008; Ruf et al., 2001), and create customer loyalty (Mandhachitara and Poolthong, 2011). The results confirm the literature above. Here customer performance is equated to customer loyalty and company profitability and financial performance can also be indicators of customer performance. Kolodinsky et al. (2010) found that customers' positive attitudes toward corporate social activities could affect their perceptions of and behaviours toward brands.

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association. This addressed RQ2 & RQ3.

"Corporation's socially responsible behaviour can positively affect consumers' attitudes towards the corporation", according to Hsu (2012, p. 190). Moreover, Lii and Lee argue that especially the philanthropic aspect improves consumers' brand attitudes (2012, p. 79) and brand attitude includes association. This confirmed hypothesis in this study supports the literature above. Hence, customers will have better and more positive attitudes, such as brand association of organisations when CSR perception is better.

H4: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand position

This addressed RQ2. Bhattacharya with colleagues (2007) examines the influence of the extent to which a company's social activities are integrated into the brand's competitive positioning on consumer attitudes to CSR. They argue that brands that base positioning on CSR, integrating CSR strategy in core business strategy, are more likely to reach CSR-specific benefits from consumers than brands that solely engage in CSR without positioning the brand accordingly.

H5: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand awareness

This addressed RQ2. Investing in corporate social responsibility can secure competitive advantages, financial benefits (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006), build brand awareness (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002) and create brand legitimacy (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006; Uggla, 2006; Vaaland et al., 2008; Werther Jr. and Chandler, 2005), which can in turn strengthen the relationship of stakeholders with the corporate brand. The integration of corporate social responsibility into the corporate brand introduces a powerful means by which corporations can build brand equity (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002). Brand equity includes brand awareness. Brand based corporate social responsibility empowers organisations to fulfil the brand's promise, building trust based relationships (Kitchin, 2003). Brand equity is an incremental utility and considered as one of the sources of competitive advantage by many firms (Hao et al., 2007). Therefore, brand equity is appreciated as the most esteemed intangible asset for any company that deals with large numbers of consumers.

Brand equity has become immensely important for service-based organisations in recent years, for services that are identical and difficult to differentiate. Many service organisations such as banking, telecommunications, airlines, and hotels are facing competition and it is important for the service providers to establish a strong brand (Kim and Kim, 2005). Gurhan-Canli and Fries (2009) suggest branding outcomes are influenced by consumer characteristics, such as awareness of CSR programmes

and brand, personal judgement and company characteristics. Hence, this study confirms the literature above.

H6: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the perceived brand quality

This addressed RQ2. The perceived quality of products and services of strong brands add value to consumers' purchase evaluations. Lee et al. (2010) noted that when consumers perceive a brand to be of high quality, they are more likely to purchase the brand over competing brands, pay a premium price and choose the brand. Perceived quality and perceived value play important roles in industries with high customer involvement, such as the banking industry. Therefore, it is important to identify dimensions of these constructs correctly and to find out how the constructs are perceived by customers. Perceived quality is also a component of brand value, which leads consumers to select a particular brand rather than another competing brand (Yoo et al., 2000). CSR perception is closely associated with service quality performance in long-term relationships (García et al., 2009) and restoration of positive customer attitudes after service failures and recovery (Choi and La, 2013). Most importantly, CSR perception is also emerging as a crucial factor in broadening the base of loyal customers (García et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2012; Pérez et al., 2013a). Lai et al. (2010) findings reveal that CSR has a positive effect on industrial brand equity and brand performance. Brand equity comprises brand awareness, brand perceived quality, brand association and brand loyalty. This study therefore confirms the above literature.

H7: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand knowledge

This addressed RQ2. The benefits of CSR, such as increased profit, customer loyalty, and a positive attitude toward the brand, have been widely studied by McDonald and Rundle-Thiele (2008). This means customers will be willing to know about the brand when they have a better perception about CSR activities of the firm in question. Lai et al.'s (2010) findings reveal that CSR has a positive effect on industrial brand equity and brand performance: This study confirms the above literature.

H8: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand loyalty

This addressed RQ2. Some academics have observed that a large number of consumers are more willing to buy products from companies involved in social causes (Maignan et al., 1999; Garcia et al., 2009). Accordingly, individuals value the efforts of companies that engage in philanthropy programmes, energy conservation plans or sponsorship of cultural or social events, among other initiatives. Additionally, this support may lead to a greater brand loyalty (Maignanet al., 1999). CSR is

used for brand building purposes through the marketing and brand promotion of positive activities, such as sponsorship of an event or donation to a charity (Gurhan-Canli and Fries, 2009). Other empirical studies support the relationship between CSR and brand performance. Lai, Chin, Yang and Pai (2010) concluded that both CSR and corporate reputation had a positive effect on brand equity in the industrial sector. The brand equity also included brand loyalty and brand awareness.

Brand equity can help adjudicate a relationship between brand performance and Liu et. al., (2014) findings indicated that customers' brand preference can be enhanced by their perceptions on CSR activities. This study confirms the above literature. Jones (2005), in making a business case for CSR, indicated that brand value enhancement is achieved through CSR activities. Doing CSR activities, according to David (1996), can improve the brand equity of firms.

H9: The higher the level of brand loyalty consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

This addressed RQ2. This hypothesis is supported in this context. This means that brand loyalty of Vodafone does guarantee that customers will invest to increase Vodafone's organisational brand value. Using the correlation matrix also indicates that brand loyalty leads to organisational brand value. Similarly, brand awareness, do not necessarily lead to customers supporting activities that increase or build organisational brand value from this study. The fact that customers are being bombarded with adverts to create awareness does not mean it will lead to customers supporting organisational brand value building efforts.

H10: The higher the level of brand knowledge consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase

This addressed RQ2. Lauritsen and Perks (2015) have indicated that brand value of firms is boosted when knowledge of CSR activities of firms is communicated. This thesis confirms this literature under this context. Haig (2003) once expressed the view that companies live or die on the strength of their brands. For decades, the value of a company was measured in terms of its buildings, land and tangible assets. It is only recently that we have realized that its value lies outside, more precisely in the minds of potential customers who decide if they will buy a product based on how they view the brand; and companies now believe that the brand is their most important asset (Kapferer, 2008).

H11: The higher the level of brand position consumers have in the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase.

This addressed RQ2. De Chernatony (1999) established that communication gaps occur if the brand values are not communicated in a consistent manner. This can have a negative impact on consumers' evaluation of the brand where customers perceive the brand to lack quality (Grönroos, 2007). This could also have significant impact on sales performance, where customers would rather purchase from rivals that have a better-perceived brand image. The lack of consistency can occur by failed brand positioning, where companies do not communicate the same characteristics that the brand stands for. This means that the organisational brand value is affected by the brand position consumers have. Brown and Dacin (1997) found CSR associations may have a positive impact on customers' responses to products. CSR can affect the position of a brand in consumers' minds. This implies that the value of firms can be positively affected since their product is being affected positively by CSR activities.

H12: The higher the level of brand image and identity consumers has with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase.

This addressed RQ2. From the analysis, less than 1% of the variance in organisational brand value is explained by brand association/identity. Therefore it is true that the higher the level of brand image and identity consumers have in the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase. This means that brand image and identity of Vodafone do guarantee that customers will invest to increase Vodafone's organisational brand value.

According to Jung and Hecht (2004), individuals often choose brands that match their own identity and aspirations. This also indicates that emotions play a big part in the communication of brand identity (Floor, 2006). Because of this, businesses that are unaware of their target group and their characteristics can fail to deliver and communicate an attractive brand identity to consumers. Establishing a positive brand image requires the establishment of a strong, favourable and unique association to the brand. When brand images are strong, they can be used to enhance a person's self-image and appeal to stakeholders (Keller, 1993), and influence customers' purchase decisions, which in turn have an impact on the corporation's financial revenue (Munoz, 2004).

H13: The better the perception of quality consumers have with the brand, the higher the likelihood of an organisational brand value increase.

This addressed RQ1&RQ5. Kapferer (1997) argues that the value of a brand comes from its ability to gain an exclusive, positive and prominent meaning in the minds of a large number of consumers. According to McNaughton et al. (2002), market-based assets can create value for customers through a positive quality perception; the lowering of search costs; the matching of performance requirements

and price (Day, 1994); the improvement of service and trust; the reduction of risk; and the generation of innovative new offerings (Slater andNarver,2000). Ries and Trout (1986) argue that brand characteristics need to be positioned in the minds of prospective customers so they can instantly associate with their specific attributes.

Jones (2005), in making a business case for CSR, indicated that brand value enhancement is achieved through CSR activities. Doing CSR activities, according to David (1996), can improve brand equity of firms.

H14: The higher brand awareness customers have about a brand does not necessarily lead to organisational brand value increases. The fact that customer are aware of a product does not mean they will patronize the brand. In fact they may have a higher awareness of the poor brand performance which may lead to poor firm value. It is therefore important that brand managers raise the awareness of the positive experience that customers have with their brand. However, using the discriminant validity correlation matrix, there are indications that brand awareness can lead to organisational brand value. This underscores the importance of SEM, in that, under SEM all the variables for brand strength were simultaneously run and brand awareness was not significant, but brand knowledge and brand perceived quality and brand association were significant to determining organisational brand value. This implies that managers of Vodafone should focus more on brand knowledge, brand perceived quality and brand association, brand position, customer performance and brand loyalty strategies to increase organisational brand value (Lauritsen and Perks, 2015).

H15: The more customers are satisfied with a brand the greater likelihood of better organisational brand value. When brand image is good, it can be used to appeal to stakeholders (Keller, 1993), and influence customers' purchase decisions, which in turn have an impact on the corporation's financial revenue (Munoz, 2004).

8.5 RQ2 Discussion

What is the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value?

H3: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand association

H3 was supported. CSR can help brand identity influence, including values, traits and objectives (Curras-Perez et al., 2009). With this knowledge, CSR may be used to induce feelings that enhance consumer trust and ultimately make a brand more attractive. This research confirms the explicit contribution of CSR towards customers and associations and towards brands and intentions in the context of the telecommunications industry.

The findings suggest that telecommunications companies should take great care to prepare their CSR initiatives and include them in their marketing plans in order to improve customer loyalty intentions. A study done by Melo and Galan (2011) confirms CSR as a valid source of intangible competitive advantage by analysing the impact of CSR on brand value. Similarly, García et al. (2009) also argue that customers are attracted towards their firms' CSR activities and that positive perception creates better evaluations of service performance.

Furthermore, Khan, Furgerson and Perez (2015) recognise CSR as a multidimensional construct that serves as a direct determinant of perceived service quality, trust, repurchase and word of mouth (WOM) intentions. In this way, CSR can enhance organisational brand value and customer trust. The right fit between a brand and CSR activity could potentially provide for a value-based connection, relying on customers being attracted by the value behind the product (Kaikati andAhluwalia, 2010). Corporations increasingly integrate CSR programmes into their business strategies in an effort to generate branding benefits (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).

8.6 RQ3 Discussion

What is the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the stakeholder value of organisations?

From the qualitative interview responses, most respondents indicated that CSR practice is prominent in the Vodafone Ghana Ltd (Case organisation) and referred to Vodafone Health line on TV.

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between CSR and brands value

CSR is moving rapidly from a conceptual study into implementation and the evaluation of CSR initiatives at individual companies. To strengthen premium customers' brand preference, repurchase intention and loyalty level to the company, one method for a business is to embrace significant CSR commitment and implementation (Liu, Wong, Rongwei and Tseng, 2014). CSR may be the only solution to sustain brands and achieve brand equity status (Riaz, 2010). This may be the way for the future stakeholder value creation. Berrone et al. (2007) assert that, through stakeholder satisfaction, CSR would lead to enhanced performance because it is prone to create such intangible assets in terms of image and reputation. Linking CSR to organisational brand value, indicative from the SEM analysis, 54% of the variation in organisational brand value is explained by CSR activities. According to Wang (2010), managers can increase brand equity by using corporate social responsibility as a strategic tool for positioning differentiation. Scharf et al. (2012) confirmed that there is a positive correlation between CSR actions and brand strengthening.

8.7 RQ4 Discussion

Do customers and the public prefer some CSR activities to others?

H2: The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the customer performance

CSR is said to improve the company's profitability and financial performance (Van der Laan et al., 2008; Rufet al., 2001), and create customer loyalty (Mandhachitara and Poolthong, 2011). The results confirm the literature above. Here, customer performance is equated to customer loyalty and company profitability; and financial performance can also be an indicator of customer performance. Kolodinsky et al. (2010) found that customers' positive attitudes toward corporate social activities could affect their perceptions of and behaviours toward brands. Moreover, the SEM analysis on the type of CSR activities and their contribution to overall CSR effect, pointed out that health related activities contributed the most to CSR.

8.8 RQ5 Discussion

What are the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries?

Most qualitative interview respondents agreed that culture is one of the most important factors that determine business strategy and therefore, has some level of influence on CSR activities. Most of the respondents agreed that the needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities do influence the rating of CSR activities and the very few remaining were undecided. Lastly, their opinion about CSR activities in Africa against the West and the West against Africa was that Western companies undertake CSR in a more proactive manner than African companies, raising the question as to whether cultural difference between the Western world and Africa explains the difference in CSR practice of the two worlds. Torres et al. (2012) indicated that global brands that follow local social responsibility policies in communities obtain strong positive benefits through the generation of brand equity, enhancing the positive effects of CSR toward other stakeholders, particularly customers. Therefore, for managers of global brands, in order to generate brand value, it is particularly effective to combine global strategies with the need to satisfy the interests of local communities.

8.9 Discussion of Employees Data Analysis and Managerial Implications

The results as indicated from the employees pointed out that they believe that Vodafone CSR activities add value to the brand. Employees also showed their willingness to recommend their organisation to friends and relations as well as buy Vodafone shares. Vodafone workers have confidence in the brand and indicated that the brand has a great future. This is something Vodafone management can take advantage of to develop strategies to make employees brand ambassadors. CSR health activities had

the highest mean scores for the thirteen variables. This implies that employees have great confidence in Vodafone's CSR health programme and management can take advantage of this and develop employees' voluntary CSR programme, which focus on CSR health programmes. It also implies that of all the CSR activities, CSR Health is the one that employees see to be very relevant to their goals.

Employees' evaluation of employees' performance had the overall lowest mean scores. It was the lowest of all the thirteen (13) variables assessed. Furthermore, the lowest mean score for all sixty-five (65) single items was under employees performance, which was 3.92, Vodafone ensures that there are policies against all forms of discrimination. Management of Vodafone will have to improve on their education on discrimination. This implies that Vodafone employees think that management is not dealing with issues of discrimination. The single item with the highest mean score was (env4=6.96) 'Vodafone service provider uses environmentally friendly packaging'. Hence, one can assume that employees will support CSR activities that bother on environment. Furthermore, in examining the strategic value of CSR in emerging economies, Rettab et al. (2009) found that CSR had a positive effect not only on financial performance but also on employee commitment and corporate reputation.

The single item with the second highest mean score was (pbq1=6.79) 'Vodafone products are of high quality'. Employees believe that Vodafone's products are of high quality and this can lead to they recommending products to friends and relations. Employees also scored low on a single item (ep1=4.31) which was Vodafone encourages me to develop real skills through training programmers'. This implies that employees do not see the opportunities for skills development and management will have to sit up in this area.

8.10 Business Considerations

Interestingly, employees consider Vodafone CSR activities more of a philanthropic responsibility than ethical. Rankings from the highest to lowest were: 4-Philanthopic; 3-Economic; 2-Legal responsibility; and 1-Ethical responsibility. This is typical of CSR practices in Africa. Western CSR practices will consider CSR activities in business more as economic and ethical rather than philanthropic and legal. This confirms the comparison of Western and non-western CSR practices by Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah (2013).

Employees, the human element of an enterprise, are a vital resource for strategy implementation (Lee and Miller, 1999). Today many employees have more requirements for an employer than the standard set of benefits. They are looking to be inspired and led. The individual employee wants to feel good about his or her employment choice. All things being equal; the employee will join the organization that is culturally and personally congruent with their values (Cooper and Wagman 2009). Many

companies use CSR as a way to burnish their image, generate brand equity, increase employee loyalty, promote wide-ranging policies, and labour rights. Many companies take a top-down approach in the formulation, execution and maintenance of their CSR programs, often mandating employee participation rather than soliciting them to get involved on their own terms. While an employee is an expensive resource for the corporation he/she is considered a valuable stakeholder (Bhattachary et al 2007). The value of the employee is in his/her competence. If an organisation does not treat employees well and promote responsibility towards them and society, it may risk losing competence. Davenport (2000), Waddock and Graves (1997) and Wood (1991) consider CSR initiatives towards employees as practices providing a family-friendly work environment; engaging in responsible human resource management; providing an equitable reward and wage system for employees; engaging in open and flexible communications with employees; and investing in employee development.

Cost leadership, marketing differentiation and innovative differentiation strategies are used by organisations to improve the commitment of their employees and include factors like a close community, good collaboration, employee loyalty and dedication, and job involvement initiatives. Additionally, the costs of having a high level of CSR are more than compensated by the benefits received in employee morale and productivity (Solomon and Hanson, 1985).

The negative externalities that influence society by poor management of employees can be directly identified. For example, if the employees strike, this affects society. Such influences not only need to be identified and measured but also need to be managed in such a way that the positive externalities are maximized and the negative externalities are minimized. From the evaluation of the analysis, a conceptual framework is hereby proposed, as presented in Figure 8.1.
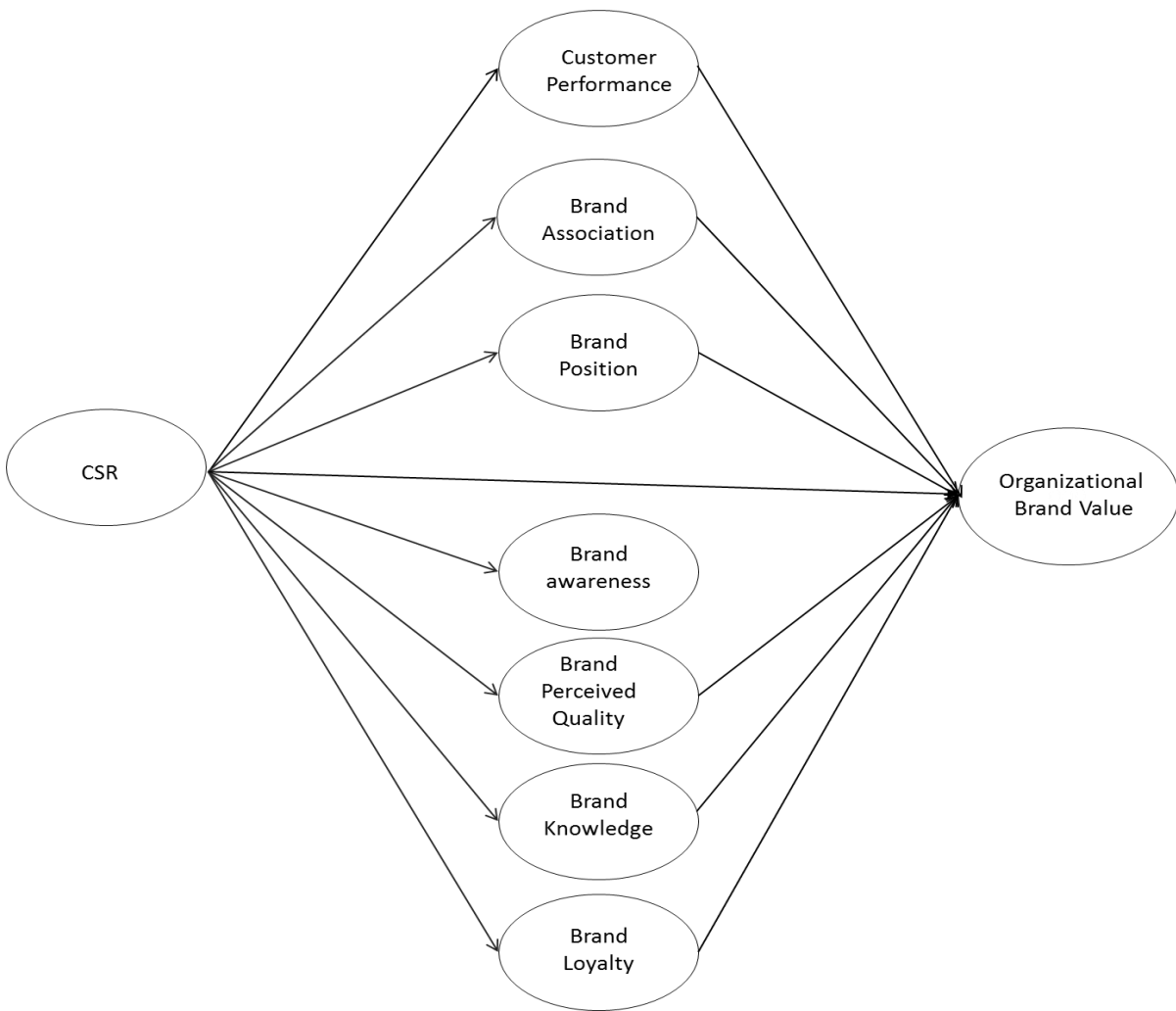
Figure 8.1: Proposed Conceptual Framework (Source: Author)

8.11 Explanation of the Proposed Conceptual Model for the Thesis

Figure 8.1 shows the final conceptual model linking CSR to organisational brand value through brand strength. In the model, CSR adds value to organisations through the mediating role of brand strength. All the dimensions of brand strength add value to organisational brand value using the correlation matrix. However when SEM is used and all the seven variables are simultaneously run, only brand knowledge, brand perceived quality and brand position significantly contributed to organisational brand value. The model above confirms that CSR contributes significantly to organisational brand value in the telecommunications industry in Ghana. The next chapter discusses the implications of the thesis findings, conclusions and recommendations for both academia and industry decision makers.

8.12 Summary of Chapter Eight

This chapter has sought to provide an understanding and appreciation of the context within which the study is being undertaken. It sought to summarise discuss the results for both qualitative and quantitative data analysis, addressing both qualitative and quantitative research questions and how they are linked. Analysis of the data, qualitative and quantitative reveal that, employees of Vodafone believe that Vodafone CSR activities add value to the brand and also showed a willingness to recommend their organisation to friends and relations as well as buy Vodafone shares. Fifteen hypotheses were tested on the relationship between CSR, brand strength and organisational brand value, but only one was not supported - which was "Brand awareness has a positive and significant relationship with organisational brand". A proposed conceptual model drawn up from the analysed data contends that CSR contributes significantly to organisational brand value in the telecommunications industry in Ghana.

IMPLICATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 Main Thrust of the Study

The main aim of this thesis is to investigate how CSR activities can be used as a brand building tool to increase organisational brand value. This aim was sought and attained by investigating the following research questions:

1. Does CSR aid in corporate brand building?
2. What is the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value?
3. What are the state and relevance of CSR activities in improving the stakeholder value of organisations?
4. Do customers and the public prefer some CSR activities to others?
5. What are the causes of the differences between CSR activities in Ghana and Western countries?

9.2 Summary of Main Findings of the Study

1. There is a positive significant relationship between combined CSR and brand strength

The better the perception of CSR activities of an organisation, the better the brand strength, that is, perception, position, image, loyalty and relationship and customer performance. The results revealed a positive significant relationship between combined CSR (made up of social, ethical, health, environment, and education) and brand strength (made up of customer performance, brand association, brand position, brand awareness, brand perceived quality, brand knowledge and brand loyalty). Among the dimensions of brand strength, brand knowledge is the best explained by CSR activities (that is about 88% of the variance in brand knowledge is explained by the CSR practices of Vodafone). This is followed by brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand association, brand loyalty, brand position and customer performance respectively: meaning CSR contributes towards brand strength. The study also revealed that different types of CSR activity receive different responses from customers. Health related CSR activity is the most appreciated of all the five types of CSR followed by CSR Education. There is a positive and significant relationship between CSR and organisational brand value.

2. Better CSR activities lead to higher organisational brand value increases

The study reveals further that there is a positive relationship between brand knowledge, brand position and perceived quality and organisational brand value.

This implies that CSR activities of organisations in the telecommunications industry in Ghana do not necessarily lead to brand support from customers. Hence, organisations cannot hide behind CSR activities while they offer poor quality service to build brands. The quality of organisations' offerings influences the support from customers for the brand. Hence, better CSR activities lead to higher organisational brand value increases.

3. Brand awareness do not necessarily lead to customer support for brand value building

Significant amongst the findings is the fact that brand awareness do not necessarily lead to customer support of brand building efforts that lead to an increase in organisational brand value.

4. **CSR Practices in Africa Differ from Western**

Vodafone employees consider CSR activities more as philanthropic responsibilities than ethical. Ranking from the highest to lowest: 4 - Philanthropic, 3 - Economic, 2 - Legal responsibility and 1 - Ethical responsibilities. This is typical of CSR practices in Africa. Western CSR practices will consider CSR activities in business more as economic and ethical than philanthropic and legal.

9.3 Theoretical Contribution and Relevance of Theoretical Findings

The literature has revealed the benefits to be gained from effective CSR practices. CSR plays a very important role in attracting stakeholders and stakeholder confidence to companies as discussed in Chapter 2. The study supported the argument that there is a positive relationship between CSR and organisational brand values of firms in Ghana. In addition, the data collection technique, method of analysis and development of a new CSR-brand strength-organisational brand values framework is new in the area of CSR and brand building in Ghana. The findings of this study are in agreement with the literature identified from different countries. This study related to developing countries such as Ghana.

There have been few studies describing the development of a CSR framework in developing countries. However, as described in Chapter 3, Rais and Goedegebuure (2009) suggested a framework for Indonesia that was developed according to stakeholder theory and is consistent with the CSR-brand strength-organisational brand value framework developed in this study. In addition, Davenport (2000) and Ruf et al. (2001) developed CSR frameworks using stakeholder relationships. This study used the stakeholder theory as one of the main conceptual frameworks. As described in Chapter 2, CSR practices differ from country to country and culture to culture (Chambers et al., 2003; Crane and Matten, 2004). This study confirmed the differences towards CSR activities by people in developed economies and developing economies and is consistent with the literature.

This came to light from interviews with employees of Vodafone in Ghana. Employees consider Vodafone CSR activities more as philanthropic responsibilities than ethical. Western CSR practices will consider CSR activities in business more as economic and ethical than philanthropic and legal. This confirms the comparison of Western and non-Western CSR practices by Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah (2013).

A third contribution is the study of the characteristics of CSR initiatives in environments different from the ones already generally studied, like the USA or the European Union (EU).

The latter is of particular importance, considering the growing significance of developing and emerging markets in the world's economy (Fornes, 2012). The scholarly research of CSR frameworks in developing and emerging markets is scarce (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). The proposed and empirically tested conceptual framework developed from this study makes a good contribution to CSR literature in Africa. This changing environment presents different challenges for firms operating in these countries which have been widely documented in the literature (Filatotchev et al., 2003; Fornes, 2009; Fornes and Butt-Philip, 2011; Fornes and Cardoza, 2009; Guillen, 2000; Hoskisson et al., 2000; Khanna and Palepu, 2000; Peng, 2003; Williamson et al., 2013).

To this, Wright et al. (2005, p. 2) added that developing and emerging markets are a new context in which to understand the relative strengths and weaknesses of new concepts and perspectives as used in conventional theory. In fact, most of the works presented above suggest that MNCs operating in these countries develop a set of specific advantages to cope with a changing environment and a relatively low development of local markets. In this context, a debate on the strengths and weaknesses of CSR frameworks and initiatives of MNCs operating in developing and emerging markets seems necessary.

The CSR-brand strength-organisational brand value framework developed in this study has confirmed that CSR activities contribute to stakeholder value. A number of the investigations into the relationship between CSR and employees has been through employee perceptions towards a company (Albinger and Freeman, 2000; Greening and Turban, 2000; Backhaus et al., 2002). The employee component for this study contained items addressing support of employees and concern about employee well-being by Vodafone Gh Ltd.

9.4 Results and Managerial Implications

Many benefits have been highlighted by the researchers as increasing market values (Aupperle et al., 1985; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000), reducing risk (Moore, 2001), employee motivation (Turban and Greening, 1997), increasing loyalty and improving corporate reputation (Maignan et al., 1999).

CSR in the developing countries is still largely philanthropic in nature and is a voluntary service provided by companies. Apart from these philanthropic activities, as described in Carroll (1991), the legal responsibilities and discretionary activities as well as the economic responsibilities are rated low by employees and customers alike.

Moreover, the cause of the CSR activity should be important for consumers. Hence, brand managers should seek a cause or problem, which consumers see as important or even necessary to deal with. In this case, customers indicated health related CSR activities to be the most cherished and hence this can guide CSR strategy formulation and implementation. If this is given, the brand's engagement will be appreciated by consumers and lead to positive outcomes for the brand. Therefore, a recommended CSR implementation is to support a cause that fits to the brand and is of importance to today's consumers. Also, while stakeholder theorists have generally proposed some generalised processes for engagement with stakeholders (Freeman, 1984; Werther and Chandler, 2005) no process has been explored in the literature about evaluating these priorities for organisations (Polonsky and Scott, 2005). As such, research should be undertaken to better understand how organisations make assessments about how they strategically use CSR in their corporate branding efforts and philosophies.

Further research should investigate why some variables like brand awareness do not significantly affect organisational brand value in Ghana when all variables of brand strength are held to control each other.

9.5 Conclusions

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has, over the past years, gained increased awareness in society and is interesting to stakeholders: accordingly it has attained prominence on the corporate and organisational brand value building agenda. A challenge for marketers and companies is to build a business case for CSR, defending the new investments with positive payback to the company. Even though the understanding of CSR is fundamental to the long-term survival of companies and their competitive environment in general, many companies today still view CSR as an isolated costly activity, de-coupled from core business. The perception of CSR in the business world has transformed from the past view of CSR as a costly philanthropy, practised to satisfy a few minor stakeholder groups such as NGOs and activists carried out by a small selection of companies.

In Africa, CSR is perceived by the public more as a philanthropic activity than an ethical one. Towards the current view of CSR as a potentially beneficial add-on to business operations, it should be de-coupled from core strategies to aid its implementation to live up to the requirements and expectations

of companies, government, NGO's and a growing group of customers. The likely future view of corporate responsibility is seeing CSR as integrated in the core brand value proposition, the corporate brand and a vital part of the building of sustainable competitive advantage, creating strategic benefits and shared value to the company and all of its stakeholders.

The study confirms that there is a positive relationship between CSR and organisational brand value. In other words, CSR activities, especially health related CSR activities, can motivate customers to support the brand building efforts of Vodafone. The following points should be considered when comparing the results of this study with those reported in the literature. This study compared CSR and organisational brand value, and showed that: health-related CSR activities had a significant (and the highest) relationship to organisational brand value, while environment-related CSR activities showed the lowest relationship with organisational brand value increases. The study also points out that customers prefer particular CSR activities to others and hence marketing strategies using CSR should be guided by this revelation if organisations want their brand building efforts to be supported by their customers.

The study reveals further that there is a positive relationship between brand knowledge, brand position and perceived quality and organisational brand value. This implies that CSR activities of organisations in the telecommunications industry in Ghana do not necessarily lead to brand support from customers. Hence, organisations cannot hide behind CSR activities while they offer poor quality service to build brands. The quality of organisations' offerings influences the support from customers for the brand. Hence, better CSR activities leads to higher organisational brand value increases.

Significant amongst the findings is the fact that brand loyalty and brand association do not necessarily lead to customer support of brand building efforts that lead to an increase in organisational brand value. This study empirically measured CSR using an adapted scale based upon Turker's (2009) CSR scale and a modified brand equity (brand strength) by Yoo and Donthu (2001), which included customer performance and brand position. The method used was a mall-intercept survey undertaken in Vodafone call centres in Accra and Kumasi in Ghana, with a total of 1118 qualifying questionnaires collected. The data analysis was a multivariate method composed of a confirmatory factor analysis, independent *t*-test and SEM.

9.6 Recommendations

The results indicated that CSR activities, brand strength and organisational brand value have various relationships: positive, negative and non-significant. Organisations implement their CSR activities for

different reasons. Both the positive and negative relationships encourage companies to implement the relevant CSR activities, while a non-significant relationship discourages the implementation of these activities. However, the major reasons why companies implement these CSR activities are customer retention through better brand perception, management attitudes, government support, employee motivations, and organisational brand value increase. CSR is a win-win strategy because its benefit goes to both organisation and society as was indicated by many respondents interviewed.

From the findings of this research, advice and recommendations can be given to brand managers intending to use CSR as a strategic tool. It can be said that the supported cause should fit to the brand, as this will strengthen the positive outcomes for the brand and organisational brand value. This suggestion can be achieved when the cause fits to the organisation branding strategies, values and products or services as well as to the product functions.

Moreover, findings from this study points to the fact that specific CSR activity has different effects on customer perception, and hence the perception of firms' marketing activities in the telecommunications industry in Ghana. Directors of organisations must therefore be guided by these findings if they want to get value for money for their CSR investments.

9.7 Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were identified as a consequence of the methodologies employed in this study:

1. The number of participants in the qualitative interviews was limited to 23 respondents. This was due to some respondents not willing to complete the interviews as well as poor quality of recorded data.

2. The CSR data for the estimation of issues in this study were based largely on Vodafone customers and employees. The selection of the organisation did not represent all the stakeholders' perspectives in the country; hence, the results were limited to the information obtained from these two data sources.

3. The scope of the study was limited to the telecommunications industry in Ghana. The study findings might have been different if a larger sample of listed companies in Ghana and in other West African countries had been included and the study period had been extended.

9.8 Discussion of Future Research

During the process of writing this thesis, some ideas have surfaced. In this last chapter, the researcher suggests different directions for future research within the field of strategic CSR and organisational brand value management. Since this thesis is based on a single case company in the

telecommunications industry of Ghana, one suggestion for future research is to conduct a multiple case study, where the relevance and usefulness of the CSR activities in branding efforts are tested in companies within different contexts, but with the common aim of developing and increasing organisational brand value. Furthermore, it would be relevant to investigate whether various contextual factors such as industry conditions, company resources and government regulations affect companies' ability to work strategically with CSR.

In this thesis, it is assumed that strategically integrated CSR strengthens the position of the company and enhances the organisational brand value of firms in good as well as in bad times such as worldwide financial crisis. However, most approaches to CSR agree on the fact that profit is the basic prerequisite for doing business in socially responsible ways. Hence, it would be interesting to gather empirical evidence on what implications a financial crisis has for CSR activities and its effects on organisational brand value in Africa: if decreased profits during financial crises affect the CSR engagement in Africa, how will it affect the brand strength and reputation and value of the firm in Africa?

When CSR engagements move from being decoupled from core business practices towards being an integrated element in the overall business strategy, demand is put on managers' knowledge and understanding of sustainable business and CSR. Hence, another research perspective that could be further investigated is what implications the integration of CSR in companies' core business practises and in organisational brand value building efforts has for future managers and their leadership in modern companies in Africa.

As the concept of corporate social responsibility is relatively new in Ghana, many people may have uncertain feelings of what socially responsible behaviour really means. A misunderstanding of the concept might have led to wrong perceptions and attitudes. This researcher concedes that the questions presented by Likert scale might have led the respondents to particular answers due to acquiescence, and social desirability bias.

For future research, it is recommended that a longitudinal study be adopted. This may provide deeper insight into the relationship between CSR and organisational brand value, in particular the impact of CSR on brand equity, individual variables, employee attraction, motivation and retention, customer attraction and loyalty, reputation, access to capital, and financial performance. A longitudinal study would allow deeper assessment of the directionality of the relationship between CSR and the above business benefits. In addition, to provide a more detailed understanding of the impact of CSR future research may study all relevant stakeholders individually such as government, shareholders, managers

and directors. In addition, comparative studies between firms could be done on the impact of CSR on customer attraction and brand equity in the telecommunications industry in Ghana.

A study on CSR and organisational brand equity can also be done in the other industries in Ghana such as manufacturing, banking and education. Lastly, it was noted earlier that a limitation of this research is the focus on a single country. Future research may include other countries, which would allow for comparison between countries and regions in Africa.

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APPENDIX I
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION
Vodafone Customers Questionnaire

This questionnaire is intended to find out how CSR activities can be used in building brands in the telecommunications industry in Ghana. This research is being undertaken as part of my PhD qualification. Participation is voluntary and completion of this questionnaire will be highly appreciated. There is no right or wrong answers. The accuracy of results will be dependent on how honestly you answer these questions. All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence. CSR means Corporate Social Responsibility. CSR is a process with the aim to embrace responsibility for a company's actions and encourage a positive impact through its activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities, stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere who may also be considered stakeholders.

Please indicate how you agree or disagree with the following statements.

SA − strongly agree=7, *A* − agree=6, *FA* − fairly agree=5, *N* − neutral=4, *FD* − fairly disagree=3, *D* − disagree=2, *SD* − strongly disagree=1

No.	Question/ Statement	SD	D	FD	N	FA	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	**CSR Social/Community service**							
A	Vodafone is committed to donating to charity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone CSR also means giving back to the society and helping people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Poor CSR activity can have a negative impact on organisational brand value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone consults the community before embarking on CSR activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone has recruitment policies that favour the local communities in which it operates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	**Ethical CSR Activities**							
A	Vodafone practises ethical business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	As far as I know Vodafone does not encourage child labour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C	Vodafone is transparent to stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone values female employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone adverts are ethical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	**CSR Health Activities**							
A	Vodafone CSR activity Health line TV show is one of the best CSR programmes in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone should continue the Health line TV show	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	CSR programmes organized by Vodafone contribute to brand building	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone should team up with health organisations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone should help with rural health in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	**CSR Environmental Activities**							
A	Vodafone is involved in waste reduction in the society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone is involved in reduction of air pollution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone considers environmental impact when developing new products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone service provider uses environmentally friendly packaging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	CSR means environmentally responsible and green	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	**CSR Education**							
A	Vodafone should communicate its CSR activities through all available channels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	I heard of Vodafone CSR activities through TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	CSR activities should be communicated to all stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone should give more scholarships to needy students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone should build schools for communities in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	**Customers performance**							
A	Vodafone resolves customer complaints in a timely manner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone supplies clear and accurate information and labelling about their products and services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C	Vodafone is committed to providing value to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	CSR means quality products and services and fair price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	CSR means a company should be customer oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	**Brand Association/ Identity**							
A	The higher the level of brand image the higher the organisational brand value increases	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Profit maximization is the main driver of Vodafone CSR activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone CSR raises the profile of the brand in a consumer's mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I easily identify with Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	I want to be associated with Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	**Brand Position/Relationship**							
A	Vodafone occupies a good position amongst network providers in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone offers value for money compared with other brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone's claim to be the most reliable network in Ghana is true	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I like my relationship with Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	I would like to continue the relationship with Vodafor brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	**Brand Awareness**							
A	I am aware of Vodafone products and services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone provides full and accurate information about its products to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	I can recall Vodafone adverts easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I can recognize Vodafone brand among other telecommunication products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone CSR creates brand awareness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	**Brand Perceived Quality**							
A	Vodafone products are of high quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone has good service quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C	I am willing to pay more for products from companies which practise more CSR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I like the professionalism of Vodafone staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone stands for quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11	**Brand Knowledge**							
A	I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of brands that practise CSR activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone is a well known brand in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone is known for reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Red stands for Vodafone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone CSR makes the brand well known	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	**Brand Loyalty**							
A	Vodafone CSR activities do affect my choice of brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	If other networks provide the same service as Vodafone I will still choose Vodafone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone CSR activities increased the level of trust I have in the brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	If Vodafone price is slightly higher than other brands, I will still choose Vodafone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone brands perform well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	**Organisational Brand Value**							
A	Vodafone CSR activities add values to the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	I am willing to buy shares in Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	I will recommend relations to invest in Vodafone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone brand has a great future in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone share value is likely to increase in future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Gender: Male /Female

Status: Single/Married

Educational background: SSS / O'level / A'level/ Diploma / Degree / Masters

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Vodafone Employees Questionnaire

This questionnaire is intended to find out how CSR activities can be used in building brands in the telecommunications industry in Ghana. This research is being undertaken as part of my PhD qualification. Participation is voluntary and completion of this questionnaire will be highly appreciated. There is no right or wrong answers. The accuracy of results will be dependent on how honestly you answer these questions. All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence. CSR means Corporate Social Responsibility. CSR is a process with the aim to embrace responsibility for a company's actions and encourage a positive impact through its activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities, stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere who may also be considered stakeholders.

Please indicate how you agree or disagree with the following statements.

SA – strongly agree=7, *A* – agree=6, *FA* – fairly agree=5, *N* – neutral=4, *FD* – fairly disagree=3, *D* – disagree=2, *SD* – strongly disagree=1

No.	Question/ Statement	SD	D	FD	N	FA	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	**Social/Community service**							
A	Vodafone is committed to donating to charity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone CSR also means giving back to the society and helping people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Poor CSR activity can have a negative impact on organisational brand value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone consults the community before embarking CSR activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone has recruitment policies that favour the local communities in which it operates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	**Ethical CSR Activities**							
A	Vodafone practises ethical business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	As far as I know Vodafone do not encourage child labour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C	Vodafone is transparent to stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone values female employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone adverts are ethical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	**CSR Health Activities**							
A	Vodafone CSR activity Health line TV show is one of the best CSR programmes in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone should continue the Health line TV show	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	CSR programme organized by Vodafone contribute to brand building	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone should team up with health organisations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone should help with rural health in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4	**Environmental Activities**							
A	Vodafone is involved in waste reduction in the society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone is involved in reduction of air pollution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone considers environmental impact when developing new products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone service provider uses environmentally friendly packaging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	CSR means environmentally responsible and green	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	**Education**							
A	Vodafone should communicate its CSR activities through all available channels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	I heard of Vodafone CSR activities through TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	CSR activities should be communicated to all stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone should give more scholarships to needy students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone should build schools for communities in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	**Employees performance**							
A	Vodafone encourages me to develop real skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	through training programmes							
B	Vodafone ensures that there are policies against all forms of discrimination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone Management consults employees in decision making	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Vodafone is committed to the health and safety of employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	Vodafone ensures a work/life balance among employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	**Brand Association**							
A	The higher the level of brand image the higher the organizational brand value increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Profit maximization is the main driver of Vodafone CSR activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone CSR raise the profile of the brand in the consumer's mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I easily identify with Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	I want to be associated with Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	**Brand Position/Relationship**							
A	Vodafone occupies a good position amongst network providers in Ghana	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone offers value for money compared with other brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Vodafone claim to be the most reliable network in Ghana is true	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I like the relationship with Vodafone brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	I would like to continue the relationship with Vodafon brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	**Brand Awareness**							
A	I am aware of Vodafone products and services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Vodafone provides full and accurate information about its products to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	I can recall Vodafone adverts easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	I can recognize Vodafone brand among other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	telecommunication products							
E	Vodafone CSR creates brand awareness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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E	Vodafone share value is likely to increase in future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Rank these business considerations in order of importance. (4 being the most important and 1 being the least important)

Legal responsibility   1   2   3   4
Economic responsibility   1   2   3   4
Ethical responsibility   1   2   3   4
Philanthropic responsibility 1   2   3   4

15. What are some of the CSR activities outlined for employees?

16. Which of the CSR theories is applied/implemented by this company?

17. Which area of social responsibility is more significant to your company?

18. What are some of the benefits you derive from CSR activities as a stakeholder?

Gender: Male /Female

Status: Single/Married

Educational background: SSS/O'level / A'level / Diploma / Degree / Masters

Age: 18-25; 26-35; 36-45; 46-55; 56-65; >65

APPENDIX III

Qualitative Interview Guide Used

Interview Preparation Checklist

- Questions were prepared with reference to selection criteria.
- Timing of interviews was set with consideration to candidate confidentiality.
- Seating arrangements were selected by respondents to make the candidate feel at ease.
- Respondent were told of recordings.
- All respondents who were approached were told of the purpose of the interview and were assured of confidentiality.

Interview Opening

- Introduction was done politely (including position title and relationship to the role).
- Provided a brief overview of the content of the questions.
- Advised the respondents that there will be an opportunity to ask questions at the end of the interview.

Interview Close

Respondents were thanked and once again assured of data confidentiality. Researcher then gave his contact number and email address and sought to collect contacts from respondents.

Questions Used

Q1   Understanding of CSR

What is your understanding of Corporate Social Responsibility?

Q2 CSR and telecommunications companies in Ghana

What can you say about CSR activities of telecommunications companies in Ghana?

Q3 CSR activities and choice of brands

Will CSR activities of any company affect your choice of company Brand?

Q4 CSR strategy to build brands

Is CSR a strategy to build brand by the telecommunications companies in Ghana?

Question was raised as to why logos and companies' colours are projected so much and a great deal of media hype seen in the CSR activities of companies in Ghana.

Q5 Culture and CSR activities in Ghana

How does African culture affect CSR practice?

Q6 CSR activities and the needs of beneficiaries determining CSR rating

Does meeting the needs of beneficiaries of CSR activities influence their rating of CSR activities?

Q7 CSR activities in Africa against the West and the West against Africa

How do you compare CSR activities in Ghana and Africa with Western countries?

This question was aimed at finding out respondents perceptions about CSR practices in Africa compared to Western countries.