FIVE DECADES OF CSR RESEARCH

HAVE WE REALLY LEARNT ANYTHING ABOUT VALUE PERCEPTIONS SINCE NESTLÉ?

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ABSTRACT

With an increase in the popularity of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) across the globe—from CSR consultancy firms to consumer ethical movements—there is a need to develop our understanding of this surge. The purpose of this research is to critically review and synthesise the past five decades of CSR research with specific focus on the gap between management and consumer value perceptions surrounding CSR. Using an integrative review of 89 articles from 1970 to 2018, this research had two objectives: first to understand the focus of CSR research in the respective decades, and secondly to analyse the extent to which past studies recognised perceptual gaps between consumers and managers. This information was then chronologically and thematically analysed. Overall, this research found while researchers had identified perceptual gaps, there was a consistent absence to investigate these gaps further. As a result, there remains a productive direction for future research into the value perceptions of consumers and what, if anything, companies should do about these. Implications for stakeholders are discussed and future research directions are offered based on the outcome of this integrative review.
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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preface

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of the origins of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and how it has developed over the years. In particular, this chapter provides an introduction to two key cases of CSR failure: Nestlé and Fonterra New Zealand. While these companies CSR shortcomings occurred nearly five decades apart—both showed a lack of understanding of consumer values and how consumers perceive company CSR initiatives. Finally, this chapter will identify the key research issue to be investigated and the research objectives.
1.2 The case of Nestlé and Fonterra

In 1977, an international boycott was launched against Nestlé for their aggressive marketing of breast milk substitutes—particularly in developing countries (Baker, 1985). Tactics by Nestlé and other producers had caused the incorrect usage of the formula and resulted in infant deaths. As this expanded into a global scandal, with consumers going beyond just the company’s infant formula products, Nestlé’s first response was to defend themselves (Baker, 1985). Remarkably, it took Nestlé until 1981 to begin to comply with World Health Organisation (WHO) code and a further two years to change formula labels that implied infant formula was ideal for infants (Muller, 2013). In all, Nestlé’s reaction to the legal actions against them spanned over nearly a decade.

However, the deeper problem at Nestlé was one of mis-match between managerial beliefs about consumer values and those consumers themselves. When Nestlé ignored consumer outcry, the multi-national ignored their consumers value systems and expectations of the company. Nestlé management continued to push their own value system—so far as to send mail outs to 300 clergymen explaining their viewpoint—until in 1982 a nearly 50 per cent share of the two-billion-dollar infant formula market was at stake (Baker, 1985).

Thirty years later, in 2009 New Zealand company Fonterra faced a similar situation. Fonterra was held accountable by Greenpeace and several New Zealand newspapers for their coal burning practices (Greenpeace New Zealand, 2009). Protestors shut down a mine pit in the South Island, and Greenpeace wrote an article targeting Fonterra’s practices that went against New Zealand’s ‘clean, green’ reputation (Greenpeace New Zealand, 2009). In 2010, at the International Dairy Federation’s World Dairy Summit, Fonterra was accused of greenwashing (Pearce, 2009).

A decade prior, New Zealand had agreed at the Copenhagen climate negotiations not to increase their greenhouse emissions. Despite this, emissions increased by 22 per cent and fuel burning had expanded by 39 per cent (Pearce, 2009). This was partially due to Fonterra’s coal burning practices and increase in dairy farms. For this reason, Fonterra’s greenwashing not only was detrimental to their own business, but to New Zealand’s international reputation. New Zealand was referred to as a ‘green mirage’ (Pearce, 2009). Yet, by 2018, Fonterra—similar to the case of Nestlé—were still delaying any real response. The company has promised to cut greenhouse emissions by 30 per cent by 2030 (Oram, 2017). However, this has been called an ambitious goal, a ‘delaying tactic’, and a desperate attempt to restore public support (Oram,
Moving forward, the question arises: despite five decades of CSR research, have we really learnt anything about consumer values versus managerial values?

### 1.3 Statement of the Problem

Due to a growing domain of CSR research there is a need to provide an in-depth review of the literature. This review provides a greater understanding of CSR research from 1970 through to the current year, 2018. The rationale for conducting this integrative review was based on the research of Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011). Looking at literature from 1970 to 2008, Taneja et al. (2011), systematically examined 80 articles from leading management journals. Taneja et al. (2011) analysed the type of research methodologies, types of articles, and development of CSR paradigms over the four decades. An overview of the decades investigated by Taneja et al. (2011) from 1970 to 2010 is provided in this review, as well as an in-depth review of the past decade. Ten years after Taneja et al.’s (2011) paper, this study aims to provide a better understanding of the CSR literature and bring fresh insights into the definitions, theoretical contributions, and development of perceptual gaps. The authors found that CSR lacked a clear definition which could assist practitioners in creating strategies. Further, Taneja et al. (2011) found that the argument for and against the financial case for CSR had never been resolved. Despite the popularity of CSR research, the reason for perceptual gaps occurring remains an under-researched area and has not reached a consensus for why they have occurred (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009).

The second issue this review aims to investigate is value perceptions in CSR research. Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009), were the first authors to identify a perceptual gap between consumers and managers. However, since their research study in 2009 it is not clear whether other authors have investigated this perceptual gap. It is also not clear whether researchers prior to Bhattacharya et al. (2009) investigated value perceptions, if at all. Therefore, this review seeks to extend Taneja et al.’s findings in two directions. First, by extending the time period to include CSR research over the decade since publication of their article. Second, by looking at a key area Taneja et al. (2011), did not consider: value perceptions. This will extend the scope of Taneja et al.’s (2011) study, specifically, exploring what researchers have said about gaps in value perceptions between consumers and managers in the period between 1970 to 2018.
1.4 Research Aims, Objectives, and Design

As stated, the aim of this integrative review is to critically review and synthesise the past five decades of research, focusing on understanding trends in CSR research and the differences between managerial and consumer value perceptions in relation to CSR. Specifically, looking at consumer and managerial value perceptions and whether the relevant body of knowledge and managers have shown they understand these value perceptions. An integrative literature review approach has been adopted to critique and synthesize representative literature in an integrated way with an aim to generate new insights on the topic (Torraco, 2005). This method adopts a more rigorous selection and evaluation of articles as compared to the traditional literature review (Whittemore and Knafl 2005).

The objectives of this research are:

- Understand and map how CSR research has evolved from 1970 to 2018.
- Identify how value perceptions are discussed in the literature and the differences between how managers perceived CSR over the decades versus how consumers perceived CSR.
- Provide recommendations for addressing value perception gaps in future research.

1.5 Significance of the Study

While the domain of CSR has received significant academic attention, there is a need to synthesise the existing literature (Taneja, Taneja, & Gupta, 2011). Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009) identified a perceptual gap between consumers and managers in their conceptual paper review. However, it is unclear as to what extent other researchers have investigated this gap. This integrative review takes a similar methodology to Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011) by providing further understanding of the current state of research on value perceptions, and to shed new light on the perceptual gaps between manager and consumer. While literature reviews have been commonplace in CSR literature, the systematic approach has only been utilised by three authors identified in this study. This was done by Taneja et al. (2011), Moscardo and Hughes (2018), and Pava and Krausz (1996). Pava and Krausz (1996) identified a gap between how managers perceived a CSR firm would perform versus how it actually performed (financially better), and Moscardo and Hughes (2018) identified an attitude-behaviour gap. However, none of these authors used a systematic method to investigate perceptual gaps. And although Pava and Krausz (1996) identified a managerial perceptual gap, this was not a gap between managers and consumers. This work provides the first
comprehensive review of perceptual gaps. Avenues for future investigation are identified to guide future research.

Therefore, the significance of this research is that it will not only map the trends in CSR research over five decades, but also investigate how managers and consumers value perceptions have developed over this time. By identifying the consumer and managerial value perceptions, this research will help managers understand what consumers value, and perhaps where the research is misunderstanding managers’ values. If Nestlé had understood its consumers from the early 1970s and what they valued in CSR, perhaps they would not have been boycotted numerous times since. Further, if Fonterra had understood in 2018 what consumers want to see in their CSR policies, perhaps they would have avoided now being accused of greenwashing. This is discussed further in the theoretical and managerial implications of Chapter Six. In all, CSR research has few integrative reviews, and this paper makes this contribution.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

Across the decades, CSR has taken many forms. From corporate governance to corporate responsibility and even simply social responsibility, researchers have used these terms synonymously. It is important to clarify that while CSR is sometimes included as a board/governance responsibility, it is not the same thing. In order to eliminate confusion in terms, this review will use the term ‘CSR’ to refer specifically to corporate social responsibility. Additionally, when discussing value perceptions, the selected articles looked at in this review used multiple words. These words included: “perception”, “perceive”, “perceiving”, “value” and “view”. While these terms aren’t synonymous, they were used interchangeably to refer to values or value perceptions. The concept of values can often be confused with the concepts of ethics, principles, virtues, or personal attitudes (Fitzpatrick, 2007). This review takes the definition of values as “…how we perceive our world and the values we select, which in turn affect our decisions and behaviour choices” (Fitzpatrick, 2007, pg. 290). This is the personal values (a set of attributes/characteristics/qualities that individuals value as being valuable to them) that the stakeholder, manager, or theorist holds; not the value creation from the CSR initiative. Value creation is not to be confused with individual values. It is a related but different concept and in much of the literature it relates specifically to financial value (money/profit). But value creation now also includes social value and environmental value. In this sense it equates with types of wealth. The final terms that require
definition is the difference between the use of the words ‘perception’, ‘value perception’, and ‘expectation’ in this dissertation. How the relevant stakeholder or manager perceives a CSR initiative refers to whether the prior expectation meets the perception of the actual CSR initiative. Value perception differs to this as this refers specifically to whether the value the consumer or manager perceives, meets the perceived (personal or collective) values the consumer or manager expect to achieve. Finally, expectation refers to the expected outcome differences between consumers and managers. While consumers expect management to act socially responsibly, the company may not meet consumers’ expectations. This is different to perceptions. For instance, if a consumer expects a company to act socially responsibly and they meet this expectation, this expectation has been met. However, how the consumer perceives the fulfilment of this expectation differs. The perception can be affected by personal, collective values, or other contributing factors. These differences are discussed further in Ch.5.

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

This integrative literature is organised as follows. Chapter Two provides a review of CSR literature citing key trends. Chapter Three provides an overview of the methodology used, and how the sample of articles were chosen. Chapter Four examines the literature decade-by-decade from the 1970s through to 2018. In particular, this chapter explores key trends in the research and discussion of managerial or consumer perceptions. Chapter Five takes the findings from the chapter four integrative review and maps these against key economic trends around the globe. From this, insights are drawn based on how CSR research has developed alongside these key events. The perceptual gaps are then discussed and the extent to which they have been recognised/received attention over the decades. Chapter Six summarises the findings from the review and provides insight from a managerial and theoretical perspective. Finally, limitations of the research are discussed as well as directions for future research.
OVERVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Preface

The following chapter provides an overview of CSR literature. The chapter begins by surveying the origins of CSR in the factory system of Great Britain and the United States during the latter part of the Industrial Revolution. What emerges is an early conflict between the role of business and its responsibilities to employees and to society. The chapter traces the development of these ideas to the latter part of the 20th Century, as interest in CSR increases and key areas emerge, such as the profit maximisation debate and environmental concerns around CSR.
2.2 Overview of Literature

The origins of CSR commence in the factory systems of Great Britain and the United States. As Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, and Siegel (1999) point out, by the 1800s the factory system was facing criticism due to sweat shops and harsh working conditions. In the UK, life expectancy in factory towns was 18 and half the children died before reaching the age of six (Lynch, 2006). The Factory Act of 1819 limited the working day of nine-year-olds to 12 hours, but this only applied to the cotton industry. And in 1825, a Saturday half-day holiday was introduced for children (Lynch, 2006). Not all business owners agreed with such harsh practices and some began to act in beneficent ways. In 1800 businessman and reformer Robert Owen in New Lanark, Scotland, was determined to prove that a business could make a profit and take care of its staff. At one of the UK’s largest textile mills, Owen integrated staff welfare practices such as housing, free medical care, and education alongside the drive toward company profits. The result was that even the Tsar of Russia visited New Lanark to observe the results of Owen’s social experiment (Wren, 1994).

Owen was not alone. Sir Titus Salt, mayor of Bradford in the 1850s, did similar. Originally a factory owner, Salt closed his factory to build the Salts Mill outside of Bradford in picturesque surroundings and away from the polluted city. Over a period of 20 years, Salt created the village of Saltaire, building 850 houses for his employees. He paid for a hospital, library, church, and provided 3,500 jobs (Lynch, 2006). When Sir Titus Salt passed away in 1876, the funeral procession was over 12 miles long attended by over 120,000 people, such was the respect for what he had achieved (Lynch, 2006).

In the United States, Steinway piano manufacturers purchased a piece of land to be used as a church, library, and school for their employees (Lynch, 2006). Similarly, in 1887, Macy’s department store in New York City contributed company funds to multiple charities including an orphan’s asylum, and put gifts to charities under ‘miscellaneous expenses’ in their company financial records.

Other socially-minded pioneers included the Cadbury Brothers, George and Richard, who established their Bournville factory in the Birmingham countryside instead of housing workers in a polluted city (Ella, 2009). The Cadbury Brothers social conscience was founded in their Quaker beliefs that everyone should be treated equally and fairly and that those who had benefited from society had a duty to give back (Ella, 2009). George Pullman—founder of the Pullman Palace Company—did the same in 1893, building a community town that showcased housing standards beyond its time, playgrounds, a church, a casino, and hotel. Similar to
Bournville, Pullman revolutionised living conditions for his employees and their families (Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, & Siegel, 1999). The actions of these pioneers culminated in what were termed the charity principle and the stewardship principal: ideas emerging from their Quaker and Calvinist work ethics. These were ideas that the pioneers proved were not at odds with having a successful company (Dillard and Murray, 2013). (Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985)

Some, such as American steel baron Andrew Carnegie, gave their money away after they had made their fortune. When he sold the Carnegie Steel empire in 1901 Carnegie’s share was valued at $225 million (Harvey, Maclean, & Gordon, 2011). Carnegie then commenced building free libraries around the world, including New Zealand, from the money he made selling his steel empire (Harvey, Maclean, & Gordon, 2011). His idea in starting libraries was to promote learning and to help others improve their circumstances, who, like himself, had started from nothing. Carnegie maintained that God wanted us to do well in order to do good (Drucker, 1984).

By the late 20th century, the CSR debate was receiving theoretical attention. In 1970, United States economist Milton Friedman stated that "There is one and only one social responsibility of business—to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits…” (Friedman, 1970, pg.6). Friedman, argued that social responsibility undermined the foundations of free society because it was socialist. Friedman believed the company was an ‘artificial person’ and therefore had artificial responsibilities, and because it was not a human could not have real responsibilities. Further, Friedman believed that senior management were agents for the owners and their primary responsibility was to the owners of the company (Friedman, 1970).

Not all agreed with Friedman. Davis (1973) maintained that CSR was more than individual beings acting in socially responsible ways, and CSR should refer to the acts of the company. Further, Davis argued that the company should be open to criticisms from society and factor the costs of social responsibility in product pricing. Austrian economist Peter Drucker sided with Davis. Drucker (1984) said, “…the proper “social responsibility” of business is to tame the dragon, that is, to turn a social problem into economic opportunity…” (p.36). Drucker maintained that in order to do well, a company must do good and that social issues can be solved when treated as opportunities. Indeed, the debate has continued to the present day (Blumberg, 1970; Davis, 1973; Ostlund, 1977; Walters, 1977; Epstein, 1979).
2.3 The Debate Widens

As much as Friedman and Davis showed the issue around CSR to be about profit maximisation and the extent of company responsibilities, others have since widened this issue. In the context of the 1980s questions emerged over the role of government in resolving social issues and society and how much companies should be involved in solving social issues (Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, & Siegel, 2008). Epstein (1987) argued that while the law was necessary to define the company’s obligations, this was not a sufficient means of establishing business standards and expressing societal values. Cochran and Wood (1984) argued there was no financial correlation between social responsibility and success of the business. Boal and Perry (1985) argued firms may need to make trade-offs between social good and their economic interests. Aupperle, Carroll, and Hatfield (1985), suggested that the intangible benefits of CSR needed investigation.

Globalisation, too, became an issue in CSR. In 1975 there were 7000 transnational corporations; in 1994 this had expanded to 34,000. (Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, & Siegel, 2008). Expanding wealth and power blurred lines of responsibility. Questions began to emerge such as: are such companies responsible to their home countries, to their eventual markets, or to governments? Or are such companies too powerful and beyond the reach of regulation by society and government (Schwartz & Gibb, 1999). Similar to the early social pioneers of the 1800s such as Robert Owen, a few global pioneers like Ben & Jerry’s also seemed to act in ways that appeared counter to the prevailing managerialism and profit maximisation ethos. Both Anita Roderick’s The Body Shop and Ben & Jerry’s ice cream developed reputations for their CSR practices, and their reputations have remained strong into the early part of the 21st Century (Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, & Siegel, 2008).

Indeed, one line of research suggested that consumers may be rewarding companies that acted socially responsible. Gupta and Brubaker (1990) found that the public rewarded companies that acted in socially responsible ways: from rewarding employees to doing social good to not testing chemical products on animals. Bebbinton and Gray (1993) suggested that companies were having to consider moral and ethical decision-making processes that did not comply with the traditional profits-orientated structure of the business.

Most recently, research in CSR seems to be shifting. Unlike the dominant Freidman/Davis debate around ‘should business be involved in corporate social responsibility’, more recent literature seems to have accepted the requirement for CSR and is now concerned with the form
The debate about ‘why should we be socially responsible’, seems to have shifted to ‘how can we incorporate CSR’ for companies (Smith, 2003).

Further, corporate giving had moved from an obligation to part of a corporate strategy (Kotler & Lee, 2006). In the US between 1999 and 2002, corporate giving to charities increased from $9.5 billion to just over $12 billion (Kotler & Lee, 2006). Similarly, reporting on CSR activities in annual reports also increased. Unlike Macy’s in the 1800s where corporate giving went under ‘miscellaneous expenses,’ in the early 2000s the majority of Fortune 500 companies were found to include sections in their annual reports labelled CSR or something of a similar nature (Kotler & Lee, 2006).

From a marketing perspective, Chen, Lin, & Chang (2013) suggest that CSR has become associated with green marketing, a popular method to differentiate environmentally-friendly products. At the same time, greenwashing—the act of misleading or overstating the environmental benefits—caused confusion in what was once a way for companies to show competitive advantage. Clearly, much work has been done in this area. And while the debate still continues over the profitability of CSR, one important gap that this literature review has identified is the place of the customer. Much of the emphasis of CSR research has been on the rights, duties, and responsibilities of management and businesses toward society, and often toward the employees of those businesses. Further, during the rise of globalisation, the emphasis has been over the responsibilities of businesses toward nation states. However, the question remains how we might understand the consumer in the field of CSR.

In the time of Robert Owen, and in the absence of a large middle class, consumer needs were often around housing, working conditions, and working hours. When businesses took action on these matters they were seen as ‘socially responsible”. During the early 1800s, Britain did not have a middle-class (New Lanark Trust, n.d.). Socially, there was rich and there was poor. Today’s society and today’s consumer is more complex. In today’s society with environmentalism and greater expectations from customers toward companies, CSR is no longer as straightforward as providing jobs in a safe work environment. Consumers are concerned with higher-order needs including emerging environmental issues, animal abuse, greater equity etc. (Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013). Although past CSR research has addressed this concern by investigating what consumers demand from companies, scant attention has been devoted to how consumers perceive the value provided by the company.
2.4 Summary

Overall, this chapter has provided an overview of the CSR literature. This chapter has traced the development of CSR from the factory system of the 1800s to the present day. Researchers have noted how CSR began as a pioneer movement during the Industrial Revolution and gradually became more mainstream. The transition however has not been straightforward. Economic theorists, such as Milton Friedman, have put up strong cases arguing for companies to give profit maximisation precedence. Yet, others, such as Peter Drucker hold that while profits may be a primary responsibility, an immediate second responsibility is to do social good.

While it is clear from the aforementioned discussion that consumer preferences in CSR have changed over time (Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013), it remains unclear as to whether the topic of value perception gaps between consumers and managers has received sufficient academic attention in CSR literature.
3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Preface

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the research methodology. It outlines the integrative literature method and why it was chosen for this study, including a detailed explanation of how the articles were chosen and the parameters for this study. The limitations of this method are also discussed.
3.1 METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to critique and synthesize literature on CSR value perceptions. According to Torraco (2005), the integrative literature review addressed both emerging and mature literature. While the literature on CSR fits into the category of mature, the area of CSR perceptions has been an emerging area of literature (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009). Therefore, the integrative review approach was chosen for this study as it enables scholars to discover new insights from critiquing the existing literature (Torraco, 2005). This fits with the objectives of this research which is to identify the trends in CSR literature, and investigate consumer and managerial value perceptions and how they have developed. Torraco (2005) suggested an integrative review must have three components: a research area that needs reviewing, an overview of the existing research, and possible areas where insights would be valuable. This integrative review fits all three categories. With five decades of research into CSR, this review provides an overview of the literature. From this overview, the area of perceptions where insights would be valuable is discussed. The intention of this integrative review is to provide directions for future research into consumer and managerial value perceptions. This is in line with Torraco (2005) who maintained that the success of the integrative review is shown through its ability to provide directions for future research.

3.2 SAMPLE OF ARTICLES

Similar to Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011), an integrative literature review approach was taken in order to develop a better understanding of a broadly researched topic. Firstly, a collection of terms used in reference to CSR was identified including: corporate social responsibility, corporate governance, social responsibility, social accounting, corporate responsibility, and corporate social performance (CSP). These terms were run through six databases: Business Source Premier (EBSCOhost), ProQuest, ScienceDirect, SpringerLink, Web of Science; Taylor & Francis Online. As said earlier, the rationale for five decades and not three or four was to be able to extend the findings of Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011).

Next, the terms ‘corporate governance’, ‘corporate social responsibility’, social responsibility’, ‘corporate sustainability’, and ‘corporate responsibility’ alongside the term ‘value’ or ‘value perceptions’ were searched across the six aforementioned databases. These terms were used interchangeably in CSR research or when discussing value perceptions and therefore were subject to the word search to ensure relevant articles were not missed. From an
initial collection of 1059 articles, a qualifying process (described below) was used to ascertain those that should remain in the study and those that should be discarded. Then, each article was downloaded and subjected to further scrutiny.

This selection process was adopted following discussions with supervisors and in line with Torraco’s (2005) integrative review approach. This is outlined in the following flowchart.

Step 1. Database search produced an initial sample of 1059 articles

Step 2. These articles were then separated into the five decades (1970–2018)

Step 3. The articles were ranked in order by the number of times articles cited. The aim here was to generate a sample of articles that had influenced the discipline and the proxy for this was the number of times cited. Some articles, such as those by Orlitzky, Schmidt, and Rynes (2003) been cited over 1,900 times. For the purposes of utility to create a sample that might be analysed in sufficient depth within the time allocated for this study, those articles that were cited 15 times or less were discarded. This left a sample of 490 articles.

Step 4. The sample of 490 articles was further reduced by examining article abstracts and discarding those where obvious research or findings were not relevant to perceptions or understanding trends in CSR such as Javed, Rashid, and Hussain (2016). This reduced the sample to 160 articles.

Step 5. These 160 articles were subjected to close reading covering content such as research objectives, theoretical background etc. to confirm suitability for the study, using the same criteria as Step 4.

The above process produced a final sample of 89 articles from 45 journals which became the basis of this study. Each of these articles were (a) on the topic
of this investigation (b) the author(s) had sought to comment on, or make a contribution to, understanding the domain of CSR.

There were three criteria established to ensure quality control. As a note, the study included only published peer-reviewed journal articles in English. To this end, conference proceedings, reviews of articles, essays, books, and chapters in edited collections were excluded. While these could be included in a broader investigation, and a number of books and chapters were read to inform understanding of key CSR trends, they were excluded due to time and resource constraints of the study. Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011) also excluded book chapters and reviews due to resource constraints. There were three exceptions to these requirements: this was Kotler and Lee (2006), Engel (1979), and Stone (1986). These theorists were included due to their significant contribution to the understanding of CSR.

As stated above, articles that had been cited more than 15 times were included in the study. However, those that appeared to be of marginal relevance were subject to a word search and a close reading. From this, papers were subjected to a word search in order to identify if the article discussed consumer or managerial perceptions. Key terms were: “perception”, “perceive”, “perceiving”, “value”, and “view”. After identifying the use of any of these keywords, the article was subject to further analysis. If there was no mention of consumer/managerial values or perceptions, and the article made no significant contribution to understanding the CSR climate of the time, it was eliminated from the research.

The 89 articles selected for this review were categorised both thematically and by decade in order to ascertain patterns in the research. First, articles were organized in chronological order then data was extracted according to journal, discipline, industry, region, research type, contribution, and treatment of perceptual gaps. The full data extraction appears as a Table in Appendix 1. In this manner, trends in CSR research and key areas of interest for researchers could be identified and discussed.

### 3.3 LIMITATIONS

While the present integrative review could yield useful information about the nature and type of CSR research across these five decades it was not without limitations. A key limitation of the study was that the selected articles were content-analysed by only one coder. The absence of comparison of differing viewpoints between coders would give precedence to one perspective and may have an effect on conclusions made (Leclerq, Hammedi, & Poncin, 2016).
In addition, this review excluded articles written in languages other than English given the linguistic constraints. Therefore, some relevant articles published in non-English journals might have been missed.

3.4 SUMMARY
The final research sample of 89 articles were identified from 45 journals. In order to explore how the literature has developed, the 89 articles were limited to the five decades from 1970 through to 2018. The size of this sample, while not exhaustive, is comparable to the sample size used in similar studies undertaken by other researchers such as Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011) who sampled 80 articles.
This chapter describes the findings of the research. Initially, the 89 research articles are analysed by location, type, industry, discipline, and contribution. Following this is a detailed integrated review of each decade. The full conceptual table produced for this research is presented in Appendix 1. This chapter provides a summary of the main findings before discussion of the results in Chapter 5.
4.2 Region
The 89 articles selected for this study represented a variety of geographical regions (see Figure 1). Twenty-four of the total 89 articles identified in this literature review were studies completed in the United States. What was notable being how this research developed. In the first decade, all of the research came from the United States. By the 1990s, just over a quarter of the research was coming from the UK and Europe. By the current decade (2010-2018) the research from the United States accounted for less than 20 per cent of literature. Over 40 per cent came from the UK and Europe, and more than 25 per cent came from around the globe—including Australia, Singapore, and India. What this indicates is that CSR research is a growing area of enquiry in areas outside the United States. India was the only developing country present in this research study. Across all five decades, Singapore, Taiwan, and Malaysia were the only Asian countries present. China received no mention.

Figure 1
Publication by Region

4.3 Representation of Journals
Figure 2 shows the journals in which selected CSR research was published, listed by decade. The figure includes the journal ranking to ensure all journals were either ranked as A, B, or C, as well as the disciplinary source of the journal, i.e. marketing, management, etc. This analysis

\[\text{Figure 2}\]

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure2.png}
\end{center}
showed that while CSR research sits predominantly in the management and marketing literature, it was also found to be popular in other areas such as agriculture, accounting, and law.

**FIGURE 2**

**REPRESENTATION OF JOURNALS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decade</th>
<th>Non-management/marketing</th>
<th>Journal name/Ranking</th>
<th>No. of papers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academy of Management Review</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Boston University Law Review</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Business &amp; Society Review/Innovation</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Business Horizons</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>California Management Review</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Law Review</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Personnel Psychology</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Hastings Law Journal</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Accounting, Organizations and Society</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>American Business Law Journal</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>California Management Review</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>International Journal of Social Economics</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Iowa Law Review</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Journal of Management</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Accounting, Organizations and Society</td>
<td>A*</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Agribusiness: an International Journal</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Business &amp; Society</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Business Ethics: A European Review</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Business Horizons</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Business Strategy and the Environment</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>California Management Review</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Journal of Accounting and Public Policy</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Journal of Business Research</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Caption: In Fig.2 the tick symbol indicates non-marketing/management journals. The ranking for each journal was based on the Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC) 2016 ranking list. Those marked ‘N/A’ did not have a ranking available.
Some early patterns emerged. For example, it is noteworthy that a third of the journals in the 1970s that investigated CSR were from the law discipline. In the 1980s, law accounted for a quarter of the journals in which CSR was a research focus. In the following three decades, CSR was not featured in the law literature. This reflects the development of thought around CSR where, in the 70s and 80s, many theorists were investigating CSR from a legal perspective (Blumberg, 1970; Epstein, 1979; Engel, 1979; Stone, 1985; Dunfee, 1987; Rodewald, 1987; Silverstein, 1987). The literature focused on the legal case for CSR, such as what was expected of companies from a legal perspective, and the legal ramifications if businesses did not meet societies’ expectations (Blumberg, 1970; Rodewald, 1987).

It was Dunfee (1987) who put this best. He argued that the social responsibility of companies begins where the law ends. In addition, Dunfee maintained that society wants companies to demonstrate social responsibility, and therefore their fate is decided. If they choose not to participate, not only will this lead to social disfavour, but it could also result in government regulation making CSR reporting compulsory. This perspective fitted with the ‘reactive’ response by companies in engaging in CSR during this period as avoiding public disfavour, and was normally a response to receiving a negative public reaction rather than a proactive choice by companies. Dunfee (1987) was an outlier amongst theorists in recognising
the benefits of CSR and foresaw ramifications such as the public outcry that many companies chose to ignore, such as Nestlé.

The 1990’s was a period of diversification across the non-marketing/management journals. While the first two decades were dominated with law journals, the 90’s diversified to journals such as agriculture and accounting (Patten, 1991; Boehlje, 1993). Three quarters of the articles were published in journals from the marketing and management disciplines. And, the number of journals publishing articles focused on CSR also doubled. Not only in the business sphere but also in the academic arena, CSR was a growing area of research interest.

By the early 2000’s, the number of journals in the business and management disciplines publishing CSR research significantly decreased. One explanation could be the increase in journals focusing on ethics such as *Journal of Business Ethics*. With specialising in this emerging area, there was less need for other journals to investigate CSR. As can be seen Figure 2, during the early 2000s the article published by Heal (2005) in *Geneva Papers on Risk & Insurance: Issues and Practice* was the only outlier outside the business and management disciplines. The rest of the journals all came from the marketing and management disciplines. While *Journal of Business Ethics* still maintained its strong presence in the following decade (2010 to 2018), other disciplines began to investigate CSR again, such as the disciplines of sociology, statistics, and tourism (Bakutyte & Grundey, 2012; Chen, Lin & Chang, 2013; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018).

Additionally, in 2010 to 2018, there was more variety in ethical journals discussing CSR. This included the *Business Ethics Quarterly, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, Social Responsibility Journal*, and *Sustainability Management Forum* in which CSR previously had not been present (Carroll, 2000; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018; Ling & Sultana, 2015; Mühlthaler, 2017). As to be expected, the *Journal of Business Ethics* was the predominant academic journal in publishing CSR research. However, even though the journal has existed since 1982, articles on CSR only became an increasingly popular research area from the early 2000’s onwards. One reason for this is that the early 2000’s appears to have been a period of moral awakening for consumers and companies. Academics did not foresee how popular CSR would be in the 2000s because prior to this the debate over the financial case for CSR had not been validated nor had any intangible benefits of CSR. It is clear from this analysis that as the field of CSR developed and gained relevance in society, more ethical journals appeared across the decades.

Additionally—especially in the early decades—the literature around CSR followed the trends of the time. In the early decades of the review this meant that much of the research was being contributed from the law discipline. During the final two decades consumers pushed for
CSR. This was reflected in the increase of consumer journals such as *Journal of Consumer Research* and *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, both of which appeared for the first time. CSR literature appears to have followed research trends in each decade.

### 4.4 Research Type

Table 1 provides a representation of the types of research conducted over the five decades. From Table 1 there are some distinctive types of research that have been consistently used by researchers across these decades. For example, conceptual papers accounted for 28 per cent of the research, and meta-analysis over 13 per cent. Both of these research methods were consistent from 1970 through to 2018. Systematic and integrative literature reviews have only accounted for two per cent of the literature and both appeared in the same decade: 2010 to 2018. Across the five decades of research identified in this study, only one of the articles was an integrative literature review. Even as early as the 1970’s, theorists were completing literature reviews. However, this method does not use a systematic method of collecting articles like the systematic review and integrative approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Research</th>
<th>No. of studies</th>
<th>As a Percentage of articles</th>
<th>Decades present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview/field-based/grounded theory</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey/Questionnaire</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content Analysis</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systematic/Integrative Literature Review</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation Index/ Multidimensional Scaling</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Essay/Books)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>89</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Over the five decades, only three of the 89 articles identified perceptual gaps from a literature review, systematic, or integrative approach. The first two of the three articles examined attitude-behaviour gaps known as the CSR paradox (Moscardo & Hughes; 2018; Janssen & Vanhamme, 2015). Moscardo and Hughes (2018) used the systematic literature review method, and Janssen and Vanhamme (2015) completed a literature review. The traditional literature review conducted by Janssen and Vanhamme (2015) differs from the systematic review as it does not use a rigorous and systematic method for article selection (Torraco, 2005). With specific regard to perceptual gaps, no study has used the integrative literature approach in the CSR literature.

The perceptual gap between consumers and managers was identified for the first time by Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009). However, the authors used a conceptual approach, whereas the methodology used for this review was used an integrative method. The conceptual approach, similar to the literature review does not use a system for analysing and collecting articles. Further, Bhattacharya et al. (2009), only suggested the need to investigate perceptual gaps and did not investigate this area themselves.

4.5 Industry

Between 1970 and 1999, nearly 40 per cent of the research covered in this review was non-industry-specific and this was consistent across three decades. Over 30 per cent of the literature researched Fortune 500 companies, Forbes 500, or completed cross-industry studies. What this meant was that the researcher did not specify the types of industries investigated any further. As a result, the contribution was insufficient regarding the effect CSR has on industries over these three decades. Just under 19 per cent of the research investigated specific industries such as life insurance or the manufacturing industry. Nearly half of this research came from the insurance, banking, and oil industries.

What also emerged, was studies into universities and their students’ perspectives of CSR. This was not present in the 1980s where cross-industry studies took precedence. In the 1990’s, there was an increase in industry-specific research. From trade associations, to manufacturing, to finance—theorists were looking beyond generic perspectives of CSR and were trying to understand how social responsibility affected different industries. Even in the agriculture industry, Boehlje (1993) found that agribusinesses had multiple reasons to become involved in CSR including mitigation of potential damages from crises, whereas Kenyon
(1996), examined the finance industry which still maintained that the business’s chief responsibility was to create long-term value and that only individual human beings were socially responsible.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry Classification</th>
<th>No. of mentions</th>
<th>As a Percentage of articles</th>
<th>Decades present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified Secondary (134)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (214/80)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified Total (Merchandise trade) (239/1)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Activities (186/K)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance (178/J)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and personal service activities (225/N)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food, beverages, and tobacco (33/15)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants (170/55)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services (236/93)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-specific/did not research an industry</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the industries investigated by researchers between 1970 and 1999. The industry research is grouped using the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) codes (International Trade Centre, 2008). Forty-eight of the 89 articles fell within this period and the table lists both the type of industry that researchers based their CSR research in (e.g. education, finance), as well as the number of articles that feature in this industry. For example, Finance featured as source material in three articles (6.3 per cent of those between 1970 and 1999). The final column identifies the number of decades in which these articles occurred. Of the three decades between 1970 and 1999, the Finance industry was only mentioned in CSR research in two of the decades.

Fortune 500 companies were placed under the ISIC code Unspecified Secondary (134). Together, Unspecified Secondary and Unspecified (Merchandise Trade) accounted for just over 35 per cent of the studies. In both cases, these studies occurred across all three decades from 1970 to 1999. The third largest category investigated was both the Finance (178/J) and
Education (214/80) grouping. This suggests that CSR researchers appeared to be drawn to large organisations and those spanning multiple industries, appearing to focus on identifying trends across a broad economic and commercial cross-section of organisations. At the same time, this data indicates that small and medium-sized businesses—especially not-for-profits—were not the focus of predominant studies in CSR.

Table 3 shows the 2000 to 2018 period. In this period non-specific research still dominated; however, it had declined by ten per cent. Specific industry research, such as Finance, Hotels and Restaurants, and Other Services, accounted for over 30 per cent of the research. Unspecified Total (Merchandise trade) accounted for just over 24 per cent of the literature—nearly a 12 per cent increase on the previous period. In addition, Other Services research, which falls under the Tertiary Industry category from ISIC coding, increased to representing over 20 per cent of industry research. Hotels and Restaurants accounted for nearly five per cent of the literature reviewed. The Food, Beverages, and Tobacco industry accounted for just over 2 per cent, as did the Education category. For the first time in these decades, researchers were investigating industries as narrow as the bottled water industry, with regard to CSR (Eberle, Berens, & Li, 2013).

**TABLE 3**

**INDUSTRY INVESTIGATED (2000–2018)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry Classification</th>
<th>No. of mentions</th>
<th>As a Percentage of articles</th>
<th>Decades present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified Secondary (134)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (214/80)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified Total (Merchandise trade) (239/1)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Activities (186/K)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance (178/J)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community and personal service activities (225/N)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food, beverages, and tobacco (33/15)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants (170/55)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services (236/93)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.95</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-specific/ not applicable</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

33
4.6 Chronological Analysis of CSR Research Studies

While the above tables provided useful information about the trends in target group focus in CSR literature, to better understand perceptual gaps required a closer reading. Section 4.6 presents the results of this analysis. First, the articles were subject to a close reading to identify the research contribution. An initial scan of the articles suggested eight possible categories in which research could be grouped. The names of these were refined as the research progressed. Although these categories were not meant to be exhaustive, they provided a mechanism for grouping theoretical contributions.

The eight categories were as follows:

1. **Legal frameworks and legal obligations of CSR**
   Legal implications of CSR.

2. **Management responsibilities in CSR**
   Management implications of CSR or overt management perspective.

3. **Company responsibilities in CSR**
   Company duties/responsibilities in CSR.

4. **CSR effect on employees**
   CSR implications for employees.

5. **Financial implications of CSR**
   Financial benefits/limitations/reporting aspects of CSR.

6. **Political/government implications of CSR**
   Government response/intervention/perspectives in CSR research.

7. **Definition of CSR**
   Definition and nature of CSR.

8. **Stakeholder Implications in CSR**
   Role of stakeholders, including consumers, in CSR.

Articles were assigned a category according to the main focus, and grouped according to decade. This process produced the following table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Engel (1979)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Epstein (1979)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Zahra &amp; LaTour (1987)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Researchers focused on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implication of CSR or</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overt management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perspective)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Acciaro (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chernev &amp; Blair (2015)</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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Table 4 shows the topic emphasis according to decade, allowing a clearer view of the level of interest in each topic across time. While further classification of Table 4 is possible, it is important to see how CSR research has funnelled towards areas such as company responsibilities in CSR. This provided greater insight into the nature of each contribution. In addition, while some articles, such as Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009), had implications for more than one category, the articles were grouped based on their chief contribution. For example, the legal frameworks and legal obligations of CSR, which was one of the initial categories, allowed studies to be grouped together that had focused on the legal implications of CSR (largely in reference to the United States legal system). From this analysis it was clear that there was initial interest in the 1970s—including work by Blumberg (1970 and Davis (1973)— and then a funnelling down of interest by researchers in subsequent decades. The usefulness of this approach was clear in other categories in Table 4. While many of the authors provided definitions of CSR, this was secondary to the findings of the research. In Carroll’s case, however, defining CSR was the main objective of the study; therefore, only Carroll’s 1979 article was included in this category.

Company responsibilities in CSR referred to those studies that had considered aspects such as how companies could adopt CSR or make the best use of CSR in their business practices. The focus of these papers was not the employee or manager, but rather the company
or the corporate culture as a whole. Again, the analysis in Table 4 revealed a useful pattern: there was a growing body of work in company responsibilities across the decades. Company responsibilities was the only category that continued to expand from the 1970s through all five decades.

The financial implications of CSR was a category that referred to research considering the extent to which CSR was financially profitable for the firm. This category included studies on social accounting and socially responsible reporting and the methods by which these could be reported to investors and stakeholders, as well as studies concerned with the validation of CSR from a long term financial perspective. For example, Cochran and Wood (1984) found that older companies were less responsive to CSR compared to younger companies. Particularly noteworthy was that in all but the final decade in Table 4, this category remained a strong area of researcher interest.

The final clear pattern to emerge in Table 4 related to Stakeholder Responses to CSR. No other category expanded in research intensity as rapidly as this category. This sharp trend reflects a shift in researcher interest from financial validations of CSR to consumer perceptions and stakeholder needs in respect of CSR. This category remains the largest among those investigated in the table.

The final stage of this analysis was to give a single descriptor to each of the decades—a descriptor that might adequately capture the theme of CSR research in that decade. For example, the 1970s were given the description ‘Regulatory Perspective’. This decade was centralised on validating CSR from a financial, legal, and governmental perspective. The following chapter discusses these findings. In line with the aim of this integrative review, insights offered in Table 4 are further analysed to reveal different value perceptions in CSR literature and how they have developed over time. Further, the analysis looks at—from a secondary research perspective—how managers perceived CSR over the decades versus how consumers perceived CSR and identifies any differences.
5

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of the previous chapter. In particular, it attempts to explain the impact of the integrative review outcomes on the current body of knowledge, and attempts to make sense of these in a broader economic context. This chapter is structured in three parts. Part A answers the first research objective posed in the introduction to the dissertation (Ch.1); Part B answers the second research objective demonstrating how value perceptions have been discussed/investigated in the literature reviewed, and finally Part C summarises and provides an explanation as to how these findings relate to existing body of knowledge about the topic of CSR.
The objectives of this research were:

- Understand and map how CSR research evolved from 1970 to 2018.
- Identify how value perceptions are discussed in the literature and the differences between how managers perceived CSR over the decades versus how consumers perceived CSR.
- Provide recommendations for addressing value perception gaps in future research.

Similar to Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta’s 2011 study, the research followed themes across the decades. Accordingly, the following descriptors were given as a way of making sense of the data. The descriptors are explained briefly below:

- **1970s - Regulatory Perspective**
- **1980s – Managerialism**
- **1990s – Stakeholder Consciousness**
- **2000s – Moral Awakening**
- **2010s – Rise of the Consumer**

The ‘regulatory perspective’ label was given to the articles from the 1970s due to the contribution of the research reviewed in this period: theorists were concerned with the legal implications of CSR and whether governments should concern themselves with regulating companies or whether companies should be self-regulating. In the 1980s, the debate shifted to validating CSR from a managerial perspective. Academics were concerned with the managerial, company and financial implications of CSR. This debate was not only pro-CSR, but also some theorists, such as Jones (1980), also argued that CSR was a form of self-control and companies should not be held to higher standards than political and social institutions. Hence, this period was given the title ‘Managerialism’.

In the 1990s, the label ‘stakeholder consciousness’ was used. This was largely due to the theoretical contributions being extended to include implications and insights for stakeholders. While previously company and managerial responsibilities in CSR were discussed in the articles reviewed, in this decade theorists were investigating employees’, investors’, and consumer’s perspectives of CSR. Graves and Waddock (1994) and Relch (1998) found that investors perceived companies with high corporate social performance as a lower risk investment even if these companies did not necessarily perform better, financially.
The 2000s were self-explanatory: theorists in the articles reviewed were in agreement that this period was a ‘moral awakening’ (Carroll, 2000; Saeed, Ahmed, & Mukhtar, 2001; Crane, McWilliams, Matten, Moon, & Siegel, 2008; Matten & Moon, 2008). Finally, the 2010 decade was labelled the ‘rise of the consumer’. As can be seen in Table 4, research in consumer responsibilities and perceptions of CSR accounted for a significant segment of the research reviewed in this study. Specifically, this decade investigated consumer value perceptions in relation to CSR and companies’ concern with consumers’ negative reactions to their CSR messages.

5.2 PART A: UNDERSTAND AND MAP CSR TRENDS

Using these category descriptors, this section discusses the key trends in CSR across the five decades of this research. To provide context for the trends in CSR research, Figure 3 takes into account key economic events across the globe—most especially economic crises—that are likely to have affected the development of CSR research across the five decades. The curvilinear line indicates the economic waves, upon which key economic events were mapped according to the decade in which they occurred. For example, the Dow Jones Sustainability Index (DJSI) was launched in 1999 and marked on the curve. When the economic environment was considered, it explained why the DJSI was launched during this decade. This period was the “stakeholder consciousness” decade highlighted along the top column. Stakeholders were becoming more aware of companies’ responsibility to society and there was pressure for credibility in CSR. The curvilinear line curves upward as the global economy was buoyant.

Beneath the curve the key CSR attributes of this decade were pinpointed such as validation being sought for CSR beyond financial measures. This was key as the DJSI indicated that stakeholders were using CSR as a benchmark for their investments and not only for profit reasons. For example, Waddock and Graves (1994) found that for companies to benefit from CSR there needed to be long-term investments. Whether or not the socially responsible companies performed better than other companies were not clear; however, there was less risk perceived in investing in socially responsible firms. Based on the key economic events highlighted in Figure 3, the data reveals reasons for researchers’ interests in investigating particular areas of CSR research. The figure enhances understanding of the perceptions of consumers and managers during the five periods reviewed.
5.3 The 1970s: Regulatory Perspective

The ‘regulatory perspective’ provides the best way to understand CSR research in the first decade of this review. Companies only responded to the call to become more socially responsible when required by government, law, or social pressures. This decade was a period of inflation and economic turbulence. There were two oil crises: one in 1973 and one in 1978 (Sorkhabi, 2015). Companies were more concerned with making profits and did not respond to the call to CSR unless they were required to do so, as there were no financial motivations. The 50s and 60s represented a period of abundance in oil across the globe, so the first oil crisis was a shock to the United States (US) (Sorkhabi, 2015). In 1973 the King of Saudi Arabia cut oil exports to countries that supported Israel (Sorkhabi, 2015). As the US was Israel’s main ally, this meant that the Arab oil ministers decided to use oil as a weapon against the US, cutting...
the oil exports each month and eventually stopping all shipments of oil to the US (Sorkhabi, 2015).

Prior to the second oil crisis in 1978, the US took precautionary measures including emergency oil stockpiling programmes and scoping other countries such as Alaska for alternative oil basins. Because the US was hit the hardest by the oil crises, much of the literature agreed that companies had a social responsibility. However, there was no conclusive decision about what their responsibilities looked like and whether CSR was financially profitable (Dunfee, 1973; Epstein, 1979).

Consequently, the 1970s were dominated by government and legal requirements in CSR. Researchers saw CSR as an obligation or result of governmental and societal pressures (Blumberg, 1970; Ostlund, 1977; Walters, 1977; Abbott & Monsen, 1979; Carroll, 1979; Engel, 1979; Epstein, 1979). Walters (1977, pg.40) highlighted the ‘traditional perspective’ of business as, “Any activation of resources not taken to increase profits is insufficient use of the company’s resources and adding an unnecessary cost to the business”. The financial cost of CSR to the business was still an ongoing debate (Ostlund, 1977; Abbott & Monsen, 1979). Blumberg (1970), Walters (1977), and Engel (1979) were in agreement: whether management liked it or not, government and society would trigger a response if companies did not begin to act socially responsible. While there were differing opinions whether CSR was financially beneficial—and whether investment in CSR was a good decision or not—society was a major driver in creating change and pushing companies to be socially responsible (Ostlund, 1977; Abbott & Monsen, 1979; Carroll, 1979; Grunig, 1979). It was no longer solely governmental pressure: society had acted to push companies in the ‘socially responsible’ direction (Ostlund, 1977; Walters, 1977).

Throughout the 1970s, companies continued to choose profits over social good (Blumberg, 1970; Engel, 1979; Epstein, 1979). Psychology was the only discipline that delved into perceptions and perceptual gaps in CSR at this early stage (Gavin & Maynard, 1975). Gavin and Maynard (1975) found that age played a significant role in perceptions: older employees believed the organisation to be doing its fair share, whereas younger employees perceived the environmental interests of the company to be insufficient. Gavin and Manyard (1975) were the first to identify a perceptual gap in the literature reviewed but this was not taken further by subsequent researchers.
5.4 The 1980s: Managerialism

To understand the pattern of CSR research in the 1980s the decade was given the descriptor “managerialism” as researchers in this period contributed to understanding managers’ perceptions of CSR. This period was concerned with validating CSR financially for the company and managers. Colombo (2012) pointed out that the 1980s was a decade fuelled by low interest rates, mergers, and exponential growth. This period was recognised for its materialism, consumerism, and “yuppies” (young businessmen). This meant that businessmen were chiefly concerned with making profits; CSR was only of interest if it was profitable. In the US President Reagan was known for tax cuts, industrial deregulation, and rewarding individuals with more money to encourage investment (History.com Staff, 2011). In his nine years as president, however, the federal government had accumulated more debt than it had ever collected. Managers were ignoring the call for social responsibility, as they perceived CSR as not financially beneficial for the firm (Stone, 1986). Just one year prior to the Wall Street crash in 1987, Stone (1986) pointed out that managers perceived CSR to be profit undifferentiated. With scholars such as Cochran and Wood (1984) arguing that there was no financial correlation between social responsibility and success of the business, there was not substantiated benefits for managers to adopt CSR.

Boal and Perry (1985) argued that firms needed to make trade-offs between social good and their economic interests. At this time, business was booming and, as a result, many did not see Black Tuesday (October 19th, 1987) coming. It was during this economic boom, that inflation and illegal insider trading became cause for concern. On October 19th the Dow Jones stock index lost $500 billion US dollars (Colombo, 2012). Financial markets around the world crashed—investors everywhere rushed to sell their stocks. Investors lost millions due to the overwhelming number of sellers (Colombo, 2012). The US stock market dropped 22.6 per cent in one day—not since, has there been such a dramatic crash. By the early 90s, the literature had caught up with the aftermath of the crash; for the first time consumers’ perceptions of a company and their CSR initiatives gained significance.

It was not surprising that CSR researchers were interested in the political, financial, and social pressures relating to CSR (Cochran & Wood 1984; Teoh & Thong, 1984; Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985; Boal & Perry, 1985; Stone, 1985; Cowen, Ferreri, & Parker, 1987; Epstein, 1987; Silverstein, 1987). The 1980s was a debate amongst theorists as to whether CSR was profitable for the business—or at the very least—not costly (Cochran & Wood, 1984; Boal & Perry, 1985; Stone, 1986; Drucker, 1984; Teoh & Thong, 1984; Hatfield & Aupperle, 1985).
Boal and Perry (1985) argued that there must be a trade-off between the firm’s economic interests and doing social good, although both theorists were sympathetic during periods of recession and agreed that firms should forsake CSR obligations when in a period of economic decline. The review of the CSR research in the 1990s showed that CSR had not at that time been well defined.

CSR advocates, Drucker and Stone, argued for the financial benefits of social responsibility. Stone (1986) contested that if companies practise good citizenship, they would be more likely to identify opportunities for profit. He argued that a manager’s perception of CSR choices is crucial as they did not view CSR as profit-differentiated. A pioneer of social responsibility, Drucker (1984), maintained that it was the social responsibility of the firm to take a social issue and turn it into an economic opportunity, whereas Aupperle, Carroll, and Hatfield (1985) took a neutral stance. They argued from a financial perspective that CSR had neither a negative nor a positive effect on the finances of the business (Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985).

During this decade value perceptions were identified in the research reviewed, however only as a future research objective. Some theorists mentioned that decision makers or stakeholders’ values/perceptions were significant in furthering the domain of CSR, but did not delve further into this area of research (Moser, 1986; Boal, 1985; Stone, 1986; O’Neil, 1986; Sohn, 1982; Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985).

### 5.5 The 1990s: Stakeholder Consciousness

The 1990s was categorised as “stakeholder consciousness” to capture the insights gained from grouping the articles. As can be seen in Table 4, the role of stakeholders in CSR had gained significance in the research during this decade. The early 1990s was a period of global economic recovery. During this recovery period, stakeholders consciousness of a company’s responsibility to society appeared an increasing concern. Previously, companies had relied on their continuous profitability in a period of financial recession. Boehjle (1993) stated that stakeholders were in control of a company’s survival.

Ireland was the exception to this. The first crisis of the 90’s which began as an economic boom, started in Ireland. While the rest of the world was recovering from the stock market crash, Ireland was thriving (*The Economist*, 2011). During this period, Ireland was named the ‘Celtic Tiger.’ Ireland benefitted from very large subsidies from the EU during this time, which
did more than anything else to kick-start their economy, and their GDP increased by nearly ten per cent. Over that decade, low interest rates and reckless lending by banks caused immigration to Ireland to soar and emigration to plateau (The Economist, 2011). By the early 2000’s, housing construction outgrew population demand by over 400 per cent. The Irish believed their economic boom was the exception, yet by the mid 2000’s Ireland’s economy crashed like everyone else’s (The Economist, 2011).

While Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011) did not investigate value perceptions, this was a dominant theme in the 1990s (Wood, 1991; Clarke, 1992; Boehjle, 1993; Drumwright, 1994; Pava & Krausz, 1996; Hemphill, 1997; Murray & Vogel, 1997; Esrock & Leichty, 1998). Theorists were concerned specifically with managerial value perceptions. Carroll (1991) believed that managers lacked the perception that everyday business decisions had an effect on society. There was an increase in literature reviews and content analysis from the previous decades. As Bebbington and Gray (1993) pointed out, for the first time companies were having to consider moral values which did not fit with the traditional financial wellbeing of the company, and there was a lack of significant research as a reliable source for relevant information on CSR. Therefore, the literature review approach provided a way to summarise previous knowledge of CSR and gain background on the topic.

Previously, there had been no need to understand what stakeholders expected from companies because companies had been performing well financially. However, Cowen, Ferreri, and Parker (1987) posited that over the 1990s public confidence had declined in companies’ ability to fulfil their role in society. In response to this decline, academics began to investigate more thoroughly managerial perceptions of CSR. At the beginning of the 90s, the research was around manager’s lack of perception and understanding of what consumers wanted (Gupta & Brubaker; Carroll, 1991; Wood, 1991; Bebbington & Gray, 1993). Managers perceived that consumers wanted employment and lower product prices (Gupta & Brubaker, 1990; Hemphill, 1997). Socially responsible buying was perceived by managers to be important to success (Drumwright, 1994). CSR was also considered by investors. Graves and Waddock (1994) found that investors perceived lower corporate social performance (CSP) as a riskier investment. From a stakeholder perspective, this perception received less attention from researchers. Nevertheless, investors and customers had the power to effect both the profitability and survival of companies (Boehlje, 1993; Graves & Waddock, 1994; Kenyon, 1996; Murray & Vogel, 1997).

Research into perceptual gaps first appeared in the 1990s (Wood, 1991; Kenyon, 1996; Pava & Krausz, 1996; Murray & Vogel, 1997). The perceptual gaps researched were chiefly
expectation differences. Expectation differences were found to occur when consumers did not have their social responsibility expectations met (Kenyon, 1996; Pava & Krausz, 1996; Murray & Vogel, 1997). For example, when the consumers’ expectations of the company to meet a social need or do good were not met, or where companies expected society to have a positive reaction to their initiative and this did not happen. Kenyon (1996) found that there was a gap between the collective values of the company and individual personal values of senior management. Whereas Murray and Vogel (1997) identified an expectation gap between society and management: when a social issue occurred, there was a gap between the expectation of the response they would receive and the actual response from the company. This is key as while these were expectation differences between consumers and management, they were identified as perceptual gaps. This is some of the earliest examples of perceptions and expectations being used interchangeably in the literature.

In 1997, the Asian financial crisis unsettled the Asian economy, and by the end of the 90’s this caused an on-flow effect on the global economy (Ba, 2013). This began when Thailand unhooked the Thai baht from the United States dollar causing a ripple of currency devaluations from Indonesia, South Korea, and Malaysia. Between the economies, capital dropped by more than $100 billion dollars in the first year (Ba, 2013). At the same time as the Asian financial crisis, in the United States a similar bubble was growing: the dotcom bubble. Similar to Asia’s bubble and crash, the dotcom bubble would impede the technology industry’s growth (Beatie, n.d.). In 1995, the Internet went public. However, the Internet vastly exceeded the predicted popularity, and had over 18 million users in the first year. Initial public offerings (IPOs) had investors sweeping up opportunities without even looking at business plans. By 1997, there were over 400 IPOs. But, by 2001 this had decreased to under 100. Many blame the dotcom bubble burst on the investors: they were giving too much freedom to companies that were not viable; that meant that the viable companies failed under the pressure conditions (Beatie, n.d.). This destroyed a significant amount of investment capital in the United States.

With an unstable economy, consumers were looking to companies to provide stability. While in the previous two decades’ theorists were defining what CSR is, there was no discussion of what exactly the company’s moral responsibility was in a practical sense. However, the 1990’s seemed to right some of this in favour of the stakeholder.
5.6 The 2000s: Moral Awakening

The descriptor given in this study to the 2000s was “moral awakening”, a term originally coined by Carroll (2001), and Saeed, Ahmed, and Mukhtar, (2001). Carroll found that public trust in companies’ ability to resolve social issues was diminishing. When consumers ranked the ethical standards of senior management, less than 25 per cent of consumers ranked this as high.

In 1999, the first of its kind benchmark was released for sustainable businesses: The Dow Jones Sustainability Index (DJSI) (RobecoSAM, n.d.). DJSI provided a benchmark for sustainable business practices, and way to track the stock performance of companies recognised for their sustainable business practices (RobecoSAM, n.d.). This was done by choosing the world-leading companies in sustainability—from economic, to environmental, and social responsibility—to rate the most sustainable companies across sixty industries. Investors, who recognised the long-term value sustainable business practices could have on their share-holder value, used this information to reflect their socially responsible investing in their investment portfolio. This was known as ESG investing (environmental, social, and governance). Every year, over three and a half thousand companies were surveyed on their environmental, social, and economic success factors (RobecoSAM, n.d.). This criterion was used to measure the ethical and sustainable impact of investment in the business and is available to investors. The timing of the DJSI coincided with theorist’s perception of a global moral awakening, and also showed that investors were considering CSR in their investment portfolios.

Another significant development in CSR research was the shift in focus from CSR as an obligation, to CSR strategy (Smith, 2003; Heal, 2005; Kotler & Lee, 2006). As Kotler and Lee (2006) pointed out, once companies shifted their perspective from obligation to strategy, they needed to understand stakeholder’s expectations with regards to CSR. The previous decade of research had not prepared companies for CSR as a strategy. Additionally, as some companies had previously not taken CSR seriously or found it to be necessary, there was inconsistency across the business practices which made consumers perceive the initiatives to be insincere (Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, & Schwarz, 2006; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). However, companies were unable to provide what consumers wanted in CSR because the research had not yet investigated this area.

In 2008, the world was hit by the global financial crisis, what would become the most significant since the Great Depression 80 years’ prior (Havemann, 2009). What started as a
housing crisis in the United States, spread across the banking, insurance, and auto industry to name a few. In 2008, the Dow Jones was down by over 33 per cent and by the end of that year, the recession had spread to China, Germany, and Japan. Mortgage dealers in the United States, offered families low interest rates who would not ordinarily qualify for mortgages, and later increase their interest rates substantially. No matter their ability to put down a deposit, these first-home buyers were misled into these mortgages, and then the mortgage lenders would sell the mortgages to investment banks. While house prices were rising, everyone was profiting from this. However, when this bubble burst in 2007, many of the first-home buyers defaulted. And this had an on flow effect to the banks that had over-leveraged themselves.

By September 2008, the Lehman Brothers—the fourth-largest investment bank in the United States—went bankrupt (Investopedia, n.d.). This recession continued on through to the following decade. In the United States alone, seven and a half million jobs were lost and sixteen trillion dollars from the stock market. Around the world the recovery process took as long as 2014 for some countries (Arias & Wen, 2015).

In the 1990s and early 2000s research into stakeholder perceptions expanded significantly. The only authors to investigate both consumer and managerial value perceptions were Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009), and Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2009). Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009) found that how a stakeholder perceived the CSR initiative influenced their relationship with the company. Stakeholders responded better when they derived personal benefits from the initiative and they trusted the company more when they achieved their desired values. Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2009) found that managers perceived a strong relationship between social initiatives and increased perception by stakeholders of legitimacy. The authors also found that managers were motivated to sustainability through their own personal values, however changing social values meant companies were held to new legitimacy criteria. There was no discussion of what this new legitimacy criterion was.

Bhattacharya et al. (2009), and Brønn et al. (2009) both investigated CSR value perceptions in the same year. While Bhattacharya et al. (2009) looked at value perceptions from a stakeholder perspective, Brønn et al. (2009) investigated the managers’ value perceptions. Both authors mentioned the effect the perceptions had on the company or stakeholder respectively; however, the differences in value perceptions were not discussed. Although both authors recognised the effect value perceptions have on the stakeholder and company relationship and what drove the stakeholders or managers to participate in CSR, there was no discussion of what the values and value differences between stakeholders and managers
were. Further, stakeholders incorporate employees, invests, and customers. Therefore, neither study specifically investigated consumer value perceptions.

Another issue in legitimacy was how the company communicated their CSR initiatives. If the company was only voicing social concerns and not doing anything about it—or it was not consistent throughout the business practices—it was perceived as an image tactic and caused suspicion and distrust in their consumers (Bhattachayra, Korschun, & Sen, 2009; Jahdi & Acikdilli, 2009; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). Significantly, Jahdi and Acikdilli (2009) found that companies who communicated their CSR activities were more prone to scrutiny than those who chose not to. Without the understanding of consumer’s value perceptions, companies were expected to provide holistic CSR initiatives that would be prone to scrutiny by consumers. Consumer perceptions in CSR gained traction in the research in the next decade.

5.7 The 2010s: Rise of the Consumer

The 2010 to 2018 decade is the most crucial to this review. Firstly, Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta’s (2011) research concluded at the beginning of this decade. Therefore, this section offers an opportunity to offer new insights. Secondly, there were perceptual gaps identified by researchers throughout this decade (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2010; Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Gruber, 2011; Bakutyte & Grundey, 2012; Chen, Lin, & Chang, 2013; Acciaro, 2015; Chern & Blair, 2015; Chaudhri, 2016; Mühltaher, 2017; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018). From the attitude-behaviour gap, to gaps in perceived motives, this decade required mapping in order to clarify why these gaps have perhaps occurred and the significance of the trends evident in the reviewed literature. This decade was given the descriptor “Rise of the Consumer” to help us understand the trends of CSR research. During this decade, research into consumer values and perceptions in CSR peaked. Stakeholder perceptual research was the largest category in this decade across all the research.

As the world was recovering from the Great Recession, the pressure for companies to have CSR involvement showed similar traits to the 1980’s. While companies were proactive in their CSR strategies, the perceptual gaps between companies and their consumers were fraught throughout the literature (Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, 2010; Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Gruber, 2011; Bakutyte & Grundey, 2012; Chen, Lin & Chang, 2013; Acciaro, 2015; Chaudhri, 2016). Value perceptions research was particularly apparent. While in the previous decade’s academics researched value perceptions, from 2010 to 2018 it accounted for nearly half the literature. From differences in perceived motives, perceived values, perceived value created by
the firm, and perceived interest in CSR versus actual purchase behaviour—this was just some of the perceptual gaps being researched.

A key trend in CSR research during this decade was value gaps (Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, 2010; Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Gruber, 2011; Bakutyte & Grundey, 2012; Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013; Acciaro, 2015; Chaudhri, 2016; Mühltaher, 2017; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018). One of the most common value gaps across the literature was the attitude-behaviour gap—often referred to as the CSR paradox (Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Gruber, 2011; Papaoikonomou, Valverde, & Ryan, 2012; Chen, Lin, & Chang, 2013; Janssen & Vanhamme, 2015; Green, Sinclair, & Tinson, 2015; Mühltaher, 2017; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018). The CSR paradox, was where consumers would say they wanted to purchase and support socially responsible products or services, but their actual behaviour would not be in align with their beliefs (Janssen & Vanhamme, 2015).

Consumer value perceptions were a popular research area during this decade. It was found that expectation differences had a negative effect on consumer perception. Similar to the 2000s, legitimacy and credibility of the CSR message had a significant effect on the consumer’s perception of the company (Eberle, Berens, & Li, 2013; Hsu, 2012; Paraguel & Moreau, 2011). When the CSR message was perceived as credible, this helped consumers have a more positive association with the brand. Consumers value perceptions were shown to be affected by three key factors in marketing communications: the credibility of the message, the extent of the company’s involvement in CSR, and how it was communicated to consumers (Jahdi & Acikdilli, 2009; Vanhamme & Grobben, 2009; Green, Sinclair, & Tinson, 2015; Maon, Swaen, & Lindgreen, 2017). While CSR communication had been shown to have a positive effect on brand loyalty, the source that communicated the CSR had an effect on the credibility of the message (Eberle, Berens, & Li, 2013; Paraguel & Moreau, 2011). As Burton et al. (2017) pointed out, relationships differed in credibility and strength. And it was consumer’s perceptions of the credibility and strength of the relationship that create a gap between themselves and the firm (Bakutyte & Grundey, 2012).

During the 2010s, researchers found that the initiative must reflect the consumers’ personal values and interests (Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013; Janssen & Vanhamme, 2015; Pomering & Dolnicar, 2009). Consumers attach different significance to CSR aspects than companies (Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013; Jong & Meer, 2017; Basu & Palazzo, 2008). Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, and Murphy (2013) found that differences in perceived significant of CSR activities was a result of consumer personal values. While companies considered economic motives, consumers wanted their personal values met.
However, there was no further investigation into what the personal values of the consumer were. Additionally, companies reported feeling responsible for the protection—especially data protection—of their customers, whereas the consumers placed greater emphasis on responsible leadership (Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Murphy, 2013). These expectation differences between consumers and managers were consistent throughout the 2010 decade.

The early 2010’s were still a period of recovery from the Global Financial Crisis in 2008. In 2014, the global economy was considered no longer to be in recession. However, consumer’s value perceptions dominated this decade because they perceived companies to be more powerful than government in alleviating social issues (Oberseder, Schlegelmilch, & Gruber, 2011). It is possible, that the gap between consumers and managers value perceptions occurred during this decade, because neither companies nor consumers could afford to support CSR, however it had become a driving force behind marketing messages and consumer’s perceptions in the early 2000’s. Therefore, not only did consumers not have the financial luxury of purchasing sustainable products, but companies took to greenwashing to sustain an image that they perhaps could not afford to maintain throughout their business.

Economically, the 2015 oil slump meant that the United States was driving economic growth (McCain, 2015). As McCain (2015) pointed out, a minor drop was a good thing, however a serious decrease in oil prices was cause for concern as it could mean global economic weakness. The United States production of oil increased by 45 per cent between 2011 and 2015; Canada also saw an increase of 25 per cent. However, total global demand for oil only increased by four per cent between 2010 and 2015 (McCain, 2015). As a result, North American oil production exceeded the demand. Saudi Arabia, which previously had maintained dominance of the oil market, began to lose influence of as other parts of the world developed new supplies. While the United States was considered the driver of economic growth, much of the research during this period on CSR was coming from around the globe. This was a notable shift as prior to this decade, the United States dominated CSR research.

Greenwashing was used to increase the perception to consumers that the company was acting socially responsible without the financial cost of legitimate CSR involvement. One possible reasoning for greenwashing increasing during this decade was a lack of understanding of consumer value perceptions (Paraguel & Moreau, 2011, Paraguel, Benoît-Moreau, & Larceneux, 2011; Chen, Lin, & Chang, 2013). Green products accounted for a $40 billion industry in 2011, and by 2012 this had surpassed $3 trillion (Kim & Lyon, 2014). However, the increase in corporate greenwashing has caused scepticism of this industry (Kim & Lyon, 2014). While in the past, increasing the perception of social responsibility was a managerial
goal, it was eventually given the label ‘greenwashing’ due to the lack of authenticity in the company’s green claims. It was viewed as risky for a company: if stakeholders perceived the company to be overstating their green initiatives this would have a negative effect on trust and exposes the firm to scepticism (Chen, Lin, & Chang, 2013). While green perceived quality was used as a method of attracting more customers, greenwash caused confusion and the spread of unreliable information (Chen, Lin, & Chang, 2013). This not only had a negative effect on the firm, but also the industry, and put the market for green products at stake. Bagnoli and Watts (2015) argued the answer to this was using an external assurance that the social responsibility reported was equal to the company’s actual CSR activities. While this sounds straightforward, it could both be expensive and not meet consumer’s expectations. Instead companies resorted to brownwashing.

Similar to greenwashing, brownwashing also showed a lack of understanding of consumer value perceptions by companies. By choosing to brownwash, companies could evade the issue of consumers’ negative perceptions of their CSR initiatives. Brownwashing was a new phenomenon in CSR where the company chooses not to disclose their green-related activities (Kim & Lyon, 2014). There are many reasons cited by companies so as to why they choose to brownwash, including: the environmental regulations costs of being green, the firm’s audience is sensitive to socially responsible activities, fear of being attacked, unable to tell their story effectively, and general financial costs associated with social responsibility (Kim & Lyon, 2014; Bagnoli & Watts, 2017; Epstein-Reives, 2012). Companies who do communicate their CSR activities are found to be more exposed to scrutiny than those that do not (Eberle, Berens, & Li, 2013). This could be a rationale for an organisation to choose not to communicate their CSR initiatives, as they may not want to be subject to scrutiny by their consumers. By choosing not to communicate the company’s good works with their consumers, management shows that they value protecting their reputation or profits, over being viewed as a socially responsible company.

An emerging line of enquiry in CSR research has been ethical communities (Papaoikonomou, Valverde, & Ryan, 2012). Papaoikonomou, Valverde, & Ryan (2012) argued that the perceived impact of a CSR initiative is greater when it is a collective experience rather than an individual endeavour; they provide a way forward to bridge the limited perceived impact of individual ethical consumer actions. In a sense, ethical communities represent the opposite of a boycott and are a stronger weapon for consumers. Rather than punishing companies as a group, ethical communities have the opportunity to rally around ethical firms and feel that they are making a real difference. Whereas, when the ethical experience is
individualistic, it does not feel as if it will make much of a difference. Despite Nestlé being boycotted, even up until 2015, boycotters have been pushing for ‘Nestlé free weeks’ and encouraging other consumers to boycott the company (Baby Milk Action, 2015). This is five decades after the first debate, and consumers issue with the company has still not been resolved.

This discussion has addressed the first objective of this research: namely, to better understand the patterns of CSR research, and to extend Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta’s (2011) research beyond 2008. To this end, the descriptors assigned to each decade was an extension of their research and provided greater detail into the nature of CSR research. Furthermore, the patterns in the most recent decade to 2018 have also been mapped. The following section looks specifically at the second objective of this research: the identification of perceptions and development of perceptual gaps.

5.8 Part B: Consumer and Manager Value Perceptions

The second objective of this research was to identify consumer and managerial value perceptions, and any perceptual gaps that have been identified in the literature. Table 5 summarises the types of perceptual gaps identified by researchers from 1970 through to 2018, from age perception gaps to gaps between perceived and stated motives of a company. Gaps were most apparent in the 2010 to 2018 decade.

The attitude-behaviour gap accounted for the largest grouping, being 11 per cent of the total literature reviewed. However, the perceptual gap between society and management received the second most mentions with three per cent of the literature identifying this gap. Other gaps such as differing perceptions in the age of employees also appeared, but accounted for just two per cent of the literature reviewed. While the gap in perceptions between society and management is the focus of this study, other perceptual gaps are likely to have contributed to this. For example, two per cent of the reviewed literature investigated the gap in perceptions for either managers or stakeholders, but not both.
As mentioned above, the second objective of this research was to identify how value perceptions have been discussed in the literature and in particular, how managers perceived CSR over the period of 1970 to 2018 compared to how consumers perceived CSR. This final section explores this tension and considers just these two gaps from the range offered in Table 5. Ironically, while Table 5 illustrates the range of perceptual gaps present across the reviewed literature that warrant further research, the limited understanding of perceived value has contributed to such gaps.
5.8.1 MANAGEMENT PERCEPTIONS

The first of the two gaps to consider is the management perceptual gap. This perceptual gap is where managers value of CSR, differs to how consumers value CSR. Or, where what companies think society expects from with regards to CSR differs to what society actually wants from senior management/the company. McAdam (1973) found that perceived social pressure for CSR would prompt management to react. He found that as early as 1973, over 90 per cent of large companies in the US had designated CSR roles in senior management (McAdam, 1973). Ten years prior, this figure was less than 20 per cent.

In 1985, Aupperle, Carroll, and Hatfield (1985) found that companies did not consider CEO’s as their representatives and that CSR was limited by the CEO’s perceptions. And in 1986, Stone found that managers perceived their choices in CSR as profit-undifferentiated. Epstein (1987) also investigated management perceptions. Epstein found that senior management must first determine the perceived need to address a social issue before becoming involved in CSR. Effective value management and economic efficiency were argued as the basis of CSR. During these decades, there was significantly more research in managerial value perceptions than consumers.

While the personal values of the manager were suggested to effect CSR research, no further attempt to investigate what these values were or how they perhaps differed from consumer’s personal values. Yet, how could they do this when they did not understand consumers value systems? Wood (1991), believed that further understanding of how managers perceived responsibility in CSR and the organisational and personal value perceptions that influenced this needed to be understood. However, these perceptions were not delved into further. Similar to Wood, Kenyon (1996) found that differing values caused conflict for managers. There was a gap identified between how senior managers perceived a CSR firm would perform financially and how it actually performed—often this was equal to, or better than, non-CSR firms (Pava & Krusz, 1996). Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2009) argued that managers were motivated by internal values and external pressures such as employee retention and pressure for CSR reporting. Companies engage in social initiatives in order to increase stakeholder legitimacy perceptions, as they do no not perceive the domain to be driven by financial performance. Maon, Lindgreen, and Swaen (2009) argued that CSR triggered a change in how a company perceived its business; this could happen through external/social pressures or when the manager’s personal values change.
Herremans, Akathaporn, and McInnes (1993) found that a company’s perception of CSR may change overtime, and therefore it is key to look at a company’s reputation for social responsibility over a period of time. This was a potentially relevant observation, as not once—over the five decades of research investigated—has any authors investigated an organisations CSR involvement and reputation over a prolonged period of time, or even an industry. The expectation for companies to act socially responsibly, and vice versa that CSR would provide economic outcomes, has been evident in the research since the 1970s.

A more accurate statement would be that all conflicts can be traced back to different ‘expectations’ of what is fair. The definition of expectations in the oxford dictionary is, ‘a strong belief that something will happen in’ (Oxford University Press, 2015). By comparison, the definition of perception is ‘the way in which something is regarded, understood, or interpreted’ (Oxford University Press, 2015). In addition, Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1993) found that consumers have different levels of expectations: ideal, desired, predicted, and adequate expectations. Therefore, the expectation is the belief that something will happen, how this is understood by the individual is their perception. Researchers have highlighted that consumers have differing values to managers and vice versa, but we do not yet understand what these perceptions are and therefore they have not surpassed the expectation stage.

### 5.8.2 Consumer Perceptions

The second perceptual gap identified was how consumers perceived CSR initiatives and companies who act in socially responsible ways. What this means is the gap between how consumers see CSR and how companies actually behave regarding CSR. Without an understanding of consumers’ value perceptions in CSR, companies did not understand why they received negative reactions to their CSR initiatives. One consumer perception that was consistent across the decades was that consumers did not appreciate companies CSR initiatives when they were a reaction to social pressures (i.e. not because they believed it was the right thing to do), or merely image enhancement tactics by the company (McAdam, 1973; Cowen, Ferreri, & Parker, 1987; Kenyon, 1996; Heal, 2005; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018). The only mention of consumer value perceptions by any authors in the 1970s was by Epstein (1979) who found that consumers believe ‘big’ companies translates to ‘bad’ companies with regard to CSR behaviour. However, why consumers perceived a difference between large and small companies with regard to CSR was not discussed further.

In addition, there was a gap in how consumers perceived socially responsible companies. Gupta and Brubaker (1990) found that consumers rewarded companies that they
perceived to be acting in a socially responsible manner. However, the perceptions of what the goal of CSR should be differed. Some respondents perceived that the goals should be providing employment, others believed it should be lower prices (Gupta & Brubaker, 1990. Boehjle (1993) identified that public perceptions of a company’s CSR initiatives can affect the profitability and survivability of the firm. If society wants the market to be doing social good, they must use one of their many weapons such as consumer boycotts. Hemphill (1997) argued that consumers negatively perceive companies that are solely focused on making a profit, especially, when this is at the cost of employees livelihoods.

Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, and Schwarz (2006) maintained that CSR initiatives are ineffective when the consumer does not perceive sincerity. Further, if the company tries to do good in a sector that is negatively affected by the business, this can cause suspicion. A lack of understanding of what consumers perceptions of CSR initiatives were—beyond the expectation to do social good—meant that companies CSR initiatives were ineffective, or perceived incorrectly. To understand how consumers will perceive a CSR initiative, first there is a need to understand the personal values that drive them.

From the review, Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, and Murphy (2013) found that consumers’ personal values were drivers of their perceptions of CSR initiatives, whereas companies were driven by economic motives. Since Öberseder et al. (2013), no researchers have investigated what the personal values are that drive CSR perceptions. One possible interpretation is that this was an expectation difference: consumers ‘expected’ their personal values to be met, whereas companies expected economic outcomes from their social involvement. McGuire, Sundgren, and Schneeweis (1988) finished the 1980s decade with the most popular management perception of CSR for the coming decades: increase the perception of social responsibility to consumers and this would allow the company to enhance their image and make less-costly CSR claims. This was essentially the suggestion to greenwash which would gain popularity in the 2000s. The problem with this suggestion to effectively greenwash by McGuire et al., (1988) was that it was a management-centric approach and did not consider the negative perceptions when consumers saw through this. Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, and Gruber (2011) found that consumers perceived companies to be more powerful than government. However, there were differences between what companies thought consumers wanted companies to do when they engage in CSR and what consumers actually wanted—while companies perceived consumers to care about areas such as data security, consumers cared more about responsible leadership. This value-perception gap was also highlighted by Bakutyte and Grundey (2012). The authors
found that the idea of what constitutes consumer value is viewed/perceived/defined differently for each individual, because there is no single definition of what constitutes consumer value.

**5.9 PART C: SUMMARY**

Overall, this chapter has examined the perceptual gaps that have arisen in the literature reviewed. As early as 1974, Gavin found that perceptions of the significance of CSR between employees differed by age-group. Five decades later, perception differences between consumers and management have been more persistent and apparent for a prolonged period of time. The attitude behaviour gap—a gap between consumers stated buying preferences compared to their actual buying behaviour—has been apparent in the research for over a decade (D’Astous & Legendre, 2008; Moscardo & Hughes, 2018). Consumer and manager perceptions in CSR research have been inconsistently researched and while each has received separate attention in the literature reviewed, they have not been given sufficient consideration together, as a gap between the two. The research shifted from the dominance of managerial value perceptions in the first three decades covered in this review, to consumer value perceptions dominating the research from 2000 onward. The literature reviewed in this study has provided significant insight into managerial value perceptions from two decades ago, but less is known about management value perceptions of CSR in the current decade. In the 2000s both managers and consumers were found to be motivated by internal/personal (and therefore subjective) values regarding their CSR engagement and reporting (Orlitsky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003; Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009; Brønn & Vidaver-Cohen, 2009; Maon, Lindgreen, & Swaen, 2009). Perceived value of CSR engagement among managers was not the only motivator for companies to engage more genuinely in CSR. According to this review, further investigation by researchers of what these values were and how they differed among the two sets of actors did not occur.

The key finding from this review was that while the perceptual gap regarding what consumers value in CSR and how management perceives consumer values has been identified numerous times throughout the research, not one theorist has researched this gap further beyond simply identifying it. Managers perceptions about what they value in CSR and what they perceive as significant has received significant attention. Consumers’ perceptions about what they perceive as important in CSR and the perceived value they see management creates has been researched, but neither of these sets of perceptions have been compared to understand.
the differences in values and perceptions between the two sets in relation to CSR. While it is clear that these perceptual gaps have arisen, the ‘consumer value perceptions’ and ‘managerial value perceptions’ discussed in this chapter are better referred to as ‘consumer value expectations’ and ‘managerial value expectations’. This is because there is a clearer understanding of what consumers expect from companies, and what managers expect to receive in return, but how they perceive the value created by CSR and each other is not well-understood. This review has shown that different terms have been used to point to the same problem: managers don’t understand fully what consumers expect of them when they engage in CSR activity. Consumers seem to expect something other than what managers think they expect—hence the gap—which needs more research to better understand what needs to be done to align the two.
CONCLUSION

6.1 CSR PERCEPTION GAPS
Overall, this review had two purposes. First, the aim was to understand the focus of CSR across the decades from 1970 to 2018. Second, this review analysed how value perceptions are discussed over the decades and aimed to assess the current knowledge about the perceptual gaps between consumers and managers in the CSR literature. This review found that while researchers have identified perceptual gaps—particularly in the 2010 to 2018 decade—there was no further investigation of perceptual gaps beyond identifying that they existed. As a result, this provides a productive direction for future research into what consumer and managerial
value perceptions are, and how companies can use value perceptions to create strategies for the future.

This integrative review also considered the economic climate in which the research was conducted. Economic crises were mapped alongside key trends in CSR research. When the trends and developments in CSR research were placed alongside key economic crises, this provided context to elucidate why managers and consumers values had not been in alignment. By 1970, CSR was receiving more academic attention than in previous decades. The traditional business stance was profit maximisation: any use of resources that did not increase profits was considered inefficient use of resources and an unnecessary expense (Walters, 1977). The integrated review of literature showed that while CSR has been widely adopted by managers in 2018, there is still apprehension due to a lack of agreement in how to implement CSR. Overall, this research not only maps trends in CSR research alongside economic events, but investigated how managers and consumers value perceptions have been identified and developed over the five decades.

6.2 Managerial Implications

This integrative review has shown that some of the perceptual gaps have occurred because of differing expectations between consumers and managers. Given the changes in the wider economic context (due to financial crises, recessions, climate change, etc.), consumers’ values have shifted and managers have not been able to keep up with these shifts in consumer sentiment. Rather than attempting to understand what their consumers want, many companies have taken the “safer” options of greenwashing and brownwashing. In this way, they are not judged or held to a higher standard for acting responsibly. By hiding the good they create this can also foster distrust. Both of these approaches—greenwashing and brownwashing—ultimately conveys that the company does not understand social pressures to be environmentally responsible and they therefore either pay lip service to being socially responsible, or choose to avoid the pressure altogether (Kim & Lyon, 2014). If managers do not understand stakeholder’s expectations, they view any potential negative perceptions as a greater risk than engaging in CSR is worth.

As a result, there are some implications for managers. This review found that the present trend toward hiring specialist CSR executives and consultants is one positive step. Having more expertise in this specialist area can be beneficial for companies. From this study, it was found that companies should regularly scan other industries to see what constitutes best-
practice, or can conduct fact-finding trips to companies, even in other markets where there would be no direct commercial threat. In addition, a marketing research programme could be undertaken in order for managers to better understand consumers’ expectations and perceptions of CSR. Finally, this study found that education through network events and even introducing policy on CSR reporting for listed companies could help spread best-practice.

In the case of Nestlé, dragging out their response to social outcries only created more issues for the company. As has been discussed in the literature around social license to operate, companies cannot ignore society’s expectations today, even if they could 50 years ago—the sentiment has changed and companies will find themselves out of business if they do so (Nelsen, 2006). No company should assume that they are too big to be absolved from this. This also applied to Nestlé who chose to ignore social expectations. An in-depth case study of the perceptions around Nestlé’s social responsibility would provide some understanding to how Nestlé’s consumers and managers perceptions have changed or remained the same over time. Herremans, Akathaporn, and McInnes (1993) stated that a company’s reputation in social responsibility changes over time and therefore it was essential to consider the company’s reputation over a prolonged period of time. As for Fonterra, the changes at the top of the organization, and the negative press in the media about the company’s leadership, have seen the beginning of change within the company. Whether it will be too little, too late, is another matter. A greater study into the value perceptions of consumers and managers in the dairy industry would also be beneficial to both Nestlé and Fonterra.

6.3 Theoretical Implications

There are three theoretical implications that emerge from this study. First, our understanding of the word ‘perception’: as Heal (2005) argued, conflict between society and companies can be traced back to differing perceptions of what is ethical or fair. However, this research found that a more accurate statement would be that all conflicts can be mapped back to different expectations of what is fair. Second, gaps such as the ‘attitude-behaviour’ gap will continue to occur (and potentially cause problems for companies) until there is a greater understanding of consumers’ and managers’ perceptions. As this research has shown, the attitude-behaviour gap—also known as the CSR paradox—is founded on the view that consumers want companies to be socially responsible and they expect companies to have CSR products, while at the same time their purchase behaviour does not reflect this. How can we understand the gap that occurs between consumer’s behaviour and their actual purchase behaviour, if we do not understand—
from a current perspective—what managers were trying to achieve and how they have perceived their CSR initiatives? This is addressed in the future research directions. Finally, this review furthered the work of Taneja, Taneja, and Gupta (2011) by investigating an additional decade and by including value perceptions. The review has identified the most significant recent trend in CSR research as being consumer value perceptions and the importance of stakeholder perceptions and a need for gaining a better understanding of these constructs, both from a theoretical and practical perspective.

6.4 Future Research

Overall, this review has revealed three key gaps in the literature. Firstly, the perceptual gaps that have characterised CSR research. Secondly, a gap in how the literature has understood expectations of consumers versus consumer perceptions in relation to CSR. Thirdly, over five decades of CSR debates over the benefits of CSR, theorists have not reached an agreement. Neither tangible benefits such as financial, or intangible benefits such as reputation have been solidified as a benefit of CSR for the company. As Ostlund predicted in 1977, it remains unknown whether CSR will ever be proven financially beneficial.

Perceptual gaps were persistent across the five decades of research. While many researchers, including Bhattacharya, Korschun, and Sen (2009) have identified perceptual gaps, no researchers have investigated these perceptual gaps further than recognising they exist. Future research should look to identifying what consumer and managerial perceptions of CSR actually are and how these differ.

The gap between expectations and perceptions of consumers and managers was identified by Herremans, Akathaporn, and McInnes (1993). However, the mapping of CSR research undertaken by this review revealed that this expectation/perception gap is still to be further investigated. In order to investigate the gap between expectations and perceptions, future researchers should look at service-quality research, such as work by Parasuraman, Seithaml, and Berry (1985).

The financial debate for and against CSR has not been resolved in the literature and remains a fruitful area of future research. Research into the financial case for CSR has been consistent across all five decades of literature reviewed as can be seen in Table 4 (Ostlund, 1977). However, despite researchers continuously investigating this predicament, there has
been no unified conclusion. In addition, while the intangible benefits of CSR such as reputation have received attention, brownwashing has shown that managers do not see benefits to their reputation. Future research could look at the financial benefits of CSR over a prolonged period of time for an industry. Rather than looking at a specific initiative or moment in time, researchers should investigate the long-term financial benefits that are industry or company specific. In addition, future research could include a wider-article selection, such as work by Fatma and Rahman (2015), Malik (2015), Wang and Gao (2016), and Jamali and Karam (2018).

It is clear from this integrative review that the marketing and management disciplines are leading research in CSR. Yet, to better understand and develop the research in CSR value perceptions, perhaps researchers need to look to other disciplines outside of marketing and management for guidance on how they have understood value perceptions. By looking outside these disciplines, marketers may find clarity to these important research questions. With the push for a plastic-free globe, safer garment factories, and equal pay for women—CSR is not going away tomorrow. We should be looking to the future economic environment in order to meet the challenges CSR will face in the future.
Bibliography


Appendix One:

1970s Regulatory Perspective

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<tr>
<th>Author</th>
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<th>Industry</th>
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<th>Research Type</th>
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<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>Business participation in social welfare is becoming more common, as the social problems have been passed along by government and the public to respond. This article aims to determine the legal authority for business participation in the resolution of critical social problems.</td>
<td>There is a growing opinion/realisation that management is not doing its job—earning a greater profit each year, unless it can continue this into the long-term future.</td>
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<td>Davis (1973)</td>
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<td>Social responsibility begins where the law ends. A firm is not being SR if it is just complying with the expectations laid down by the law. It is the firm’s acceptance of an obligation to society beyond the limitations of the law.</td>
<td>By avoiding governmental regulation through SR implementation, the firm does good by not only preventing restrictions for other companies but also by creating public good. There are sound rationales both pro and against SR.</td>
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<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<td>Albrecht</td>
<td>1979</td>
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<tr>
<td>Carroll</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Academy of Management Review</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elgig</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Law Review</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Essay (contains key works on CSR)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hyman</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>The Hastings Law Journal</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
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<td>Oeming</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
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**CSR and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)**

- **McAdam (1973):** The learning process for managers is similar to that of any other business decision. Companies that fail to understand CSR are at risk of making costly mistakes.
- **Gins (1975):** CSR is important for companies to maintain their social licenses to operate.
- **Holmes (1976):** There is a significant agreement among key writers on the importance of CSR.
- **Orchard (1977):** CSR is necessary for companies to achieve social, legal, and economic benefits.
- **Walters (1977):** Social responsibility is perceived by companies to be a necessity.
- **Albrecht (1979):** CSR is seen as a necessary component of business management.
- **Carroll (1979):** CSR is seen as an essential aspect of corporate social performance.
- **Elgig (1979):** CSR is seen as critical for maintaining social legitimacy.
- **Hyman (1979):** CSR is seen as a tool for corporate social performance.
- **Oeming (1979):** Companies are expected to be socially responsible.
1980s Managerialism

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Research Type</th>
<th>Perspectives of CSR</th>
<th>Theoretical finding/contribution</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
<th>Identifies attitude-behaviour gap</th>
<th>Identifies Perceptual Gaps</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jones (1980)</td>
<td>California Management Review</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>CSR is a form of self-control that requires an extension of government</td>
<td>Untold social good are more focused, corporations should not be held to higher account than social and political</td>
<td>Finding the dominant perceptions in business society relationship is key and will mature. This movement does not delve further</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sohn (1982)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Conceptual paper</td>
<td>Perceptions of the relationship between business and society</td>
<td>The four main views are: classical functional, constituency, legal, and salient - some links are assigned to business, some to non-profit and voluntary organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cochran, Wood (1984)</td>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Reputation Index</td>
<td>There is no positive correlation between SR and financial performance</td>
<td>Older firms may be less flexible, younger firms may attract more socially responsive managers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Drucker (1984)</td>
<td>California Management Review</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Conceptual paper</td>
<td>What business is to serve social problems into economic opportunity</td>
<td>Business can discharge its SR, where it is converted into business opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teoh &amp; Thong (1994)</td>
<td>Accounting, Organizations and Society</td>
<td>Accounting, Auditing and Accountability</td>
<td>Cross-Industry Study</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Private companies did not see the need to report on CSR in annual reports unless they saw Western companies doing so</td>
<td>No respondent suggested cost of reporting on SR as too high</td>
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<td>Aupperle, Carroll &amp; Hartfield (1985)</td>
<td>Academy of Management Journal</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>The authors found no relationship between profitability and CSR. No evidence capital markets will be affected by social performance</td>
<td>Intangible benefits of CSR need inquiry, whether CSR is profitable may never be involved</td>
<td>Limited by perceptions of CSR by the CEO's, CEO's are not representatives of the organisation</td>
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<td>Bead &amp; Perry (1985)</td>
<td>Journal of Management</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>University Students</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Multidimensional Scaling Analysis</td>
<td>Decision makers may need to make trade-offs between economic-oriented versus social justice</td>
<td>Links ethical analysis to the stakeholder perspective, finds that SR decisions should not harm others, respect others, and promote justice</td>
<td>Further research must reveal decision maker's value weightings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minar (1986)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>University Students</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Conceptual paper</td>
<td>CSR requires parameters in order to enable decision making and corporate strategy</td>
<td>CSR can be analysed through the four components of law, lex, salient information, and efficiency</td>
<td>Whether or not a decision is ethical, is dependent on the values of the individual</td>
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<td>ONeil (1986)</td>
<td>International Journal of Social Economics</td>
<td>Other Economics</td>
<td>Multinational Corporations</td>
<td>European</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>An international trade electronic horizon will have greater effects on each other when it comes to CSR.</td>
<td>European are more tolerant of governmental involvement in CSR and perceive long term benefits, whereas Europeans perceive American business executives to be too focused on the short-term rewards</td>
<td>Manage perceived CSR choices as “profit neutralized”. There is a perceived gap in how people think executives are punished in legal threats versus how they are actually effective. There are legal strategies at play that protect them</td>
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<td>Stone (1986)</td>
<td>Iowa Law Review</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Conceptual paper</td>
<td>CSR is conducted in “elitist” terms. More likely to identify profit possibilities when not thinking exclusively in terms of profit</td>
<td>Managers perceive CSR choices as “profit neutralized”. There is a perceived gap in how people think executives are punished in legal threats versus how they are actually effective. There are legal strategies at play that protect them</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conen, Ferrini, &amp; Parker (1987)</td>
<td>Accounting, Organizations and Society</td>
<td>Accounting, Auditing and Accountability</td>
<td>Fortune 500 companies, cross-industry</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>CSR disclosures differ and may be affected by different pressures, some companies may not care about social welfare but make trivial disclosures to enhance that image, whereas other firms may be highly involved in SR activities but choose not to disclose</td>
<td>CSR disclosures are a method to counteract the belief that companies activities are illegitimate</td>
<td>CSR confidence has declined due to people's perceptions of businesses that they are not fulfilling their role in society through legitimate ways</td>
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74
### 1990s Stakeholder Consciousness

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<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Research Type</th>
<th>Perspectives of CSR</th>
<th>Theoretical findings/Interesting contribution</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
<th>Identifies attitude-behavior gap</th>
<th>Identifies Perceptual Gaps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gupta &amp; Bhojwani (1990)</td>
<td>Socio-Economic Planning Sciences</td>
<td>Urban and Regional Planning</td>
<td>Trade associations</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>CSR is an approach that emerges out of self-interest with the general public’s interests.</td>
<td>-code associations can lead to industry towards CSR, and they can prevent damage by working with government outside of the organization for the interests of the public. They can also enforce minimum compliance, and the public image of the industry will be tied to the SR of the trade.</td>
<td>the public rewards firms who are perceived to act in a SR manner. However, some perceive that providing employment is the primary goal of CSR, others maintain it should be lower prices or safer products</td>
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<tr>
<td>Carroll (1991)</td>
<td>Business &amp; Society</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>Looks at the evolution of CSR over the decades. Social responsibility is only a reality if managers make changes from immoral</td>
<td>Evolving value systems are more significant than the establishment of law as they are the driving force behind these laws. Civil rights movements are a reflection of changing societal values. The evolution of CSR reflects the complexity of CSR; economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic</td>
<td>Managers lack the perception that their everyday business decisions have an effect on others</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parker (1991)</td>
<td>Journal of Accounting and Public Policy</td>
<td>Accounting, Auditing and Accountability</td>
<td>Fortune 500 companies</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>Reporting on SR is an annual report to see a means of addressing public exposure that companies face and in return more related to public pressures than financial</td>
<td>Every business that operates in society has a social contract whether it is explicitly expressed or not implied. Societies’ confidence in firms has decreased; therefore businesses need to respond to social issues that are a consequence of their own activities.</td>
<td>the extent of company perceived social pressure has an effect on the amount that companies include of their social disclosures in annual reports</td>
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The principles of CSR are not bound by absolute standards but rather vary based on contexts. Some firms engage in social activities for profit reasons, others to care about social change or avoid potential problems. Managers must consider the labelling strategy they choose when they overreach the individual aspects of CSR, they are too focused on the principle of legitimacy and believe their social responsibility is to provide jobs, obey society's ethical laws or fix the police. Insurance companies are perceived as impersonal and capable of spreading underperformance. However, they may be influenced by such perceptions of commercial interests. Companies must therefore communicate their efforts on social change to conflict with their ability to control the issue and their traditional stance on personal morality.

There are three CSR principles: individual, social, and environmental. Responsibility for SR is not equal. Some agribusinesses develop more aggressive corporate policies. However, they are often constrained by the environment of the market. There are three CSR activities are generated from a negative event. This creates positive visibility when the company responds promptly and enhances perceived reliability across their products. Some managers believe that responsible corporate policies are popular amongst stakeholders. Socially responsible behaviour is important for many firms. Furthermore, the relationship between social and financial performance is perceived by some executives as evidence that it is unnecessary for corporate performance.

Managers perceive that CSR is not a priority by understanding the personal and organisational characteristics that influence these perceptions. They can more clearly articulate what CSR means for the company.
### 2000s Moral Awakening

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<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Research Type</th>
<th>Perspecive of CSR</th>
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<tr>
<td>Carroll (2000)</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Business Ethics Quarterly</td>
<td>Business and Management, Applied Ethics</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>CSR is a meaningful issue that will continue to embrace societal concerns. However, the public’s trust in companies to do this has declined significantly. We are going through a moral transformation.</td>
<td>When consumers ranked the honesty/trustworthiness standards of senior management, under 25 per cent ranked them as high over a period of two decades. The perceptions of business effect has not changed much over the past 30 years.</td>
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<td>Mc-Williams &amp; Siegel (2001)</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Academy of Management Review</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>Cross-Industry</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>There is a neutral relationship between stakeholder and financial performance.</td>
<td>There is an ideal level of CSR which can be identified by managers and stakeholders. Refers to consumers who value CSR more than profit.</td>
<td>No religion is separate from commercial/financial objectives. No other perspective offers a way to create value through commercial pursuits.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Saeed-Ahmed &amp; Mulchah (2001)</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Business and Management, Applied Ethics</td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Muslim countries</td>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>Islamic principle is a value-maximisation (i.e., justice) not profit maximisation, and values human nature, hence should be seen as a value-based global order.</td>
<td>There is a growing emphasis on global moral order, it is a quest for consumers to determine attitudes and identify the company’s accountability.</td>
<td>No religion is separate from commercial/financial objectives. No other perspective offers a way to create value through commercial pursuits.</td>
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<td>Murphy &amp; Walsh (2005)</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Administrative Science Quarterly</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>There is a positive association between financial performance and the company’s social performance.</td>
<td>By acknowledging the business between CSP and CPF there is an opportunity to inform the practice. First, we</td>
<td>Gap between the firm’s perceptions of CSR and the public's perceptions of the company's social performance. Less better or worse than non-CSB firms which contradicts the traditional perspective of the firm, known as the &quot;paradox of social evil.&quot;</td>
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<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Journal/Conference</td>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Type</td>
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<td>Korschun, Schmidt, &amp; Ryves (2009)</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Organization Studies</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>Positive relationship between CSR and CFP across industries. The role of reputation is key to reaping benefits from CSR. CFP is linked to managed CSR and values, so a stronger relationship between CSR and CFP when environmental measures were removed.</td>
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<td>Bhattacharya, &amp; Sen (2008)</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>CSR is the firm’s obligation to its stakeholders affected by its practices. CSR appears to be more widespread and substantial concerning than in the past.</td>
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<td>Smith (2003)</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>Banking, Finance, and Investment</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>CSR is an important part of a company’s identity in sectors where there is a disconnect between corporate profits and social goals. CSR programmes can reduce the disconnection between private and social cost society.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kotler &amp; Lee (2002)</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Case Studies</td>
<td>Cross-Industry</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Case Studies</td>
<td>Companies need to shift their perspective from obligation to strategy with regards to CSR. When companies respect their stakeholders expectations and obligations, they understand their expectations in all of their activities, they are assumed to be behaving responsibly. CSR is not presented as solely marketing or philanthropy, as important viewpoint that Take support them often overlooked. CSR is about more than just social initiatives, the company must also implement a CSR strategy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yoon, Gathen-Cashi, &amp; Schouen (2008)</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Experimental Analysis</td>
<td>Marketing University Students</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Experimental Analysis</td>
<td>CSR can improve brand image, but it is dependent on credibility and perceived security. CSR campaigns are more successful when others spread the word, increased suspicion when a company tries to do good in a domain that is negatively affected by its usual business. CSR activities are ineffective when the consumer does not perceive them as motivated, sometimes they can create a more negative image.</td>
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<td>Campbell (2007)</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>Business and Management Economics</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>CSR means different things to different places, to different people, at different times. We need to move beyond whether SR affects financial performance and understand why corporations choose to act or not in SR ways. Companies are more likely to believe in SR ways the more they are regulated through governmental, industry or NGO measures that encourages the kind of behavior. While some argue you must convince management to believe SR, others suggest that if a company voices good will, it is more likely. CSR campaigns are more successful when others spread the word, increased suspicion when a company tries to do good in a domain that is negatively affected by its usual business.</td>
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<td>Siegel &amp; Vitaliano (2007)</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>Applied Economics Cross-Industry</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>CSR is a better advancement of social agenda beyond which is required by law, and they anticipate a benefit such as reputation enhancement or the ability to charge a premium price. Companies are more likely to believe in SR ways the more they are regulated through governmental, industry or NGO measures that encourages the kind of behavior. While some argue you must convince management to believe SR, others suggest that if a company voices good will, it is more likely. CSR campaigns are more successful when others spread the word, increased suspicion when a company tries to do good in a domain that is negatively affected by its usual business.</td>
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<td>D'Auteno &amp; Legrande (2008)</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Cross-Country</td>
<td>Business and Management, Applied Ethics</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>Consumers have the power to force companies to do SR when consumers perceive their individual actions can make a difference, they are less likely to make excuses such as: economic rationalisation. Consumers have more self-interest than millions of society and SRC would be effective if they didn’t pay the price. Consumers tend to invoke their value justifications in order to reduce personal culpability, they perceive between illegal actions and unofficial behaviour.</td>
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<td>Mitton &amp; Moon (2008)</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td>United States/Europe</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>There is a global spread of explicit CSR. Sharing the information in terms of the companies own concerning the importance of the issue. Companies who have not implemented explicit CSR, it is not as effective. Explicit CSR corporate contributions in 2001 were twice times greater in the United States than in Europe.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bhattacharya, Koreschuk, &amp; Sen (2008)</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>Business and Management, Applied Ethics</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Conceptual Paper</td>
<td>Here CSR initiatives are perceived by a stakeholder can influence the relationship between the company and the consumer. Stakeholders respond to SR initiatives based on the degree to which they derive personal benefits from the company’s engagement, and what motives they perceive from the company’s relationship. When stakeholders achieve desired values through the CSR initiatives, they are likely to identify with and trust the company more.</td>
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### 2010 - 2018 Rise of the Consumer

**Author** | **Journal** | **Disciplines** | **Industry** | **Region** | **Research Type** | **Perspectives of CSR** | **Theoretical Findings/Contribution** | **Perceptions** | **Identifies Attitude-Behaviour Gap** | **Identifies Perceptual Gaps**  
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---  
Bhattacharyya & Sex (2010) | International Journal of Management Reviews | Business and Management | N/A | N/A | Conceptual paper | Companies that have a neutral ethical reputation are more likely to reap benefits from communicating their CSR activities than those with a positive ethical reputation | Companies should find ways to engage their employees and make them into the firm's CSR advocates. A company's reputation with regards to CSR will be improved in a case for the stakeholder's evaluation of them as a company | Consumers perceive the company to have multiple motives, and they understand that while a company has CSR goals, they are also trying to achieve business goals | Differences in stakeholders' perceptions of CSR motives and a company's publically stated motives will cause public scepticism and drive negative reactions to CSR activities  
Beyd, Carina-Pitzer & Maccaro (2010) | European Journal of Marketing | Marketing, Tourism, Business and Management | Hypothesis | Europe | Content Analysis | CSR has become an attribute for brand competitive differentiation, which are utilised to generate the perception of a socially responsible brand. This positioning can become one of the most useful methods of competitive differentiation | If a company does not integrate CSR throughout the strategy of the whole company, this will deter its credibility or perception of altruism. More in need is the need for consumer perceptions of a brand-CSR, which makes it difficult to transfer results to other markets outside the area of research |  
Oberwalder, Schlegelmilch & Gobet (2011) | Journal of Business Ethics | Business and Management, Applied Ethics | N/A | Europe | Interviews | Looks at the overlap between corporate practices and consumers' perceptions of CSR | Communication strategies that are controlled by the firm are perceived by consumers negatively and are likely to have a negative effect on consumer behaviour | Consumers also perceived firms to be more powerful than government |  
Parigi, Ben-David-Moreno, & Lucano (2011) | Journal of Business Ethics | Business and Management, Applied Ethics | Home Improvement Retail | Canada | Experiment | Consumers' struggle to identify truly socially responsible firms, and in a result, companies greenwash which makes CSR initiatives less effective | Communication efforts may be perceived differently depending on emotional factors. A company's perceived CSR efforts partially offsets the impact of sustainability ratings, but there are no perceived intrinsic motives to communicate. A sustainability rating can be effective, but stakeholders perceive it to be useful in improving consumer perception of CSR than those with a neutral ethical reputation | None
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Title &amp; Journal</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Questionnaire</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bakaryo &amp; Gronsky (2015)</td>
<td>Economics &amp; Sociology</td>
<td>Quotation</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td></td>
<td>Value created is viewed subjectively and does not always match what the company has created. Consumer value is evaluated subjectively, and it is likely for a company to misunderstand how a consumer perceives value. Even when an organization tries hard to understand their consumer's needs, there is still a possibility of a perception gap. Customer value is a trade-off between perceived benefits and perceived costs. There is a value perception gap between how the consumer perceives the value created by the firm, versus the value the organisation actually creates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papadimitriou, Volourdi, &amp; Ryan (2012)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Participating perceived that collective ethical consumption acts as an opportunity to self-realization and by new experiences. The perceived impact of a CSR initiative is greater when its is an individual consumer experience rather than individual collectivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chua, Lin &amp; Chang (2013)</td>
<td>Quality and quantity international journal of methodology</td>
<td>Quotation</td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>We are in the environmental era and companies are eager to promote the environment; however, greenwashing is causing messages to be unreliable and can damage consumer trust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ebarle, Reece, and Lu (2015)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td></td>
<td>Companies increasingly communicate about corporate social responsibility (CSR) through interactive online media as a way to improve corporate reputation. Using interactive channels to communicate about CSR can improve the reputation. The detrimental impacts of corporate reputation are much higher than the favourable impacts of positive evaluations. Although results seems to little effect of allowing stakeholders to respond to a company’s CSR, it can improve the credibility and stake-holders’ feelings of identification with the company increase when CSR messages are perceived as more interactive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oberndorfer, Schloglheim, &amp; Murphy (2011)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Research</td>
<td>Thematic content analysis</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR plays a limited role in consumers’ decision-making, however managers can do things such as making information more readily available and to increase the credibility through the channels chosen to share the information. Consumer perceptions of companies motives for engaging in CSR affects their response to the concept, using mediums outside of the internal company to communicate those is essential. CSR only has an effect on purchase decision when the consumer is interested in the activity and supportive of it. Consumers perceive two criteria as significant for CSR as a purchase criterion personal concerns and Gap between consumers interest in CSR and the role of CSR in purchase behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kim &amp; Lyon (2014)</td>
<td>Organization Sciences</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td></td>
<td>There was a positive association between CSR and the role of CSR in purchase behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ling &amp; Sultana (2015)</td>
<td>Social Responsibility Journal</td>
<td>Content Analysis</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR reporting can be used to communicate the level of involvement. When voluntary assurance is not too high, it is preferable for companies to get an external assessment. Benefits from CSR involvement depend on the audience. If the audience is investors, then this can impact perceptions of firm value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baguski &amp; Watts (2015)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR reporting can be used to communicate the level of involvement. When voluntary assurance is not too high, it is preferable for companies to get an external assessment. Benefits from CSR involvement depend on the audience. If the audience is investors, then this can impact perceptions of firm value.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acciaro (2015)</td>
<td>International Journal of Logistics Research and Applications</td>
<td>Conceptual paper</td>
<td>Global</td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR activities should fall within the mandate of public entity. CSR practices are not entirely voluntary. Use the phrase “CSR is not a business strategy” or “CSR is not a purchase timing strategy” or “CSR is not a purchase timing strategy”. CSR is perceived as a necessary requirement for goods, however perceptions vary around the world and understanding these differences is crucial to value creation through CP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherec &amp; Blair (2015)</td>
<td>Journal of Consumer Research</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td></td>
<td>CSR can change the way consumers perceive the performance of a product. Ethical firms are perceived as ‘genuinely ethical. However, when the company is perceived as ethical, they are also perceived as less component in expertise. CSR communications should not come from advertising, but third party sources. Managers believe that the impact CSR has on perceived performance is not likely to benefit the company other than through strengthening reputations and mitigating crises. CSR is perceived as a necessary requirement for goods, however perceptions vary around the world and understanding these differences is crucial to value creation through CP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green, Sinclair, &amp; Timson (2015)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>United Kingdom &amp; Ireland</td>
<td></td>
<td>Despite positive attitudes towards CSR, consumers behaviours vary with regards to SR consumption are not consistent. There must be a perceived fit between the cause and the organisation to supporting it. There is a quality and place for socially responsible behaviour. Consumers are willing to make a purchase or support the cause. Whereas if they perceived the artist to be well off, they would make unethical choices such as downloading illegally.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Journal</td>
<td>Business and Management, Applied Ethics</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Literature Review</td>
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<td>Chaudhri (2016)</td>
<td>International Journal of Business Communication</td>
<td>??</td>
<td>Domestic/ global corporations</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burton, Soboleva, Durand, Biais, Rockman, and Delporte (2017)</td>
<td>Journal of Brand Management</td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Non-profits</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Content Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De Jong &amp; van der Meert (2017)</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>Business and Management, Applied Ethics</td>
<td>Cross-industry</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Content Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loe (2017)</td>
<td>Public Relations Review</td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Content Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midtkleppe (2017)</td>
<td>Sustainability Management Forum</td>
<td>??</td>
<td>Supermarket</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Survey</td>
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