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The Role of Corporate Citizenship Values in Promoting Corporate Social Performance: Towards a Conceptual Model and a Research Agenda

Abstract

Performance of corporations, under the stakeholder approach, is not measured in financial terms only; modern corporations have significant responsibilities beyond those to their shareholders. A value-laden concept such as sustainable construction, which emerges from a multi-stakeholder perspective, involves participation of the whole supply chain and incorporates the notion of corporate social responsibility (CSR). Creating sustainable habitats has societal as well as economic implications. While the UK government's Department of Trade and Industry is promoting CSR as a business contribution to sustainable development, many have argued that corporate citizenship takes shape at the point of government failure in the facilitation of citizen's rights. Recent research demonstrates varying degrees of corporate social performance (CSP) in different sectors and there are differing relationships between CSP and innovation in the real estate and construction sectors. A conceptual model linking corporate citizenship values (CCV) and CSP through corporate behaviour (B_{CORP}) from a CSR and stakeholder theory perspective is developed. The proposed model presents avenues for future research and represents a significant first step towards modelling the important link between CCV and CSP.

Keywords: corporate social performance (CSP), corporate social responsibility (CSR), stakeholder theory

Introduction

Today, provision of our habitats is subject to diverse interests and pressures in the environment which endeavour to shape urban planning objectives, construction processes and products. Such interests extend beyond the immediate project participants and corporate businesses to include many diverse stakeholders, as epitomised in construction procurement delivered by project coalitions with changing memberships (e.g., Tavistock, 1966; Egan, 1998) and evolving goals, dependent on shifting power structures which are rife with (potential) opportunism (Williamson and Maston, 1999).

Stakeholders drive the formation of corporate values, goals, and thus, project and project management performance goals and targets, as a result of their power disposition (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997; Walker, Bourne and Shelley, 2008; Jamali, 2008). The competing, and sometimes conflicting, values of stakeholders (Olander and Landin, 2005; Sweeney and Coughlan, 2008) drive organisations to act or behave in ways which are dependent on the salience and urgency of the demands from stakeholders and the power those stakeholders wield (Mitchell, *et al.*, 1997).

The objectives of this paper are first, to develop a conceptual model linking corporate citizenship values (CCV) and corporate social performance (CSP) through corporate behaviour (B_{CORP}) from a corporate social responsibility (CSR) and stakeholder theory perspective. The second objective, then, is to propose avenues for future research based on the model.

In the sections which follow, we advance the CCV to CSP model by first drawing on CSR and stakeholder theory as the theoretical underpinning of CCV, B_{CORP} and CSP concepts. The model is then presented and the inter-relationships among the different

concepts explained. A discussion of the model is offered drawing on sustainable development and construction as value-laden concepts and a research agenda is outlined.

Development of Conceptual Model of CCV to CSP

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Stakeholder Theory

The concept of CSR arose in the 1950s. A much cited model is that developed by Carroll (1979) comprising four component responsibilities – economic (profitability), legal (law-abiding), ethical, and philanthropic (what society desires). CSR reflects social expectations in an organisation's environment which requires the organisation to acknowledge that it operates within a network of stakeholders in which the organisation acts as a constellation of converging, competing and interacting interests, each with intrinsic value (Maon, Lindgreen and Swaen, 2010; Martin, 2002). Maon et al (2010, p. 23) therefore characterise CSR as a “(1) a stakeholder oriented construct which concerns (2) the voluntary commitments of an organisation pertaining to (3) issues extending inside and beyond the boundaries of the organisation and (4) that are driven by the organisation's understanding and acknowledgement of its moral responsibilities regarding the impacts of its activities and processes on society”. Traditionally, CSR has focused outward from the organisation and concerns the actions of a corporation towards the macro society. Macromotives, attributes which characterise feelings and beliefs about others with whom exchanges occur, determine the potential for and operation of exchanges. Relations between corporations and society are “interwoven rather than being distinct entities” (Wood, 1991). Consequently, expectations of society impact on CSR.

Stakeholder theory, with its descriptive accuracy, instrumental power and normative validity (Donalson and Preston 1995) has emerged in various forms as crucial for understanding and describing the structures and dimensions of business and societal relationships captured within the CSR concept (Carroll 1993; Jamali, 2008). Stakeholder theory took shape during the mid 1980s (Freeman, 1984; Freeman and Reed, 1983) with the acknowledgement of the emerging web of the external stakeholders (e.g. local communities and environment) across increasingly permeable organisational boundaries (Simmons, 2004).

Stakeholder theory broadens the basis of organisations by adopting a reformist stance towards capitalism (Kaler, 2009). Thus, the duty of organisations, via their managers, extends from exclusive focus on stockholders/shareholders to encompass the array of internal and external, direct and indirect stakeholders (Stieb, 2009). Freeman (1984:46) defines stakeholders as ‘...any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of organisation’s objectives’. That concept may be extended to be any individual, group or organisation which is, or may be, affected by the actions, or potential actions, of the subject organisation; that subject organisation may be a project. By addressing activities of the subject organisation, the array of potential stakeholders is vast and includes those who may benefit and those who may lose; further, persons may be members of more than one stakeholder. Thus, a practical issue concerns determination of boundaries for which stakeholders to include in evaluations (as discussed by, e.g. Stieb, 2009; Kaler, 2009).

Some argue that the stakeholder approach makes commercial sense by allowing the corporation to maximize shareholder wealth, while also increasing total value added

(Hawkins, 2006; Phillips, Freeman and Wicks, 2003; Wallace, 2003). This view therefore questions the separation thesis that suggests business is about creating “economic” value with ethics perhaps serving as a side constraint (Jones, Wicks and Freeman, 2001). For instance, Uhlener, van Goor-Balk and Masurel (2004) utilise a stakeholder approach in defining CSR effectiveness as the ability to satisfy a wide range of constituents within/outside the corporation. Stakeholder theory attempts to operationalise corporate responsibilities by identifying specific constituencies (e.g. Jamali, 2008) and analysing the relationships of the corporation to these societal groups. It is argued that the corporation has a responsibility to all those groups which may be harmed by, or take benefit from, the corporation’s activities and/or whose rights may be affected by the corporation (Evan and Freeman, 1993).

Mitchell et al., (19997) propose three attributes of which stakeholders must possess at least one - power to influence the organisation, legitimacy of relationship with the organisation and urgency of stakeholder’s claim on the organisation. The possession of attributes, then operate to determine the salience which managers attach to each stakeholder and thus, the influence which the stakeholder has. They note that the attributes of stakeholders are variable, are socially constructed and that exercising of the attributes is not necessarily conscious or wilful. Hence, stakeholder impact may be potential (or latent) as well as actual. Organisations are subject to operational parameters and constraints imposed in various ways – by law, by resource limitations, by bounded rationality in decision making, and by moral/ethical considerations. In determining the boundary of which stakeholders to accommodate, their attributes and salience serve to locate the boundary. Primary stakeholders are essential for survival of the organisation

while secondary stakeholders are all others (Clarkson, 1995; Matcalfe, 1988). Thus, Kaler (2009) classifies shareholders and employees as primary stakeholders, and customers, suppliers and lenders as secondary based around their contribution and risk-bearing. For construction, the secondary category may be refined to include 'clients' (commissioners, owners, users/operators of the completed projects), sub-contractors and plant hire firms and the array of finance providers; other stakeholders are likely to feature on occasions (possibly transiently in the project's life cycle). Indeed, Boutin-Dufresne and Savaria (2004) argue that the nature of activities in certain industries is likely to make organisations in those industries more socially responsible while Matten and Moon (2008) address the question of how and why CSR differs among countries, suggesting, for example, that historically CSR is more explicit in the USA than in Europe.

Kaler (2009) asserts that the rationale for adoption of the stakeholder approach is that it embodies '...a criterion of distributive justice' – the fairness principle of equity (e.g. Deutsch, 1975; Eckhoff, 1974).

Previously, the concept of maximising shareholders' value (Friedman, 1962) emphasised the role of management in the protection of the rights of its shareholders (Gregg, 2001) which is based on Property Rights Theory. The main problem with the shareholder approach is that excessive importance is placed on profit maximization in the short term and the importance attached to the other interest groups involved is nil. Therefore, stakeholder theory identifies societal groups to which a corporation has responsibilities and provides a basis for legitimising and prioritising stakeholder influence on corporate decisions, i.e., stakeholder theory operationalises CSR (Matten, Crane and Chapple, 2003).

Sweeney and Coughlan (2008) argue that ‘...CSR can be most practically explained by reference to stakeholder theory (citing Spence, Jeurissen and Rutherford, 2000; Vos, 2003; Jones, 2005). Indeed, Jones (1980) defined CSR as ‘...the notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups in society other than stockholders and go beyond that prescribed by law...’. such assertions are logical, given the common root of stakeholder theory and CSR in ethics. Corporate social responsibility (CSR1) is underpinned by corporate values (which relate to corporate citizenship for CSR1 to be present) and lead to corporate social responsiveness (CSR2) – organisational behaviour towards society (notably stakeholders) and, thence, corporate social performance (CSP) (Frederick, 1994). CSP may be analysed effectively through a framework of the management of an organisation’s relations with its stakeholders because organisations manage relationships with stakeholders (and stakeholder groups) rather than with society in general (Clarkson, 1995).

Over recent years, two sets of forces, privatisation and globalisation, are evident which countermand and modify citizenship. Privatisation transfers the responsibilities for many social provisions (health care, education, pensions, etc.) to individuals who, then, seek to obtain the desired provisions (or effect insurance to do so) through private and organisational means. Under privatisation, rights may be eroded and become wants, the satisfaction of which is subject to the operations of capitalist markets. Globalisation reduces the impact of territorial domains. Major governments and private corporations operate with increasing international influence, thereby reducing the sovereignty of, especially, less economically powerful nation states. Important components in the power gains of (private) corporations are lobbying of politicians and government officials,

and funding contributions to political parties, thereby distorting the operation of 'enlightened self-interest' (Smith, 2000) and liberalism.

The 1980s of 'Reaganomics' and 'Thatcherism' reinvigorated the legitimisation of the 'market' and 'competition' to most business situations and stakeholder relations under the clear perspective of corporate interests – leaving little room for ethical or philanthropic responsibilities to be judged under the criteria of moral values or social duties. The social responsibility of business is, seemingly, to increase its profits (Friedman, 1962) without reference to any ethically-questionable behaviour of businesses (Pritchard, 1997). Subsequently, although being moral is 'detachable' from business, a significant legacy remains – usually, a 'business case' is understood to mean purely effects on profits and revenue/market share!

In a less than perfect ('real') world, businesses usually regard CSR as additional, discretionary activities which should be pursued only to the extent that 'traditional' (financial) measures of organisational performance are enhanced (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Hutton, 1996). While in a hypothetical perfectly ethical world, corporations would not require regulation, in practice, the statutory controls (e.g. health and safety, town planning, environmental protection) act to secure minimum levels of ethical performance to protect society.

Although much of the seminal work on CSR and stakeholder theory are normative in nature, focusing on locating the boundaries of responsibility of business corporations, recent literature attempts to address more pragmatic concerns. For instance, corporate social performance (CSP), which represents the responsive mode of CSR, attempts to model and measure social responsibility in terms of social and environmental, in addition

to financial, performance (e.g. Wartick and Cochran, 1985; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000). It has also been shown that developing integrated CSR initiatives is possible only when managerial views evolve and ethical decision making receives support from organisational culture (Maon et al, 2010; Trevino and Nelson, 2007), the building blocks of which are corporate values and hence, the notion of corporate citizenship values (CCV). Thus, CCV is becoming a common foundation underlying CSR and stakeholder initiatives.

Corporate Citizenship Values (CCV)

Corporate citizenship refers to the philanthropic role and responsibility of the corporation. According to Carroll (1991:42), the philanthropic category of CSR is “less important than the other three categories” (i.e., economic, legal and ethical responsibilities). However, in the language of corporate finance, ‘social investing’ (Waddock, 2001) is desirable for building up ‘social capital’ (e.g. Bolino, Turnley and Bloodgood, 2002; Habisch, Meister and Schmidpeter, 2001) which, ultimately, contributes to improved economic/organisational performance (Bolino et al, 2002) – implying that corporate citizenship has an economic character which contributes to long-term profit maximization as a result of enlightened self-interest. Almost synonymous with Carroll (1991), Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 2001) define corporate citizenship as the extent to which businesses meet the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their *stakeholders*. The ability of corporations or organisations to meet these responsibilities is dependent on the choices they make with regard the range of issues involving their stakeholders. Choice is, however, dependent on value-driven goals; thus,

organisations will pursue actions that are in line with their corporate “values”.

Value may be analysed in terms of varying perspectives; cultural value (in anthropology), social value (in sociology), economic value (in economics) or motivation (in psychology). However, the rational ‘homo economicus’ has the objective of utility (satisfaction / profit) maximisation for self, and thus creating a debate between economic behaviour and morality within economics and cognate disciplines, e.g., the homo sociologicus and the homo politicus. Traditionally, use value is the subjective determination of the utility of a good or service and is contingent upon situations. Exchange value is the (money) market price of an item as expressed in a transaction (or an invitation to transact). Logically, under alternative forms of rationality and market mechanisms, use value underpins exchange value and those relationships for potential sellers and buyers determine whether transactions occur and, via bargaining and market operations, at what money amounts any transactions do occur.

However, not all values can be reduced to monetary terms. Ryan (2003) attempts to reconcile homo economicus with ethics and argues that *consequences* play a crucial role in the ascertainment of value. Thus, the desired end state departs from the neoclassical notion of pre-cast desires, i.e., the desired end state is not yet a genuine value but a *value candidate* subject to modification in the hypothetical interplay of means and ends (Dewey, 1981) which involves choice and, thus, is similar to notions of psychological values. Psychological values comprise cognitive and affective values as *value* is defined as a conception (cognitive) of the desirable (affective) that influences the selection (conative) from available modes, means and ends of action (Kluckhohn, 1959; Parson, Shils and Smelser, 2001). Thus, values give rise to objectified end states and to behaviour

(processes) perceived conducive to their achievement. This view of values is captured in the notion of CCV as used throughout this paper and provides a vital link to corporate behaviour.

From a stakeholder perspective, Longo, Mura and Bonoli (2005) and Papasolomou-Doukakis, Mrambia-Mapardis and Katsioloudes (2005) identify the demands of key stakeholders regarding the creation of value by the business (see Table 1). Table 1 is exemplary of the type of CCV necessary for meeting the organisation's responsibilities towards its stakeholders such as employees, suppliers, customers (clients/owners/users), investors, community, and the environment.

<INSERT Table 1: The grid of corporate citizenship values (CCV)>

CCV vary in situational contexts based on different prioritization of stakeholders' values. When the CCV of the *community* and/or *environment* stakeholders are rated highly, theirs may be prioritized over others.

The relationships of multi-stakeholders can be analysed using interdependence theory. Interdependence theory (Rusbult and Van Lange, 2003) offers a conceptual framework to analyse the structure of interpersonal situations in which the relevance of specific motives is implied. The theory is based on social-cognitive processes to explain how interaction is shaped by long-term goals and adaptations to relationship-specific motives and social norms. Actions are resource-dependent based on power differentials (A has power over B because B is resource-dependent on A) in power theory (Scott, 1992), whereas actions of

the partners/stakeholders, based on long-term interactions in the context of interdependence theory (Rusbult and Bunnk, 1993; Rusbult and Van Lange, 2003), are consequences of partners' value-influences on each other, e.g. commitment.

Corporate Behaviour (B_{CORP})

From a CSR perspective, corporate-social relationship is linked to citizenship behaviour. Social exchanges concern relationships involving future obligations which are unspecified (Blau, 1964) and so, generate expectations of returns in the future for contributions made; engendering 'psychological contractual' relationships based on reciprocity. Since social exchange contracts are based on long term exchanges which are fair in the views of the parties, they do not require precise account-keeping but do require reciprocity of behaviour concerning the diffuse obligations involved (Graham and Organ, 1993) and so, constitute a covenantal form of relational contract (i.e. one with congruent values of the parties). Good faith and trust underpin the forms and timing of reciprocations and so, promote employees' organisational citizenship behaviour towards the corporation (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach, 2000).

Citizenship focuses on rights and responsibilities of all members of the community, which are mutually interlinked and dependent on each other (Waddell, 2000). Two forms of citizenship behaviours are the focus here and conceptualised as *corporate behaviour* (B_{CORP}); the firm's corporate citizenship behaviour (see Maignan and Ferrell, 2000, 2001), which are external and directed towards the society (B_{CORP-O}), and corporate citizenship behaviour which are internal and directed towards the organisation members (B_{CORP-I}). Examples of B_{CORP-O} are CSR initiatives such as community involvement and

philanthropic activities, while examples of B_{CORP-I} include perceived organisational support and supportive leadership. It is argued here that B_{CORP-I} subsequently ignites reciprocal behaviours from employees towards the organisation in the form of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as discussed below.

Corporate Social Performance (CSP)

CSP reflects a search for social legitimacy through processes of appropriate responses to stakeholder concerns (Garriga and Mele, 2004). According to Carroll (1979), CSP has three elements; categories of social responsibility, social issues and a philosophy of social responsiveness. Drawing on the work of Wartick and Cochran (1985), Wood (1991) defines CSP as “a business organization's configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationships”. Based on this definition Wood (1991) proposed a CSP framework as shown in Table 2. The framework provides a means for operationalising CSR principles, processes of corporate social responsiveness, and outcomes of corporate behaviour.

<INSERT Table 2: Corporate social performance (CSP) model>

From Corporate Citizenship Values (CCV) to Corporate Social Performance (CSP)

Figure 1 draws together the CCV, B_{CORP} and CSP concepts and depicts their inter-relationships as underpinned by CSR and stakeholder theory. As shown, CCV

influences B_{CORP} in an outward-orientation towards fulfilling the corporation's obligations to external stakeholders (i.e. B_{CORP-O}) as well as an inward-orientation towards employees and members of the supply chain (i.e. B_{CORP-I}). In turn, employees who feel they are treated well may reciprocate with appropriate collaborative behaviours (n.b. extra-role, organisational citizenship behaviours) and supply chain partners who perceive equitable treatment are likely to respond with appropriate, positive relational behaviour, including trust and commitment. The model is developed on the basis of dynamic decision processes in a multi-stakeholder system that stems from the premises of *decision* rationality, competing *values* and *goal* compatibility (Parsons et al, 2001; Lewin, Dembo, Festinger and Sears, 1944; Locke and Latham, 1990).

<INSERT Figure 1: Model of CCV to CSP>

According to the S-O-R (stimulus-organism-response) paradigm in organisational psychology, stakeholder pressures (e.g., economic, legal, social etc.) act as stimuli on the corporation and cause it to respond. Part of the response is the decision to embed beliefs (e.g. the value of sustainable construction) in a set of CCV which will bring forth actions (or committing behaviours by the corporation, B_{CORP}) in fulfilling the goals (e.g. contribution to a sustainable built environment).

Value specificity is pertinent in the CCV and B_{CORP} relationship and reflects the level of clarity and explicitness of the values which influence goal setting (see Steers and Porter 1983) and is expressed as a function of the relationships between the persons (i.e. project stakeholders), the object (i.e. the project) and the environment. Hence, value specificity

and goal setting (which direct subsequent behaviour) are fundamental to the initiation of a behaviour-performance-outcome paradigm as depicted in the model in Figure 1.

Thus, CCV underpin goal-setting and guide rational acts/behaviours (B_{CORP}) which produce CSP (P); that leads to an outcome (O) for assessment. The outcome will further inform the 'consolidation' or 'modification' of values held by the 'corporate' and such interpretation (of the outcome) and consequences (of outcome for future values to be pursued) are subject to power dispositions of stakeholders, i.e. the powerful group is more likely to have a say in the shaping of the future. How the corporation behaves will depend on the firm's CCV in determining what P and O are deemed desirable based on expected future benefits to the firm. The link between CCV and B_{CORP} is, therefore, rooted in the notion of values as reflecting a set of beliefs, implicit or explicit, that influences the selection of choices from available modes, means and ends of actions (c.f. Kluckhohn, 1959).

The postulation here is that organisational members will respond to the 'internal' component of B_{CORP} (how 'corporate' exercises power in treating organisational/supply chain members, i.e. B_{CORP-I}) by committing actions/behaviours which reflect both in-role behaviours and OCB. Constituents of OCB are sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness (see Organ, 1988). The notion of B_{CORP} is extended to the supply chain members and these members may reciprocate citizenship behaviours to the 'corporate' based on their trust and commitment in the supply chain alliance.

However, the generic concept of OCB comprises two categories – OCB-organisation (OCBO; Williams and Anderson, 1991) and OCB-individual (OCBI; Williams and Anderson, 1991). OCB, in general, is positively related to perceptions of organisational

justices (e.g. Niehoff and Moorman, 1993), including distributive, procedural, and interactional (which Colquitt, 2001, finds comprises informational and interpersonal justices), and positive perceptions of the psychological contract with the organisation (e.g. Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau, 1994). Organisation members will, therefore, reciprocate in the form of OCB to favourable treatment from the organisation (Deckop et al, 2003; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades, 2001).

Since OCB is behaviour that is voluntary and not part of any formal role requirements, OCB is inherently moral in that the individual may choose to perform a (virtuous) behaviour that is beneficial to another person over one that is not (Graham, 1995; Ryan, 2001, Deckop et al, 2003). The findings of Deckop et al (2003) and Eisenberger et al (2001) both support the view that individuals reciprocate, in the form of OCB, favourable treatment – e.g., perceived organisational support and supportive leadership behavior – from the organisation and supervisors. Hence, supply chain members' perceptions of (1) organisational support (e.g. support within the supply chain) (Karriker and Williams, 2009), (2) reciprocal behaviours (e.g. Graham and Organ, 1993), and (3) a sense of fairness (e.g. Niehoff and Moorman, 1993) are essential in maintaining relationships which are conducive to performance.

In their study of construction projects, Dainty, Bryman, Price, Greasley, Soetanto and King (2005) assert that project affinity, emotional attachments to the project (objectives/purpose) outcome, enhances how people work, especially their OCB, thereby fostering performance. However, there is the necessity for care in selecting project participants to secure compatibility (Baiden, Price and Dainty, 2006) between them in order to foster 'project chemistry' (Nicolini, 2002) – which is particularly applicable in

selecting supply chain partners. Essentially then, it is the dynamic interplay among B_{CORP-O} , B_{CORP-I} and the collaborative/relational behaviours that results in corporate social performance – which manifests as social programmes, policies and impacts.

Discussion and Research Agenda

A conceptual model linking CCV, B_{CORP} and CSP from a CSR and stakeholder theory perspective is advanced. A preliminary explanation of the model is offered by first considering the nature of project procurement as a flow of information which (1) stimulates and controls the flow of resources and (2) provides feedback for guiding project participants' behaviour in attaining project goals. Project goal definition (in terms of its specificity determined from participants' values) directs participants' (or corporate's) behaviours which aggregate to performance. Thus, in simple terms, the discrepancy between the goal level (the target which is set, e.g. project completion within 18 months) and the performance level (the level which is achieved, e.g. project completed in 20 months) provides a basis for evaluating the outcome (notably project success and stakeholder satisfaction).

The movement of corporations towards sustainable construction, as an example of a value-driven objectified end state, is determined by their corporate values which support committed corporate effort. Committed effort is modelled in the framework of B_{CORP} which is, itself, determined by the organisations' CCV. Values and norms (which lead to behaviours) are constructs of culture (see Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997). For instance, Green (2009), in discussing CSR in construction, refers to enterprise culture – an example of the implication that the values held by the enterprises are fundamental to

CSR and hence, the responses organisations choose towards satisfying stakeholder demands.

In the context of driving sustainable construction therefore, commitment of stakeholders to a common set of goals in a relationship situation (such as partnership within framework agreements) “shapes stable tendencies to engage in pro-relationship behaviours, even when such behaviours are costly or stand in opposition to direct self-interest” (Rusbult and Bunnk, 1993:190). Hence, commitment to corporate citizenship is an essential first step to taking the necessary goal-directed/committed actions towards achieving organisational objectives – CSP.

Increasingly, CSP is becoming an important concept of study in organisation behaviour and a key issue in society as a result of changing patterns in government and corporate role in society. Matten et al (2003) examine corporate citizenship from the perspectives of political and social theories and develop a framework which reflects the shifting role of corporations in society during the last decade. Matten et al (2003:116) argue that “corporations enter the arena of citizenship at the point of government failure in the protection of citizenship. More precisely, we suggest that they partly take over those functions with regard to the protection, facilitation and enabling of citizen’s rights – formerly an expectation placed solely on the government”. How well the corporation carries out its CSR is reflected in its CSP. Pavelin and Porter (2008:724) maintain that there are certain lessons regarding public policy, “government funding of innovation has no (or, if anything, a depressive) effect on the CSP content of corporate innovation” but the greatest impacts are associated with facilitation through the public sector provision of robust, independent scientific expertise of academic distinction.

There is a necessary link between the augmentation of CSP and the innovation of new technologies (Phillimore, 2001). In order to transform the impacts of business activities on society, the corporation must suitably adapt production processes and/or product design (Vollebergh and Kemfert, 2005). A recent survey of UK businesses demonstrates a link between innovation and CSP (Pavelin and Porter, 2008). According to Pavelin and Porter (2008), the highest degree of CSP content is found in the Building Products and Construction sectors but the lowest probability of CSP content is found in the Real Estate sector. There may be potential barriers to CSR, which affect CSP, in the UK's housebuilding sector (see Adams, Payne and Watkins, 2009). Perhaps it is the characteristics of these related sectors that are sufficiently different to yield the varied outcomes in their CSP.

A central tenet of stakeholder theory is that corporations should integrate their responsibilities to the various stakeholders; however, corporations are usually constrained by limited resources and bounded rationality, which force them to prioritise their stakeholders according to instrumental and/or normative considerations. While Pavelin and Porter's (2008) study does not endeavour to investigate the differences between the sectors in Building Products, Construction, and Real Estate, the 'commissioning client' (usually the building developer) in the Real Estate sector is often crucial in determining how the project is realised through the project organisation.

However, construction projects are realised via a temporary (transient) multi-organisation, where the interconnectivity and interdependence of people, institutions and social networks are emphasised. In such a temporary multi-organisation, it is arguable whether CCV have any chance of developing to a stage where they can have meaningful

impact on B_{CORP}, and, subsequently, CSP, as our model suggests. In particular, given the functional partnership involving diverse specialisations of the evolving, temporary project organisation, the values which are brought to bear on the project design and construction are numerous.

While our model is grounded in CSR and stakeholder theory, Green (2009) also notes the “increasing tendency to conflate CSR with notions of sustainable development” (p.47) but the disappointment is that the “changing political climate initiated the reconstitution of CSR, resulting in the requirement that it must be judged by the business case” (p.48). Coupled with the overwhelming tendency in the construction industry to promote “instrumental improvement measures whilst reinforcing the industry’s obsession with narrowly defined efficiency” (Green, 2009:49), the ‘business case’, by emphasising the financial outcome, marginalises social externalities and contradicts CSR.

A particular concern over endeavouring to produce sustainable construction and sustainable developments is fragmentation – one of the enduring problems of construction project management performance. The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) has launched a CSR website (www.csr.gov.uk) and remarked that “we see CSR as the business contribution to sustainable development” (DTI, 2004; accessed January 2010). However, different groups have different perspectives, agendas and definitions (economics, sociology, ecology, biology, town planning, developers, constructors) – with the result that what fulfils sustainability from one perspective may fail miserably from another. The consequence for construction and development practice is that legislation is piecemeal and addresses ‘greening’ rather than sustainability (Fellows and Liu, 2008).

Although the model proposed in this paper still needs refinement, it is advocated,

nevertheless, that the corporation's sense of citizenship, reflected in its values, has an important role to play in its business endeavour and that the concept of citizenship in a multi-stakeholder environment is under-researched in the construction industry. The proposed model, therefore, forms a preliminary framework for investigating a range of questions within the construction sector as they relate to the multi-stakeholder system of its operations:

1. How are corporate citizenship values shaped by the project process and context and what are the implications of corporate citizenship values, especially value specificity, on cost-value perceptions under power differentials in the multi-stakeholder supply chain?
2. What are the dimensions of corporate social performance in the real estate and construction sectors? The question has specific reference to:
 - a. Pavelin and Porter's (2008) model in the UK's 'real estate sector' and the 'construction sector' from a corporate citizenship values' perspective
 - b. Cultural implications of corporate social performance in joint venture projects.
3. What is the nature of the relationship between corporate social values and corporate social performance? The question has specific reference to:
 - c. The organisation's adoption of the 'business case' perspective, from the point of view of competitive return on investment, versus the contrasting demands of corporate social responsibility
 - d. Mediating effect of an organisation's innovative culture in the corporate

citizenship values -corporate social performance relationship.

Conclusion

Commonly, projects are driven through power-based opportunism towards self-oriented profitability and corporate growth amongst participants. Such foci and individualistic behaviour are, clearly, antithetical to sustainability and to CSP. If value-laden concepts such as sustainable construction are supported by a sense of CSR, given that the lowest probability of CSP content is found in the Real Estate sector, it is uncertain whether building projects, as commissioned by clients (n.b. developers) and realised through the project organisation (which is temporary and 'transient'), would give high priority to sustainable construction goals. However, in the language of business, 'social investing' is desirable for building up 'social capital' which, ultimately, contributes to improved economic/organisational performance – implying that corporate citizenship has an economic character which contributes to securing long-term profit and growth as a result of the commissioning client's enlightened self-interest.

Although the probability of CSP is low in the Real Estate sector, the CSP content in the Building Products and Construction sectors is high, indicative of the latter's readiness and capability to embrace CSR initiatives. The differences in these related sectors that cause their varied CSP outcomes have not been investigated and it is suggested that this be a focus of future study from a multi-stakeholders' perspective. The model proposed here suggests that these differences may well lie in how the corporate citizenship values of the organisations in the sectors are shaped and is therefore a significant first step towards modelling the important link between CCV and CSP.

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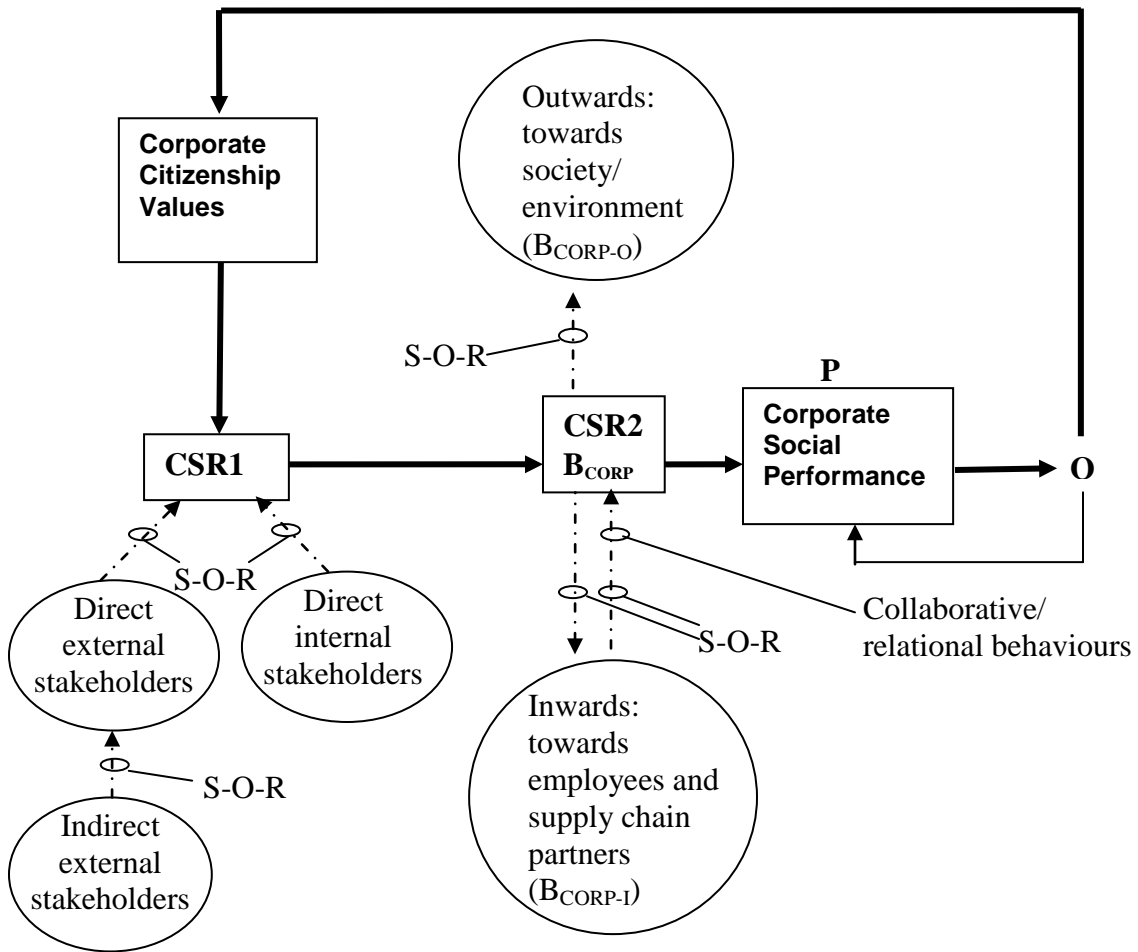
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Table 1 The grid of corporate citizenship values
 (Adapted from Longo *et al.*, 2005; Papasolomou- Doukakis *et al.*, 2005)

STAKEHOLDERS	(Source: Longo <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Employees	Health and safety at work Development of workers' skills Wellbeing and satisfaction of worker Quality of work Social equity
Suppliers	Partnership between ordering company and supplier Selection and analysis systems of suppliers
Customers	Product quality Safety of customer during use of product Consumer protection Transparency of consumer product information
Community	Creation of added value to the community Environmental safety and production
(Source: Papasolomou <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	
Investors	Strives for a competitive return on investment Engages in fair and honest business practices in relationship with shareholders
Environment (general public)	Demonstrates a commitment to sustainable development Demonstrates a commitment to the environment

Table 2 Corporate social performance (CSP) model (Source: Wood, 1991)

CSP Elements	Operationalised Examples
Principles of CSR	Institutional principle: legitimacy Organisational principle: public responsibility Individual principle: managerial discretion
Processes of corporate social responsiveness	Environmental assessment Stakeholder management Issues management
Outcomes of corporate behaviour	Social impacts Social programmes Social policies



Legend:
 S-O-R: stimulus-organism-response; P: Performance; O: Outcome; B_{CORP}: corporate behaviour;
 B_{CORP-O}: outward corporate behaviour; B_{CORP-I}: inward corporate behaviour; OCB: organisational
 citizenship behaviour; CSR1: corporate social responsibility; CSR2: corporate social responsiveness

Figure 1
 Model of corporate citizenship values (CCV) to corporate social performance (CSP)