

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY:  
UNDERSTANDING ITS RELATIONSHIP TO PUBLIC HEALTH

By

Meghan Christine Baker

Masters of Public Health 2015 Candidate

Faculty of Health Sciences

Simon Fraser University

Senior Supervisor: Nicole Berry

## Abstract:

Social, environmental, and health issues are deeply rooted, complex, and multi-faceted and no one organization, discipline, sector, or nation can address or solve them on their own. Public health and its issues tend to be thought of the domain of the public sector, with input from academia and the third sector with the private sector's involvement limited to health-specific industries or philanthropy. However, the private sector is becoming increasingly involved in social, environmental and health issues, particularly via corporate social responsibility (CSR). Due to the immense resources of the private sector as well as its undeniable social, political, and economic power, CSR has the potential to help make a positive impact on whichever social issue, and thus public health issue, it focuses on. A literature review of CSR evolution, theories, concepts and applications was done in order to understand how CSR is conceptualized and practiced in different sectors and in the academic world versus the real world. Yet, despite the fact that CSR has so much potential for impact and has become a normative term and expected practice, it remains conceptually ambiguous between disciplines, sectors, nations, theory, and practice. The literature review analysis resulted in in three areas for further research: 1) conceptual clarity, 2) improved CSR standardization and/or measurement, and 3) just how involved in social, environmental and health issues should the private sector (via CSR) be and what are the implications and impact of this involvement?

Keywords: CSR, public health, impact

## INTRODUCTION:

During my time as a practicum student and then contract worker for a global corporate social responsibility (CSR) consulting company, I worked on a new global initiative called Impact 2030. Impact 2030 is a business-sector led, multi-sector initiative whose goal it is to leverage corporate social responsibility in the form of employee volunteering to help achieve the upcoming United Nations' Post-2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This initiative is all about collaboration as a means to addressing global social issues and making use of, in a focused manner, the human resources that corporations have to address global social and health issues, as determined by the United Nations. According to the United Nations resolution A/RES/66/67 adopted by the Sixty-Sixth General Assembly,

The concept of corporate social responsibility has expanded beyond traditional philanthropy and a one-way flow of investment in communities to now include more dynamic exchanges between corporate employees and key stakeholder groups representing community and civil society.

However, despite the fact that CSR has become a normative concept and private organizations are now expected to contribute to society beyond financial profits to shareholders, the legitimacy of CSR is prone to questions regarding of conflict of interest, ethics, policy, overly-lofty goals, motives, legitimacy, and political, social, global, and economic power inequities.

Companies donate huge sums of money to non-profit organizations and social causes, ranging from health to environment to education and more in addition to supplying time, resources, skills, and volunteers. While the private sector has the obvious benefits of employment and wealth creation, corporate social responsibility has the potential to make a vast impact on local and global social issues, from food security or vaccinations and medications to education and technology to disaster relief and the environment – all of which affect public

health. Many companies, especially multinational corporations (MNCs) now make more money than some individual nations and are being called on to fill the gaps that the government and non-profit sectors cannot (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Halme and Laurila, 2009). Additionally, the private sector has particular skills, expertise, and resources that have the potential to be complementary to the public sector (Halme and Laurila, 2009). With so much social, political, and economic power, not to mention resources, networks, employees, technology, and skills, if they so choose to, corporations are in a position to help make a positive impact on whatever social issue, and thus public health issue, they so choose.

As a Masters in Public Health candidate, I recognize just how critical and controversial CSR is to public health and social issues and yet, while everyone around me seemed to have an opinion about CSR, its one of those things that is both conceptually and practically difficult to understand, let alone make meaningful use out of. What does CSR even mean or encapsulate to different stakeholders and sectors? What is the primitive directive of CSR? What does impact mean? How does one, whether it is an individual company, a multinational corporation (MNC), a regulatory body, or the academic world, measure impact? Impact of what on what? Two of the most obvious and frustrating issues that continually came up during my time working on Impact 2030 was 1) how do we measure CSR and thus its impact, and 2) how do multiple stakeholders from different sectors (non-profits, government, major corporations, academia, policy advisors) understand CSR concepts and thus their framing of social issues and how to approach them? Who decides what issues are important or what needs need to be met? What about conflicts of interest or intent versus outcome?

To look into these questions, I chose to do a review of CSR literature, using additional key words such as social impact, social issues, health, and measure. I looked at theories and strategies as well as the history of CSR in an attempt to understand how something with so much potential to impact public came to be such a normative yet ambiguous concept. I also searched for some of the efforts to measure the social and thus health impact of CSR.

Surprisingly, however, while there is a vast amount of literature, the majority of it does not discuss social impact or measurement. Instead, it focuses on the business returns on investment (ROI) of CSR, both financial and non-financial. Additionally, though CSR does and is affecting global public health, it was incredibly difficult to find health and social-issue related literature that looked at CSR as a legitimate stakeholder in solving social issues.

#### METHODOLOGY:

One of the reasons why I became so interested in the topic of CSR and public health was that from the beginning of my coursework for my Master in Public Health, there was constantly a critical discussion of the involvement of the private sector in public issues. I assumed that because we were constantly discussing it and because it regularly came up in almost every class varying from globalization and environment to health promotion, communication and advocacy, to social determinants and inequalities to funding and partnerships, that there must be extensive literature on the private sector's undeniable involvement in public health.

I began my literature review by going to the librarian from Simon Fraser University's Faculty of Health Sciences, explaining my research topic and asking for advice regarding how to begin the literature review process. After discussing various search terms, the librarian suggested particular databases including Business Source Complete, Sociological Abstracts, and PAIS

International. Because I am interested in how CSR impacts how the private sector approaches its involvement in addressing the social issues that affect public health, I also tried searching databases such as PubMed, CINAHL, and Academic Search Premier. However, the quantity and relativity of the literature was extremely limited and ultimately, I found Google Scholar to be the most accessible database to use.

Sample of Literature Searches Generating Findings for this Paper

Database	Search terms	Examples Resulting literature (Full citation under References)	Search notes
PubMed	Public health OR health OR social issue AND CSR OR corporate social responsibility AND social impact OR impact OR measurement  * Used multiple variations of these search terms	None that were used	Initial search to find (public) health, health science, and social science articles discussing CSR in relation to public health and/or the impact of CSR on social issues that affect health.  * Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.
CINAHL	Public health OR health OR social issue AND CSR OR corporate social responsibility AND social impact OR impact OR measurement  * Used multiple variations of these search terms	None that were used	Initial search to find (public) health, health sciences, and social science articles discussing CSR in relation to public health and/or the impact of CSR on social issues that affect health.  * Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol,

			gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.
Sociological Abstracts	<p>Public health OR health OR social issue AND CSR OR corporate social responsibility AND social impact OR impact OR measurement</p> <p>* Used multiple variations of these search terms</p>	Kell (2013).	<p>Based on my literature review topic, SFU Health Sciences librarian suggested searching Sociological Abstracts. This database has theoretical and applied sociology, social science, and policy science journals. Was hoping to find articles from a sociological perspective re: CSR in relation to social issues that affect health.</p> <p>* Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.</p>
PAIS International	<p>Public health OR health OR social issue AND CSR OR corporate social responsibility AND social impact OR impact OR measurement</p> <p>* Used multiple variations of these search terms</p>	Halme & Laurila (2009); Maon, Lindgreen, & Swaen (2009).	<p>Based on my literature review topic, SFU Health Sciences librarian suggested searching PAIS International. This database covers political, economic and social issues and provided some articles from this perspective re: CSR and public health and/or social issues that affect health.</p> <p>* Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.</p>
Academic Search Premier	Public health OR health OR social issue AND	Stuckler, Basu, &	Academic Search Premier is a multidisciplinary index

	<p>CSR OR corporate social responsibility AND social impact OR impact OR measurement</p> <p>* Used multiple variations of these search terms</p>	McKnee (2011).	<p>to academic and popular journals. Because the more health and social science discipline specific databases were giving limited results, this database was used as a way to cast a wider net to find more results.</p> <p>* Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.</p>
SAGE	<p>Social responsibility OR CSR AND health OR social issues</p> <p>* Used multiple variations of these search terms</p>	Bromley & Meyer (2014); Chen, Lune, & Queen (2013).	<p>Used the SFU library search tool to do a general search of the terms, concepts, and authors that were regularly appearing in the articles I had thus far.</p> <p>* Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.</p>
Business Source Complete	<p>Social responsibility OR CSR AND health OR social issues</p> <p>* Used multiple variations of these search terms</p>	Cho, Lee & Park (2012); Hess, Rogovsky, & Dunfee (2002); Matten & Moon (2008).	<p>After recognizing that many articles that I had already found were in business journals, I began searching for articles using business databases.</p> <p>* Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries.</p>
Google Scholar	<p>Public health OR health OR social issue AND CSR OR corporate</p>	Carroll (1979); Carroll (1999); Carroll (2000);	<p>Because the discipline specific databases were providing limited results,</p>

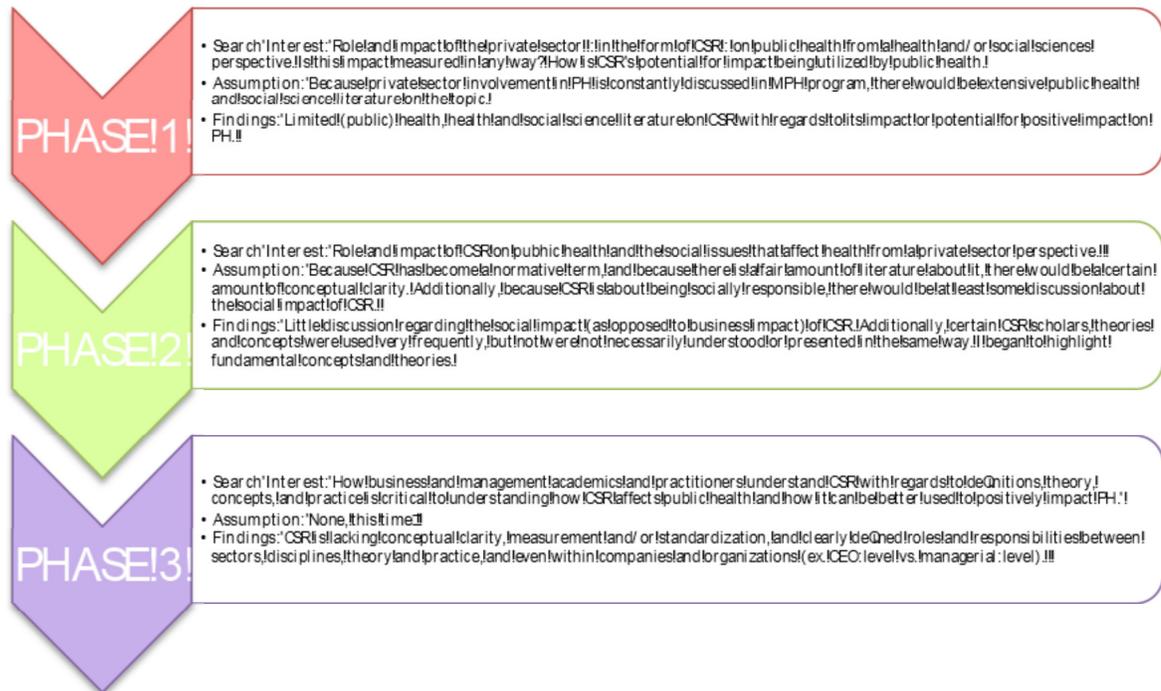
	<p>social responsibility AND social impact OR impact OR measurement</p> <p>* Used multiple variations of these search terms</p>	<p>Elkington, (2004); ! Garriga &amp; Melé, (2004); Heald, M. (1970);! Porter &amp; Kramer (2006); SAGE Publications. (2011); Visser (2010).</p>	<p>Google Scholar allowed for a “wider net” to be cast with to the literature search. Additionally, it allowed me to search for authors that were frequently cited in the CSR literature I had already found. I also made use of the “Cited by” and “Related Articles” links, leading to a snowball effect with regards to both literature and the direction of my research.</p> <p>* Excluded articles and studies involving alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco companies/industries</p>
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Using search terms including CSR, corporate social responsibility, public, health, measure, impact, social, and innovation, and I began my research in earnest. It should be noted that for the purpose of this paper, I chose not to look into articles or studies that involved alcohol, gambling, weapons, pornography and tobacco. While I was working on the Impact 2030 Initiative and WHO, I learned that when working with the private sector, the United Nations and WHO do not work with these types of companies/industries because they view it as unethical and goes against the objectives that they are trying to achieve such as health promotion, maintaining peace, or protecting the environment (Carney, 2014). There are so many other companies and industries that, while still being controversial, are less pariah-like. While these industries and their CSR needs to be addressed, it seemed like a bit of a Pandora’s Box, such a big and slippery topic, and not what I actually wanted to address within the scope of this paper.

While I initially had a set twenty-five articles I was going to read and review, as I began reading, I took advantage of the “Cited by” and “Related articles” links. There was a snowball effect and I began to search for articles by authors who were constantly cited, wanting to know why their work, theories, and analysis were so relevant. The result was a literature review of some of the most heavily cited CSR scholars and their definitions and analysis of CSR, the evolution of CSR in both theory and practice, and how what is valued by business and society is reflected CSR. My analysis considers the power of CSR (economic, political, social, business, expertise and resources) and its values, theories, and actual practice and how this is currently and could be used for positive social impact.

However, the journals that were coming up were not those associated with public health or even public policy. Instead, they were journals with titles such as Journal of Business Ethics, Journal of Marketing, Organization Studies, Academy of Management Review, Business and Society, and Harvard Business Review. I became interested in the fact that the private sector and is such an important stakeholder in public health and yet the public health literature about its involvement was barely there. The majority of the accessible literature was in the business field and little to none of the literature discussed the social impacts of CSR – most of it was about theory, approaches to CSR and the business impacts of CSR, both financial and non-financial. It is this critical observation that rerouted the course of my literature review and thus my interest in CSR and public health and how I, and the rest of the world, both the academic and the “real world”, make sense of this topic.

## Literature Review and Topic of Interest Search Phases



### 1) Definition(s) of CSR

One of the most obvious issues with corporate social responsibility is what it actually means and encompasses; it is not an easy term to define. CSR is an umbrella concept that it constantly evolving with various overlapping, often contested, terms and synonyms (Carroll, 1999; Matten and Moon, 2008). Additionally, CSR meanings vary within companies, countries, industries, and sectors (Matten and Moon, 2008). Related and often interchangeable terms include corporate citizenship, corporate accountability, triple bottom line, and strategic philanthropy and terms such as fair trade, sustainability, cause marketing, buying green, and responsible social investing that fall within the practice of CSR (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Sage Publications, 2012).

Maon, Lindgreen, and Swaen (2009) define CSR as a "stakeholder-oriented concept that extends beyond the organization's boundaries and is driven by an ethical understanding of the

organization's responsibility for the impact of its business activities, thus, seeking in return society's acceptance of the legitimacy of the organization" (p.72). More simply put, Matten and Moon state that, at its core, CSR "reflects the social imperatives and the social consequences of business success. Thus, CSR (and its synonyms) empirically consists of clearly articulated and communicated policies and practices of corporations that reflect business responsibility for some of the wider societal good" (2008, p.405). This definition is used because it clearly states that CSR is communicated via policies and practices, but implicitly acknowledges that there are social consequences of business success, whether these consequences help or do harm to the society. Additionally, Matten and Moon's (2008) definition recognizes that there is a gap between empirical and theoretical CSR, how it is understood in the academic world versus how it is actually practiced.

## 2) History of CSR

Though the idea of businesses being socially active goes back a long time, most scholars who study CSR tend to date its emergence back to the 1950s or what prominent CSR scholar Carroll (1999: 269), calls the "Modern Era of Social Responsibility." Carroll's work is so drawn upon by both myself and other CSR researchers because he is one of the most relevant CSR scholars. His work includes historical examinations of CSR, its evolution, and his own modern definition, the "Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility", discussed in further detail later, and his work continues to be cited, discussed, modified, criticized, and applied by academia, managers, corporate leaders, social commentators, and politicians (GKC Community Foundation, 2010).

During this “Modern Era of Social Responsibility” (Carroll, 1999), theories, concepts and terminology were evolving and conversations about CSR began in earnest. According to Carroll (1999), it was during this time, particularly in Bowen’s 1953 book *Social Responsibilities of the Businessman*, that large businesses were recognized as vital power and decision-making stakeholders and, as such, had the responsibility to consider the consequences of their actions and to contribute to society beyond their legal and economic obligations. An interesting and important question that Bowen asked was, just how much or what type of social responsibilities should the executive be expected to assume and fulfill (Carroll, 1999)? He argued that the answer to this question was dependent on society’s expectations or demands; i.e. social norms.

The idea of business responsibility, not yet known as corporate social responsibility, grew in the 1960s and 1970s, with authors such as McGuire (1963 as cited in Carroll, 1999) tying social responsibilities of businesses to both its employees and its community– that the business entity should in fact operate as a citizen (p.272). Citizenship entailed looking beyond the technical and financial interests of the business (Davis and Blomstrom, 1966, as cited in Carroll, 1999). The social power of businesses was enormous and only continuing to grow and the actions and decisions of said businesses had impacts and thus responsibilities beyond the legal and financial realms.

There were, however those who disagreed with this sentiment. Most famously, or perhaps infamously, Milton Friedman stated that, “the social responsibility of business is to increase profits” (1970). Friedman did not think that businesses should operate in an unethical or fraudulent manner, but he did see a distinct line between the public and private sector (1970). However, business and the corporate world do not exist in a vacuum – they are part of a greater ecosystem of dynamic politics, environment, culture, morals, norms, economics, and technology.

As Bowen (1953), Carroll (1999), and numerous other CSR scholars have argued society decides what to demand financially, ethically, and socially from businesses and corporations (Chen, Lune, and Queen, 2013; Garriga and Mele, 2004; Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig, 2004; Selsky and Parker, 2010) and the company that refuses to acknowledge this and to adjust accordingly will slowly become socially irrelevant and thus unprofitable.

By the 1980s, the idea of the social responsibility of businesses had gained enough hold and attention that scholars began to look at it more critically, moving from definitions to further research, themes, and alternatives – what did it mean, what did it and should it entail, and how should it be practiced? People began to look at corporate social responsibility not just from an ethical point of view, but also from a business point of view, looking at alternative theories and definitions, practice, and stakeholders (Maon et al., 2009; CSRQuest, 2015). This was an important shift because CSR initiatives, programs and policies started to become more strategic in order to address and enhance businesses' societal legitimacy. It was recognized that a businesses' survival and success was dependent on its relationship with society, not just shareholders (Maon et al., 2009).

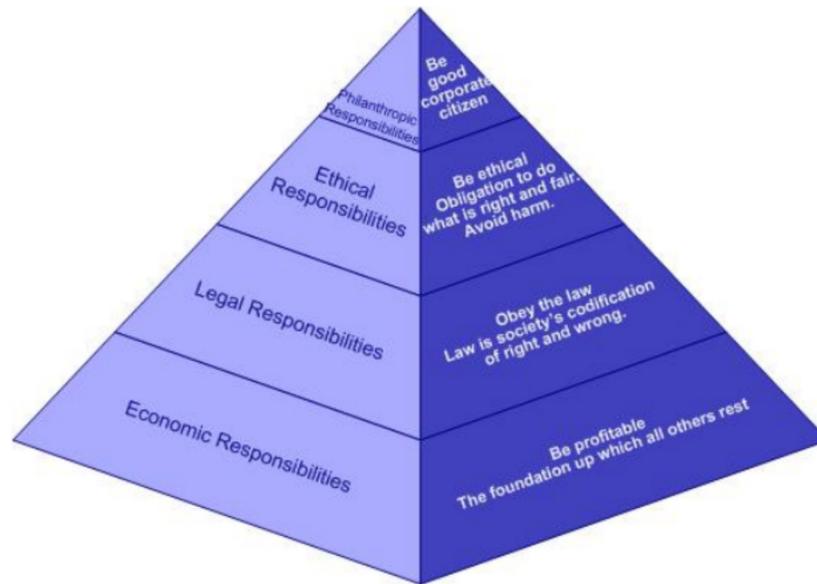
Carroll states that relatively little was done in terms of “unique contributions” (1999, p. 288) to the CSR discourse during the 1990s. Instead, by this point, the concept of CSR was a starting point from which alternative themes and approaches were growing in both theory and practice (Carroll, 1999). Entering the new millennium, exponential growth in terms of technology and globalization changed the world at unprecedented rates. Public health and social, environmental, and sustainability issues are recognized as deeply complex with no one solution and no one single sector, industry, or nation being able to “fix” them as technology and globalization blur spatial, temporal, and cognitive understandings and all sectors struggle with

how to adapt to these changes (Bromley and Meyer, 2014; Halme and Laurila, 2009; Lee and Whitman, 2003; Selsky and Parker, 2010; Visser, 2010). As a result, businesses were and continue to be called upon to contribute more to society and its issues and challenges in more engaged manners. To do more than sponsorship, charitable donations, and philanthropy to helping to solve social issues via sustainability, fair wages, supply chain and operation changes, and innovation.

### 3) Understanding CSR: Theory and Concept Mapping

The interesting thing about CSR is that as it has become more common, what it means has become more ambiguous. As CSR has grown, so have CSR theories and models as the academic world attempts to explain this particular phenomenon. Academia and social commentators recognize that CSR affects stakeholders beyond shareholders and employees on local, national and global communities and issues, whether it is about public health specifically, the environment, economics, policy, or human rights.

During the late 1970s and 1980s, Carroll, one of the most prominent CSR scholars, developed his CSR pyramid in an attempt to aid both academics and business managers to consider what society expects of a business, i.e. the social responsibilities of business (Carroll, 1979, p.500).



Carroll's CSR Pyramid

(Source: CSRquest.net)

As demonstrated by Carroll's CSR Pyramid, a corporation's most basic responsibility is economic - to be profitable in needed providing goods and services. Fulfilling this responsibility positively impacts shareholders, giving them a return on their investment, employees, providing them with reliable employment, and consumers, providing them with the goods and/or services they want or need (Carroll, 1979). But fulfilling this economic responsibility often comes at an environmental, health, social, or economic cost that is not necessarily absorbed by the consumer or shareholder, but by stakeholders who may not have a voice or power. This is referred to as market externalities.

Market externalities are the specific, but unintended consequences of the workings of the market (Robbins, 2011). As Robbins states,

The problem is that the market price [of a cup of coffee] doesn't include the cost of the market externalities such as the damage to the environment caused by the coffee's

production and distribution, the health and impoverished lives of the coffee workers, or the waste decimation of water resources in the production process. These represent the externalized costs of coffee and are simply passed on to others or to future generations. The external costs of things are rarely calculated and, consequently, never directly paid. (2011, p. 125).

The idea of market externalities is an important one for two immediately obvious and related reasons. Firstly, do the CSR programs, policies and initiatives of a company matter if they do not address the market externalities of a company's business practices? For example, if a food packaging and manufacturing company makes food security one of its main CSR goals, but continues to have harmful or unsustainable environmental or supply chain practices, does the food security CSR goals matter? It's like digging a hole to fill a separate hole. On the other hand, addressing market externalities such as sustainability and environment, supply chain, fair wages, or worker health and safety, have the potential to become part of CSR policies and initiative, with corporations using their power and resources to help solve these social, environmental, health, and economic issues.

A corporation's primary responsibility is economic, to be profitable, but it must fulfill this responsibility within the limits of the law. As such, law and regulation can help to limit market externalities. Law and regulation are a reflection of the social contract between social actors – individuals, private and public organizations, and institutions – and how they are expected to behave and operate in society. Market externalities, such as the exploitation of natural resources, unequal wealth distribution, or food security (Robbins, 2011, p. 124) often occur when more vulnerable and at risk people, issues, or places are not valued and thus protected by the law.

When considering this in relation to CSR and Carroll's CSR Pyramid, while it is a corporation's social responsibility to fulfill its economic responsibilities, it must do so within

society's legal confines thus fulfilling its legal responsibility (1979). In addition to legal responsibilities, there are unspoken/unwritten but expected ethical responsibilities as a part of the corporate social responsibilities (Carroll, 1979). These ethical responsibilities are tricky because they are discretionary and often clear and vague at the same time, such as the idea of "Do no harm". What does do no harm mean? How far does it extend?

At the top of Carroll's CSR Pyramid are discretionary and/or philanthropic responsibilities. These responsibilities are even less clear than ethical responsibilities and are purely voluntary (Carroll, 1979). While businesses' are required to fulfill economic and legal responsibilities and there is enormous social pressure to fulfill ethical responsibilities — in fact these ethical issues are often the birthplace of law and regulation — businesses can choose which philanthropic responsibilities or issues they want to engage in. However, while philanthropic responsibilities are completely discretionary, businesses are becoming more and more expected to fulfill social roles over and above their economic, legal and ethical responsibilities (Carroll, 1979, p.500).

Carroll's CSR pyramid provides a solid and relatively simple starting point for both academics and managers trying to get their mind, and their work, around such a slippery topic. However, CSR is such a complex topic and it is almost as if the more it has become de rigueur, the more complicated it has become to grasp conceptually and in practice. Below are four other common ways of conceptually and practically approaching CSR that appear frequently in the literature.

## Garriga and Melé's Groupings of CSR Theories

Because the CSR field has so many theories and approaches, many of which are either overlapping or controversial, Garriga and Melé (2004) did extensive research, looking at over a hundred sources, in order to break these theories and related approaches into four main groups: instrumental, political, integrative, and ethical theories.

Instrumental theories are those in which CSR is seen as means to an end or a “strategic tool to achieve economic objectives and, ultimately, wealth creation” (Garriga and Melé, 2004, p. 53). This theory and its approaches to CSR include maximizing shareholder value, strategies for achieving competitive advantages, and cause-related marketing. This approach is often the one recognized and commented on by CSR critics and cynics. From this perspective, CSR is seen as motivated only by self-interest and from the infamous Friedman-esque view that the only responsibility of business is to provide profits to its shareholders (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Friedman, 1970).

Political theories look at the power relations between business and society and the responsibility, duties, and rights that come as a result of businesses' social power (Garriga and Melé, 2004). These political theories manifest in a variety of ways, but the main theories are 1) corporate constitutionalism, which looks at the social power that businesses have and social impact and responsible use of this power (Davis as cited in Garriga and Melé, 2004.), 2) integrative social contract theory or the implicit macrosocial and microsocial contracts between business and society and the indirect obligations of this contract (Donaldson and Dunfee as cited in Garriga and Melé, 2004), and 3) corporate citizenship or the idea of business as citizen. A renewed interest in corporate citizenship has emerged as the state has been more and more unable to meet social needs as globalization and its associated deregulation and market

externalities have grown. As a result, businesses are increasingly called on to take on a more active social role in the communities, local and global, where they operate (Garriga and Melé, 2004).

The third type of CSR theories that Garriga and Melé present are integrative theories, those that address how corporations integrate social demands and values into their business, recognizing that that businesses are dependent on society in order to exist and, hopefully, grow (2004, p. 57). According to Garriga and Melé, the integrative theories are “focused on the detection and scanning of, and response to, the social demands that achieve social legitimacy, greater social acceptance and prestige [for the business]” (2004, p. 58). These theories include: issues management or how and which social issues a business chooses to respond; the principle of public responsibility or the public process and policy framework that guide managerial responsibilities and behavior and in return, businesses participate in public policy formation; stakeholder management which looks to balance the responsibility towards people and groups affected by corporate policies and practices from employees and shareholders to NGOs and local communities; and finally, corporate social performance which integrates the previous integrative theories and where the social legitimacy of business is continually sought after via the operationalization and processes of social issues and stakeholder management (Garriga and Melé, 2004).

Ethical theories are those theories and approaches that focus on the ethical expectations, requirements and relationships that exist between businesses and society (Garriga and Melé, 2004). Central to these theories are universal rights, sustainable development, and a common good approach. Human rights and sustainable development have become particularly focused on by NGOs, activists and international institutions and bodies such as the United Nations and have

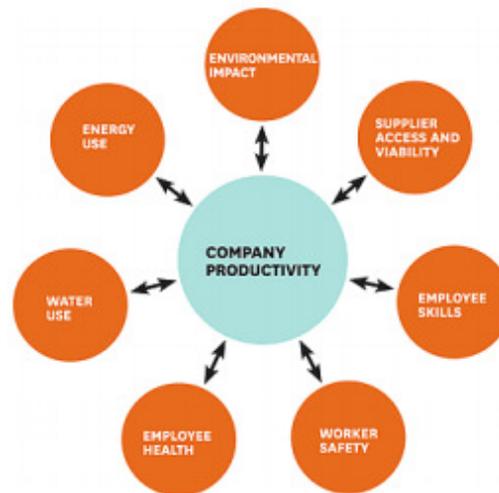
thus become central to many CSR policies and initiative in recent years (Garriga and Melé, 2004). Garriga and Melé make the important acknowledgement that these theories focus on the ethical requirements that “cement the relationship between business and society” (2004, p. 60).

Garriga and Melé’s grouping of CSR is similar to Carroll’s Pyramid of Social Responsibility in that they consider four dimensions related to profits, political performance, social demands and ethical values (2004, p. 51). However, Garriga and Melé (2004) classified and examined these grouping not just for the purpose of mapping the territory, but in order to argue that there is a need to develop a new theory of the business-society relationship that integrates all four of the above dimensions.

## Shared Value

While doing research on the CSR in general and then looking at the CSR policies and programs of well-known multinational companies such as Pepsi Co., Nestle, and Kraft, as well as during my time at Realized Worth, a global CSR consulting firm, the term shared value came up repeatedly. Porter and Kramer (2011) recognized that even though many in the corporate world have embraced the idea that CSR is now an expected part of business, many companies have an outdated approach to CSR and the value it brings. Additionally, even though it is the norm for companies to make CSR a part of their business, there is a distinct lack of trust between business, society, and the third sector of NGOs and multi-lateral agencies such as the United Nations (Kell, 2005; Porter and Kramer, 2011). Porter and Kramer coined the term shared value and argued that companies must take the lead in bringing business and society back together by connecting business success with social progress (2005, p. 2). Shared value creation “focuses on

identifying and expanding the connections between societal and economic progress” (Porter and Kramer, 2011, p. 2).



(Source: Porter and Kramer, 2005)

According to Porter and Kramer (2005), shared value redefines the boundaries of capitalism by reconceiving products, markets, and the value chain (logistics, procurement, distribution, employee productivity, location, and energy and resource use) and by enabling local cluster development and innovation. This means identifying both societal needs and opportunities, market, and shared value in serving and developing products and services in developing countries and disadvantaged or at risk populations. This redefines policies and practices that “enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates” (2005, p. 9).

For example, low priced mobile phones and service in Kenya have been used for mobile banking services, providing weather, agricultural, and crop-pricing services and information, signing up 10 million customers in three years, including 2 million farmers, increasing the incomes of at least 60% of them (Porter and Kramer, 2005, p. 5). With regards to shared value and supply chain, Porter and Kramer (2005) discuss how market externalities such as natural

resource and water use, worker health and safety, and issues such as packaging and transport also often create economic costs to the business. Supply chain innovation and sustainability in areas such as energy-use, logistics, resource use, procurement, distribution, location, and employee productivity create shared value in the sense that they provide long-term benefits to both society and to the business. “Wal-Mart, for example, was able to address both issues by reducing its packaging and rerouting its trucks to cut 100 million miles from its delivery routes in 2009, saving \$200 million even as it shipped more products. Innovation in disposing of plastic used in stores has saved millions in lower disposal costs to landfills” (Porter and Kramer, 2005, p. 5). Lastly, the idea of local cluster development drives productivity, innovation, competitiveness, collaboration, and efficiency in local communities not just with regards to the business, but also in terms of education, standards, law and policy, market transparency, and environment (Porter and Kramer, 2005, p. 8). As Porter and Kramer state, “the strongest international competitors will often be those that can establish deeper roots in important communities. Companies that can embrace this new locational thinking will create shared value” (2005, p. 8).

Porter and Kramer (2005) also consider how the social sector often does not consider the idea of value. There seems to be a certain value or moral divide between the social sector and the capitalist, for-profit sector. However, as the line between non-profit and for-profit blurs and as social enterprise and innovation continue to grow, particularly in developing nations, the idea of shared value and the connection between competitive advantage and social issues becomes apparent (Porter and Kramer, 2005). This is true not just for businesses and not-for-profits, but also for civil society and governments with regards to health, policy, and regulation. How do we operate in the capitalist world we live while still trying to make social impact? Porter and Kramer note that the concept of shared value supersedes the broader, umbrella concept of

traditional corporate social responsibility because it leverages the unique skills, expertise and resources of each particular company to “create economic value by creating social value” (2005, p. 14). Porter and Kramer’s framework is interesting comes from a business or market perspective, but it implies that we can use this entrepreneurial spirit or ingenuity to solve, or at least contribute towards solving, social issues.

### Triple Bottom Line

Like shared value, the idea of triple bottom line (3BL or TBL) has become increasingly popular in all three sectors, public, non-profit, and for-profit, and is common in both academic literature and in the business, management, NGO, consulting, sustainability, social impact, and CSR rhetoric. Triple bottom line refers to the idea that businesses should look beyond just the financial bottom line or performance (and thus reporting and measuring), but also at the social and environmental value added or destroyed by an organization. According to Elkington, the original author of the term triple bottom line, there is a global cultural revolution occurring (2004). As the world attempts to transition to sustainable capitalism, there are seven interdependent drivers (Elkington, 2004) that are happening simultaneously and that each affect the complexity of how society, business, governments, and non-profits work with each other and independently to either solve or do further damage to social challenges, needs, and issues. These drivers are markets, values, transparency, life-cycle technology, partnerships, time, and corporate governance (Elkington, 2004). Like the idea of Health in all Policies (Kickbusch, 2013), triple bottom line is ideal in theory, especially as it is based on the idea of measuring performance, but unsurprisingly, it is difficult to put into practice because of the difficulties of standardizing,

measuring and calculating applicable data in all three categories (financial, social and environmental).

#### Responsive versus Strategic CSR and the Ages and Stages of CSR

While surveying company support for corporate or employee volunteer programs (CVPs or EVPs) in Canada, Basil, Runte, Easwaramoorthy, and Barr (2009) turned to Porter and Kramer's model of Responsive versus Strategic CSR (2006). Responsive CSR is more passive and responds to generic social issues or on reacting to and remediating negative perceptions of the business or negative impacts from the value chain operations (Porter and Kramer, 2006; Basil et al., 2009). Conversely, Strategic CSR is much more active and tactical, looking to address specific social issues that affect the value chain, thus increasing the competitive advantage of the firm while simultaneously being socially responsive and proactive (Porter and Kramer, 2006; Basil et al., 2009).

Halme and Laurila (2009) state proactive CSR as a third stage of awareness or motivation in CSR activities and programs. Visser (2011) too argues that there is an evolution of CSR (Table 1: The Ages and Stages of CSR) and that it is not until businesses operate from a place of true responsibility as a corporate citizen that is built into their entire business model, that looks at the root causes of social issues, and where systemic and therefore sustainable social, environmental, health change can truly occur; where business, environment, and society are not seen as separate or independent entities.

**Table 1: The Ages and Stages of CSR**

<b>Economic Age</b>	<b>Stage of CSR</b>	<b>Modus Operandi</b>	<b>Key Enabler</b>	<b>Stakeholder Target</b>
Greed	Defensive	Ad hoc interventions	Investments	Shareholders, government & employees
Philanthropy	Charitable	Charitable programmes	Projects	Communities
Marketing	Promotional	Public relations	Media	General public
Management	Strategic	Management systems	Codes	Shareholders & NGOs/CSOs
Responsibility	Systemic	Business models	Products	Regulators & customers

(Source: Visser, 2011)

Visser argues that businesses must make the journey through each of the stages with regards to motivation, modus operandi, and the level of social system (micro, meso, and macro) that is positively impacted (2011). However, organizations tend to get trapped somewhere in the first four stages due to three main failings of how CSR currently operates. First, CSR tends to remain on the periphery of a business, usually in the human resources, corporate affairs, or public relations part of a company, and is never truly being integrated into the entire business model and, on a side note, is usually restricted to large, high-visibility companies and brands who thus set what is considered normal or expected with regards to how CSR is done (Visser, 2011). Secondly, CSR does not recognize the urgency or scale of response needed to meaningful impact ever-growing social, environmental, and economic issues and inequalities and so, despite more CSR programs than ever, the micro-level objectives do not truly address root-causes and cannot cause more than incremental change (Visser, 2011). Lastly, CSR does not always make economic sense; the market does not consistently reward sustainable and responsible practices and the business case for CSR, which looks at the long-term pay-offs or benefits of CSR, including reputation management, risk management, employee satisfaction, competitive advantage, investor relations, operational efficiency, and market positioning (Carroll, 2010; Corporate Watch, 2014; Halme and Laurila, 2009; Visser, 2011) is not nearly as valued as short-term economic performance (Visser, 2011, p. 12).

In this 'Age of Responsibility', Visser (2010) calls for a revolutionized version of CSR that moves beyond the risk management or 'do no harm' CSR. In order to do so, CSR 2.0 as Visser (2010) coins it, must abide by five key principles: creativity, scalability, responsiveness, glocality, and circularity, but none of this can happen without a shift in, a clarification and reorientation, of the purpose of business (p. 20).

#### 4) Relations between CSR and Public Health: From Philanthropy to CR Innovation

Businesses have long been involved in both global and local social communities with names like Rockefeller, Carnegie, and Ford and their philanthropic activities dating back to the early 20<sup>th</sup> century to new philanthropy names of Gates, Clinton and Buffet. For example, right after 9/11 and the attacks on Washington and New York City, companies such as General Electric, Microsoft, Pfizer, AOL, Time Warner, and Merck pledged sums of between \$5 and \$10 million dollars, as well as services, to help with the immediate needs and aftermath of the attacks (Hess, Rogovsky, and Dunfee, 2002, p. 2). These companies donate millions of dollars not just during crisis and disaster relief, but also in the form of charitable donations, foundations, grants, sponsorship, and aid to non-profits, research, NGOs, and other third sector parties. While philanthropy provides so much in terms of resources, it is a somewhat hands-off "throw money at the problem" approach that does not consider the future or root causes of systemic social issues that affect public health. Philanthropy generally operates outside of the firm's core business model and operations and is used as a responsive, defensive and expected corporate behaviour and/or reaction whereby the business is looking to improve reputation and image (Halme and Laurila, 2009) and give back without actually becoming invested in the problem. While the intent to do good may be there and often the resources (money, volunteers, supplies, et

cetera) are appreciated, business are not socially accountable and invest little in making sustainable change.

Additionally, as Stuckler, Basu and McKee (2011) discuss, there is the critical issue of conflict of interest when it comes to global health philanthropy, institutional relationships, and the corporate involvement in health. While the private can provide many products and services that positively impact health, from pharmaceuticals to the advent of mobile and e-health, there is also the danger of the private sector setting the public health agenda and/or taking advantage of public issues in order to make a profit. Looking at five major American private non-profit foundations, - the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, Ford Foundation, W. K. Kellogg Foundation, Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, and Rockefeller Foundation – which happen to be the world's largest global health foundations, Stuckler et al. (2011) examined areas of conflict of interest, as well as the governance and regulation policies of said foundations, that may affect global health. Stuckler et al. identified various corporate strategies and power opportunities that foundations use that have the potential to influence public health and its promotion. These opportunities include: distortion of science, political influence, public relations and associated communications and marketing, financial tactics, legal and regulatory tactics, and products and services (2011). Some of the major issues that Stuckler et al. (2011) found were: 1) that the money for private foundations often comes from sources and profits that are actually counter-productive to improving population health outcomes (such as mining, petrochemicals, and alcohol investments), 2) who the key foundation influencers and decision makers are (are the people who are making decisions about such huge sums of money experts, academics, policy advisors, or on the board due to their executive standing?), and 3) where the money goes (which organizations or issues get funded, how much money goes towards buying resources, and how

much in terms of pay for research or employment?) and who are the indirect and indirect funding beneficiaries?

Taking this criticism of the power roles that private companies and individuals have in social issues even further, Freeland wrote “The Rise of the New Global Elite” in *The Atlantic*, in which she examined the fact that there is this new plutocracy or global elite of “economic meritocrats” (para. 24) who are sitting on boards and doing (and creating) the international circuits of economic, philanthropic, and geopolitical, and environmental conferences such as the World Economic Forum in Davos, the Boao Forum, *Zeitgeist*, and TED. Beyond basic philanthropy, this social elite of the world’s wealthiest capitalists is creating its own global community and using its massive socioeconomic and political power to shape global agendas of social, environmental, political, and health issues (Freeland, 2011).

Beyond philanthropy, there is the idea of CR integration. Firms practicing corporate responsibility integration look to adjust their existing business operations to be more responsible towards customers, employees, and suppliers (Halme and Laurila, 2009). CR integration tends to look at the environmental and social performance of a business, its current operations, and to make improvements to these factors. Examples of CR integration include paying fair wages to employees, supporting and acting on responsible supply chain measures (ex. no sweat shops or child labour), proper training and safety programs, secure equipment, and integrating environmentally responsible and sustainable practices in all aspects of the business, from manufacturing to supply chain to corporate (Halme and Laurila, 2009).

Moving beyond philanthropy or even CSR integration, there is concept of CR innovation, as discussed by Halme and Laurila (2009). CR innovation refers to the idea of developing new products or services to provide solutions to social, environmental, and health problems or issues.

It should be noted that CR innovation as discussed by Halme and Laurila (2009) is different from social enterprise, which Grant and Palakshappa define as part of the third sector or voluntary sector that encompasses “a range of activities including not for profits engaging in market activity, co-operatives, social service to the community and social business” (2013, p. 2). While there is much overlap and a certain amount of blurring occurring between social enterprise and CSR as we consider value (which is considered in this domain due to the idea of providing services and products), who should and can provide social goods and services, and cross-sector partnerships, CSR, and thus CR innovation is still about business. This means that the bottom line is to generate revenue. If it (the business) can do so while solving or ameliorating social, health, and environmental issues then it is, according to Halme and Laurila (2009), win-win. Either way, as the pressure for governments to trim budgets and social programs and the health and social needs of the public increase faster than the public sector and governments can meet them, a new market is evolving, as debatable and controversial as the term market may be.

A similar but alternative view of CSR and its partnerships, whether it is via philanthropy, CR integration, or innovation, is demonstrated by Selsky and Parker's (2011). Selsky and Parker (2011) argue that social needs are “pervasive, endemic, multi-scalar, interconnected, and evolving...[and] socially constructed by the set of stakeholders that claim an interest in them” (p. 21). It is beyond the scope or capabilities of any one organization, sector or even nation to “solve” multifaceted and complex social challenges and is further complicated by the fact that the lines between traditional sectors are blurring, as are the social contracts of each sector not just to society, but to each other. Whose job, responsibility, or even opportunity is it to work towards solving social, environmental, and health issues? How do we get sectors, not to mention

industries or countries, to make use of their own strengths, expertise, resources, and passions and to work collaboratively to make social change?

How different sectors frame, focus on, and address the same social problem is very different due to the “prime directive” of each sector (Selsky and Parker, 2011, p.22). Additionally, the different skills, resources, social capital, and expertise that each sector or organization brings to the table will vary. By focusing on a social challenge together, cross-sector partnerships is not only more effective and efficient, making use of the different resources of each sector, but there are also opportunities for social innovation, addressing social needs in new and creative ways, possibly, hopefully, providing the space for positive social change.

Cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs), as discussed by Selsky and Parker (2011), are a critical way to consider how CSR can be used in collaboration with other sectors in order to have a positive, meaningful, efficient impact on social issues. CSSPs tend to fall into three categories: resource-dependence platforms (concerned with meeting or solving organizational needs and problems first, social benefits are an added bonus), social-issue platforms (identifying and addressing a fixed social need or issue), and societal-sector platforms (recognition of new ways of doing business and partnerships to address both self-interest and social needs) (Selsky and Parker, 2011). These three platforms vary in their conceptualization of sectors (and thus each sector’s social responsibility), the orientation of different types of CSR partnerships, dependencies within the partnership, how problems are defined, contextual factors, prospective sense-making themes, and level and depth of potential benefits and beneficiaries (Selsky and Parker, 2011, p.30). They also recognize the potential hegemony and power dynamics that exist in social partnership, but argue that the higher-level societal-sector platforms ideally transcend

these power dynamics and CSSPs evolve, while recognizing there is always a balance between idealism and pragmatism in both discourse and practice.

## DISCUSSION

While researching CSR and social impact, various management and business ethics journals came up, referencing the both the financial and non-financial business impacts of CSR, but there was an extremely limited amount of literature discussing the non-business implications of CSR, particularly in health, policy, and social science-related journals. Initially I was frustrated, but I soon realized that reviewing history, theory, and practice of CSR from business and management literature was hugely beneficial in understanding how that world or sector views CSR and the social roles and responsibilities of the corporate world. Three main areas of interest for further study came out of the literature review.

### 1) Conceptual Clarity in Practice

Despite the profusion of CSR literature, concepts, theory, criticism, advocates, and discourse, what CSR actually means and how it is (and should be) practiced is still mind-bogglingly unclear, especially when one considers how normative it is, how much it is talked about, the multitude of stakeholders involved in it, the resources invested in it, and the impact or potential impact it has to on social, political, environmental, economic, and health issues.

Conceptual clarity is needed in order to ensure that all stakeholders, whether it is CEOs, human resources managers, NGO and foundation employees, academia, policy advisors, multilateral agencies, governments, or even civil society, define, and interpret CSR in the same way.

Conceptual clarity is one of the first steps towards making meaningful and impactful use of CSR

to efficiently and collaboratively solve social, environmental, and health issues. Reviewing the literature, it became clear just how unclear CSR is, particularly with regards to practice.

While the multitude of typologies and CSR theories are helpful, as Halme and Laurila state, “most often these typologies seem to serve research purposes” (2009, p.327). It seems as though CSR is being widely practiced, but every company, not to mention variations from industry, sector, and nation, views and practices CSR in their own way with little understanding of how to create systemic and sustainable change. Despite the talk of multiple stakeholders, collaboration, and cross-sector partnerships, CSR seems hugely wasteful in terms of resources including time, money, skills, technology, and even good intentions, if meaningful action does not happen. Between academia and the real world, between disciplines, between CEOs, managers and employees, between organizational levels, and between civil society, sectors, industries, and nations.

Additionally, conceptual clarity helps with policy and regulation, measurement of needs, impact assessments and performance evaluation, expectations, roles, and responsibilities. This is not true for all of the various CSR stakeholders, not just the business. Conceptual clarity also assists with implementation, evaluation of CSR programs, policies, and initiatives and acts as a foundational building block for improving and revolutionizing CSR to what it should can do in terms of scale, scope and impact as suggested by Visser (2010).

## 2) Standardization and Measurement

One of the conundrums of CSR is that while it is in many ways both expected and criticized, beyond the legal confines of the law, it is entirely voluntary. As such, policy, regulation, best practices, and measurement are difficult to standardize. This becomes

particularly evident when considering multi- and transnational corporations and global governance. How does one, whether it is an individual company, a multinational corporation (MNC), a regulatory body, or the academic world, measure the impact of CSR? Impact of what on what?

Developing measurement systems (of both current situations and impact of an intervention/program/initiative) is incredibly difficult, not just in terms of developing measurable indicators, but also in terms of the structural, political, cultural, and bureaucratic barriers. How a company, industry, or country defines and measures CSR, sustainability, impact, what issues are important, national and internal laws, regulation and standards – all of these things matter when developing CSR measurement systems. Attempts, however, have been made and there are multiple indices and rankings that measure CSR such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 26000, the Dow Jones Sustainability Index, and different auditing, consulting, and measurement organizations and firms such as Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini Research & Analytics (KLD) and True Impact, not to mention online software. However, these rankings and indices tend to measure CSR from a business or corporate framework, looking at the business impact and/or return on investment of CSR; they do not measure CSR from a more holistic or multi-sectoral point of view.

Lastly, there is the issue of what and how we measure. A company may have a high rating or ranking, but does it matter if the impact is on a micro-societal level? Who decides the scope and scale of CSR? And on a more critical note, what if the indicators that are being measured are simply a diversion from the market externalities that are truly happening? Is anyone held accountable if CSR targets or goals are not met? Does lack of actual accountability affect what is being done, especially if it is entirely voluntary, or is it the thought that counts?

### 3) What is Important and What is Enough?

While the CSR discourse uses words such as collaboration, innovation, partnerships, stakeholders, dialogue, social contract, capacity building, and sustainability, there is a distinct gap between theory and practice. Who decides what issues are important, how they should be addressed, what is enough or how much should the private sector and thus CSR contribute to ameliorating local and global social, environmental and health issues. What is considered “good” or “enough” CSR? If a company focuses on organizational social responsibilities or issues such as equal pay, closing the gender gap, sustainable and ethical operational and supply chain issues, is this comparable to working within the business’ local community or, on an even bigger scale, contributing to global social issues? Where and how do small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) fit in? What about employees? What do employees, current and future, expect from companies in terms of their corporate social responsibility? These questions are not easy to answer without getting overly cynical or, conversely, idealistic. But they do need to be asked and critically examined.

### CONCLUSION:

Initially, this study was going to look at CSR, public health, and social impact performance and measurement, but after completing the literature review, I realized that how business and management academics and practitioners understand CSR with regards to definitions, theory, concepts, and practice is critical to understanding how CSR affects public health. “We” in the public health sector must not only recognize the potential of CSR (to contribute towards social change) and to understand how “they” in the private sector understand and practice CSR and frame social issues. In order to make change, you must understand where

you come from and how the other players or stakeholders, especially those holding the money or power, understand their role. Though cross-sector collaboration and partnerships are part of the CSR, social impact, sustainability, and public health jargon in both academia and practice, there remains a division between public and voluntary sector and the private sector. Despite the jargon and buzzwords, there is an “us” versus “them” mentality in both the literature and in practice. Part of this stems from the sense of dependency rather than partnership that the public and voluntary sector has with the private sector. For example, there can be a hesitancy to question where money and resources come from because then slippery topics such as ethics and systemic issues versus immediate needs and resources come up. So there is a fine balance between the critical analysis and awareness is needed in CSR and partnerships and being idealistic or ignorant about what businesses are. Instead of looking at CSR from an overly cynical and critical or an overly lofty or idealistic view, we need to look for opportunities.

In improvisational theatre there is the rule of “Yes, and” (Fey, 2011). The idea is that you do not just agree or disagree with a statement or an idea, but you contribute to the discussion; it is your responsibility to move beyond pointing out problems and obstacles, but to add to the discussion and the solution (Fey, 2011). Lets move beyond just critiquing CSR, the private sector’s social, political, and economic power, and where and how its resources come from and are used and look for opportunities to make better and more efficient use of the potential that CSR has to positively impact the social issues that affect public health.

This is a definite gap in the public health and CSR literature. How can public health have a more influential voice at the decision making table when it comes to CSR and private-public partnerships? How can public health take advantage of the resources, innovation, and influence that CSR and the private sector offer? These are ideas that need to be better researched and

examined as well as experimented with via mechanisms such as grants for e-health and health innovation or using technology and digital media for better public health advocacy and communication. This literature review was not meant to tout CSR as the solution to social issues, nor was it meant to be self-righteous, pessimistic or cynical. Instead, the idea was that in order either to make better, more meaningful, impactful and sustainable use of the opportunities that CSR provides, or to realize that it is not working and it either needs to be revised or rejected for an alternative, a review of the current state of CSR is needed. Like Visser (2010) and Halme and Laurila (2009), I argue that a more engaged, critical yet opportunistic, regulated, standardized, and systems-based perspective to CSR, in both practice and theory, is not only necessary, but also an obvious opportunity for all sectors to participate in.

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