Parallel universes: Companies, academics, and the progress of corporate citizenship

Author: Sandra A. Waddock

Persistent link: http://hdl.handle.net/2345/2543

This work is posted on eScholarship@BC,
Boston College University Libraries.

Parallel Universes: Companies, Academics, and the Progress of Corporate Citizenship

SANDRA WADDOCK

PARALLEL UNIVERSES?

Physicists now believe that the universe may be only one of many parallel universes, existing simultaneously, and yet conceivably quite different from each other and from the day-to-day world we know. So too, academic- and practice-based thinking about corporate citizenship (corporate responsibility) and stakeholder thinking seem to have evolved in parallel, sometimes overlapping but sometimes universes apart.

The array of terminology (see Table 1) that has been used over the years in the development of what is now broadly called corporate citizenship, or corporate responsibility, highlights some of the confusion in determining the progress of corporate citizenship. But it also illustrates the very evolution that is of interest in exploring that progress, both in practice and in theory. To some extent, parallel and sometimes confusing universes exist even within the scholarly domain, not to mention between scholarship and the world of practice. Below I describe and attempt to define these terms. Whether "progress" has been made in theory or in practice remains more debatable, though unlike some skeptics, I think we can clearly

TABLE 1   Key Terms/Competing Ideas in the Evolution of
            Corporate Citizenship

- Corporate social responsibility (CSR—CSR1)
  - a Corporate social responsiveness (CSR2)
  - b Carroll's pyramid of corporate responsibilities
  - c Corporate social rectitude/ethics (CSR3)
  - d Corporate social religion (CSR4)
- Corporate social performance (CSP)
- Alternative CSR3s
  - a Corporate social relationships
  - b Corporate social reputation
- Corporate responsibility (CR)
- Stakeholder approach/theory
  - a Instrumental, descriptive, normative, narrative
  - b Stakeholder management
  - c Stakeholder relationships
  - d Stakeholder engagement
- Business ethics and values, including nature-based values
  - a Economizing
  - b Power aggrandizing
  - c Ecologizing
  - d Attunement
- Boundary-spanning functions including:
  - a Issues management
  - b Public affairs
  - c Employee relations
  - d Investor relations
  - e Public relations
  - f Customer relations
  - g Supplier relations
  - h Corporate community relations (CCR)
  - i Etc.
- Corporate community involvement (CCI)
- Corporate citizenship (CC)
     Business citizenship

point to notable achievements in both realms. But equally clearly, much more needs to be done to make corporate citizenship real. At the end of the article I briefly outline the pieces I believe will be necessary to create a "tipping point"[1] for corporate citizenship, developed in more detail in another paper.[2]

CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP THEN AND NOW

In some respects, we might like to think that things have come a long way since the early days of the Social Issues in Management Division of the Academy of Management when corporations were, in the (somewhat later) words of Prakash Sethi "up against the corporate wall." Similarly, it can seem that much has changed since the early days of "lobbying the corporation"[3] began to draw attention to potential and actual corporate abuses against society—and its stakeholders—and the natural environment. Or since the ethics scandals of the 1970s and 1980s in the defense contracting industry which resulted in the creation of the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act and spawned the implementation of codes of conduct in associated industries, and, ultimately, the Ethics Officers Association. Or since the wave of mergers and acquisitions in the 1980s and early 1990s that resulted in a whole new rationale for getting rid of people: downsizing, rightsizing, restructuring, with all of the related "social issues."

Then again, maybe not so much has changed when we look at the almost incredible array of corporate scandals, accounting frauds, executive greed, short-sightedness, and ethical problems that greeted the opening of the new millennium. What have we actually learned from management theory generally, never mind the business in society field, which is so much more peripheral? Good corporate citizenship/good management practice is hardly rocket science. What needs to be done and generally how things "ought" to be is actually pretty obvious. The problem appears to be translating what we know into practice. Much in the world of practice is the same as, or worse than, it was in the field's early days, in part because the forces of globalization and the attendant growth of corporate power have created shifting centers of power and influence in the world. By its very nature that power is explicitly focused on what Frederick[4] calls economizing and power aggrandizing, rather than on the more civilizing, relationally oriented pressures that come from civil society.[5]

Indeed, investor capitalism, which puts shareholders front and center as the stakeholder of interest, has dominated economic and corporate thinking for at least 25 years. Globalization and outsourced manufacturing have created significant labor and human rights issues in developing countries, where labor, human rights,

and environmental standards are weak or nonexistent, simulta-
neously weakening the economies of local (home) communities and
taking advantage of the disadvantaged systematically. Companies
in the U.S. now broadly participate in politics through contributions
to political action committees that at least have the appearance of
significant influence. Well, maybe corporate practice hasn't changed
all that much, after all. The question is whether the evolution in
theories has brought us relevant understanding.

   Academic thinking about corporate citizenship, variously termed
corporate social responsibility (CSR), corporate responsibility,
corporate social performance, business citizenship, and corporate
citizenship, as well as business ethics, stakeholder management,
relationships, and engagement (see Table 1), arguably *has* made
significant progress over the past 35 years or so, as this article
attempts to demonstrate. So has corporate responsibility from a
company perspective, at least in some respects, scandals and
malfeasance aside. But the practice and academic streams are in
many respects parallel universes. Further, if we were to truly look at
the whole range of management theories or management practices,
what we call corporate citizenship would be far from central. Parallel
universes thus exist within management disciplines, within the
business in society field itself in the stakeholder and corporate
responsibility streams, and between theory and the realm of
corporate practice. The gap between business in society or corporate
citizenship theory and mainstream management disciplines is
obvious and needs little attention. The recent call to action issued
by Swanson and Frederick[6] on the IABS and SIM listservers has
drawn sufficient attention to this reality that it need not be considered
in detail here.

   Fundamentally, this paper asks business in society scholars
some foundational questions. What is our role in fostering the
profusion of language and concepts portrayed in Table 1? Should
some rationalization take place or some consolidation of termino-
logy? What is our role in *bridging* parallel universes that already
exist within the field? By the creation of some sort of consistency
of conceptualization and agreement about terminology, rather than
generating still more terms that appear to describe basically the
same phenomena so as to set "our" work apart from that of others?
Or bridging between scholarship and business practice, i.e., to what
extent does and should our scholarly work reflect (or influence)

actual business practice? Or in other disciplines, bridging among the various academic disciplines that have evolved within the past 25 years that focus on fundamentally the same constructs on which business in society scholars are interested?

DEFINING CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP . . . AND RELATED TERMS

This paper focuses on parallel streams that exist within the field of business in society and between the field and corporate practice. Although it does not provide an exhaustive literature review from a scholarly perspective, I do touch on the eras since the early days when the business in society field began to take shape using Bill Frederick's[7] very helpful (and seminal) CSR framework, and illustrate how the CSRs have evolved into corporate citizenship, responsibility, reputation, and relationships in the present era. If the field is to progress it is truly important to begin to agree on terminology and its appropriate usage. I attempt to synthesize what I see as the dominant terms currently in use, and to provide reasonable definitions of those terms.

The metaphor of a branching (evolutionary?) tree neatly describes how the field has evolved into its current understanding of corporate citizenship, an understanding that begins to link the relatively parallel universes of theory and practice, and illustrates how various conceptual branches are related to each other. Toward that end it proves helpful to lay out the general definitional framework that guides this discussion, because it is increasingly clear that common definitions are needed to provide credibility and legitimacy to the field. Although not all of these terms were in use at the beginning of the field of business in society, arguably a few can now be considered core or root concepts, related to each other, building both the theoretical and practical bases of the field. The root concepts (see Figure 1), to my mind, are:

- *Corporate Citizenship (CC).* Corporate citizenship is manifested in the strategies and operating practices a company develops in operationalizing its relationships with and impacts on stakeholders and the natural environment.[8] Some degree of corporate citizenship (on a scale from poor to excellent) is present in all of

these relationships and in the ways that companies treat stake-
holder/nature. Note that this definition attempts to integrate two
separate streams of thinking: corporate (social) responsibility/
performance (in various iterations to be discussed below) and
stakeholder theory. Corporate citizenship is an increasingly
popular term in business practices, albeit there is considerable
controversy about whether a corporation can (or should) act as
a citizen.

> *Business Citizenship.* Business citizenship is similar to corpo-
> rate citizenship, involving the "broader perspective on business
> rights and duties, stakeholder relationships, opportunities,
> and challenges that accompany the . . . global economy.[9]

- *Corporate Responsibility (CR).* Corporate responsibility is the
  degree of (ir)responsibility manifested in a company's strategies
  and operating practices as they impact stakeholders and the
  natural environment day to day. Some level of responsibility is
  integral to any corporate action or decision that has impacts.
  Corporate responsibility cannot be avoided because it is integral
  to action, and thus forms the root or foundation of corporate
  citizenship. Notably, this terminology is increasingly being used
  in business practice as a substitute or alternative for corporate
  citizenship, hence the definitions are used interchangeably.

> *Corporate* Social *Responsibility (CSR or CSR1).* Corporate social
> responsibility is the subset of corporate responsibilities that
> deals with a company's voluntary/discretionary relationships
> with its societal and community stakeholders. CSR is typically
> undertaken with some intent to improve an important aspect of
> society or relationships with communities or nongovernmental
> organizations (NGOs) (nonprofits). CSR is frequently opera-
> tionalized as community relations, philanthropic, multisector
> collaboration, or volunteer activities. CSR as generally used
> falls into what Carroll[10] termed the discretionary and ethical
> responsibilities of business.

- *Corporate Social Performance (CSP)—Assessment.* Corporate social
  performance[11] focuses on the principles of (social) responsibility at
  the institutional (legitimacy), organizational (responsibility), and
  individual (managerial discretion) levels, the processes of respon-
 siveness (said to be environmental assessment, stakeholder

management, and issues management), and outcomes (social impacts, programs, and policies). Basically, CSP provides a framework by which a company's relationship to and activities in society and with respect to stakeholders and the natural environment can be assessed, illustrating that principles, processes, and outcomes all need to be taken into account. The CSP framework was "reoriented" by Swanson[12] in an effort to integrate normative and descriptive approaches to business in society through concepts of value neglect and attunement, thereby avoiding what Freeman[13] terms the separation thesis, which suggests that values can be separated from practice.

- *Stakeholder Theory.* Popularized by Ed Freeman,[14] stakeholder theory essentially argues that a company's relationships with stakeholders (and treatment of the natural environment) is core to understanding how it operates and adds value as a business; indeed, Freeman[15] argues that stakeholder relationships are the very basis of value added and strategic initiative. Stakeholder language has been widely adopted in practice and is being integrated into concepts of corporate responsibility/citizenship by scholars who recognize that it is through a company's decisions, actions, and impacts on stakeholders and the natural environment that a company's corporate responsibility/citizenship is manifested.

Other definitions useful for differentiating among the constructs used in the field are:

- *Corporate Community Relations (CCR) or Involvement (CCI).* Corporate community relations is a (boundary-spanning) corporate function that typically encompasses corporate practices that enable the company to form (hopefully positive) relationships both with members of communities in which it operates (or with which it has relationships), and with "society" at various levels (local, state/provincial, regional, national, and global). CCR typically includes specific functions such as a foundation or philanthropic program (corporate philanthropy), volunteer activities, in-kind giving, and multi- or intersector partnerships/collaboration. Corporate community involvement (CCI) can be thought of as the processes associated with company interaction with community-based stakeholders, at whatever level of community is appropriate.

FIGURE 1   A Schematic Diagram of Corporate Citizenship/
Responsibility
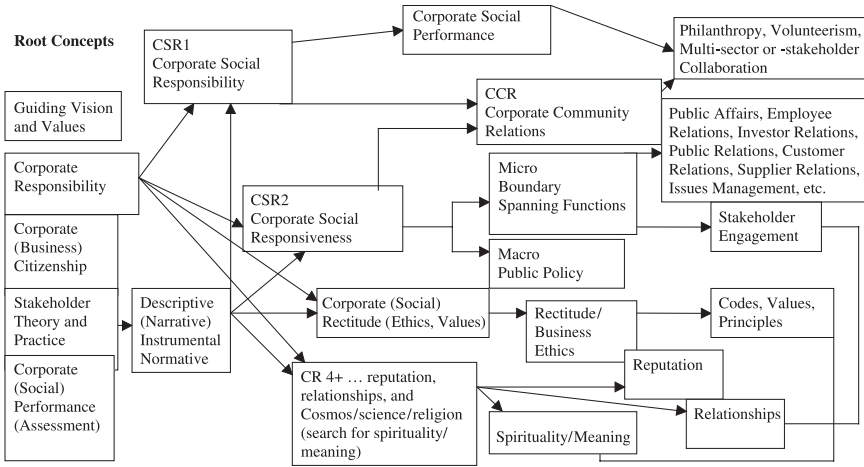
- *Corporate Reputation.* Corporate reputation[16] encompasses the perceptions that companies' external and internal stakeholders have about strategies, practices, products/services, corporate responsibility/citizenship, and performance across a broad range of stakeholder and environmental measures, not just financial measures.

In our journey through the progress of corporate citizenship, we will see that many other terms also frame this discourse. One of the important objectives of this review is an effort to get the field to agree on terminology so that as it translates into practice there can be consensus about the underlying meanings. In my opinion, too many terms with different implications are now used interchangeably or in limited ways.

A Short Historical Précis: CSR1–4 and CSP

Without going through a complete history of the field of business in society, and I would note that what we study is business *in* society, not business *and* society, we can see that there has been considerable development of (and, one hopes, advances in) scholarship,

research, and practice. Research and scholarship have been paralleled at least partially by developments in corporate practice. What isn't fully clear is whether there is yet any synthesis into a theory of business in society—or corporate citizenship—that is broadly accepted. In fact, there may well be a yet not integrated and emerging theory of corporate citizenship, but it is a theory about and in practice, rather than a synthesis of the numerous streams of scholarly literature. Corporate citizenship as it stands today is more a theory of practice that comes largely from a few progressive companies, consulting firms, and the European Union, rather than a broad consensus of business practitioners or scholars.

Let us begin this journey through the thicket of corporate citizenship terminology with the CSRs. In what became an important framework that continues to shape the conceptualization of the field, Bill Frederick argued for a progression of CSRs over a period of about 30 years. Frederick's typology begins with corporate social responsibility (CSR1) (the 1960s and 1970s), moves to corporate social responsiveness (CSR2) (the late 1970s and 1980s), and ultimately to what (somewhat unfortunately, as he later recognized) he termed corporate social . . . rectitude (CSR3) (mid-1980 onward).[17] More recently, Frederick argued that a significantly broader understanding of the role of companies in the world through a study of natural science and meaning (spirituality) needed to be undertaken through CSR4, Cosmos, Science, and Religion (spirituality).[18] More on these CSRs below, because they form the foundation on which the current progress of corporate citizenship is built.

In Figure 1 I attempt to depict graphically these relationships and others to be discussed below. On the left side of Figure 1 are what I believe are the core or foundational concepts now guiding the field (albeit not presented in the order in which they emerged). Company vision and values (top left) guide the development of corporate responsibility or the ways that company practices impact stakeholders and the natural environment. Other terms that have been used to describe these responsibilities are corporate citizenship (which I use interchangeably with corporate responsibility to reflect the wide array of integral responsibilities) and business citizenship. The broad and integral responsibilities of the firm are underpinned by the concepts developed through stakeholder theory (which, according to some scholars, has multiple forms). As the definitions above suggest, the term corporate "social" responsibility is used

here to reflect the in-practice definition of the manifestation of a company's efforts to improve the society(ies) within which it operates, including the natural environment, but the emphasis is on the specifically social ("do-good," volunteer, philanthropic, multi-sector collaborative) efforts. The arrows suggest in approximate order of emergence the specific terminology reflected in the Frederick[19] framework and later developments (discussed below).

Complementing Frederick's CSRs are multiple additional branches prominent since the 1980s: corporate responsibility, corporate reputation, and corporate relationships give us three CRs related to the ways companies manifest their stakeholder/environmental relationships. Rather than viewing them as linearly developing later stages replacing the earlier ones, as Frederick implicitly did, it may be helpful to view them as branches from the trunk of corporate social responsibility, which rests on corporate responsibility(ies), corporate citizenship, stakeholder relationships, and assessment of that performance (corporate social performance), key root concepts in the field as it exists today. These concepts exist, that is, side by side, simultaneously, rather than having evolved one from the other, more like an evolutionary tree with multiple branches that co-exist than a single successful evolutionary set of advances with a lot of deadends.[20] In this evolutionary sense, responsibility is the trunk (with integrity, perhaps at the root, though we won't go there at this point) and multiple branches emerging over time sometimes sequentially, sometimes simultaneously, not all of which fit under the CSR rubric. Corporate citizenship as it stands today is the whole tree with all branches relevant. Let us explore this evolution below.

CSR1: Corporate Social Responsibility. The first stage of business in society literature focused on corporate social responsibility, CSR1.[21] CSR1 rested on two foundational principles, charity and stewardship, and six fundamental precepts (see Table 2), which are still argued for today. Despite the evolution of terminology that Frederick articulates, the term corporate social responsibility has largely stuck, both in the academic world and in the world of corporate practice, at least until the more recent emergence of the term corporate citizenship and its related term corporate responsibility (dropping the word social). CSR1 basically argued that the rights that companies demanded in society came with a series of responsibilities, and that as actors in societies companies had an obligation

---

TABLE 2   Six Fundamental Precepts of CSR1

1.	Power begets responsibility.
2.	A voluntary assumption of responsibility is preferable to government intervention and regulation.
3.	Voluntary social responsibility requires business leaders to acknowledge and accept the legitimate claims, rights, and needs of other groups in society.
4.	CSR requires a respect for law and for the rules of that game that govern marketplace relations.
5.	An attitude of "enlightened self-interest" leads socially responsible business firms to take a long-run view of profits.
6.	Greater economic, social, and political stability—and therefore a lower level of social criticism directed toward the private enterprise system—will result if all businesses adopt a socially responsible posture.

Source: W. C. Frederick, "Theories of Corporate Social Performance," in *Business and Society*, ed. S. P. Sethi and C. M. Falbe, 144–145 (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1987).

to behave responsibly, meeting its obligations voluntarily to avoid problems that would otherwise emerge. In practical usage, the term tends, as the definition above suggests, to mean the "social" or "do-good" things that companies do, e.g., multisector collaboration and partnerships aimed at bettering society in some way, community relations activities, philanthropic programs and strategies, and volunteer activities. In this view, companies could and should be held responsible for their actions and decisions as they affect society and ought to live up to a higher set of standards than simple adherence to the law for the good of all. Notably, the language of social responsibility is the language that has survived and, in many respects, shaped the field, for many practitioners today still believe that CSR1 is all there is to the corporate citizenship paradigm.

In Practice: *During the 1960s and 1970s companies came under considerable fire from social activists and scholars alike for their practices in particular domains, including environmental irresponsibility (e.g., Rachel Carson's* Silent Spring*) and political engagement (e.g., Edwin Epstein's seminal* The Corporation in American Politics[22] *and David Vogel's* Lobbying the Corporation[23] *about ten years later). Irresponsible behavior and practices that had long gone unnoticed spawned social movements, including the environmental movement,*

*the consumer movement, and the product safety movement, plus a
wave of corporate political activism in which companies proactively
exerted power over the public interest agenda.*

CSR2: Corporate Social Responsiveness. The CSR1 era lasted from
the 1960s until about the late 1970s, when it was not replaced but
complemented by the advent of CSR2, corporate social responsive-
ness.[24] The emergence of CSR2 reflected a more proactive stance on
the part of companies which was recognized in the parallel universe
of scholarship, most notably in the work of Preston and Post.[25]
Responsiveness means that companies took explicit and forward-
looking action to deal with external constituencies (whom we would
now call stakeholders) and social/public policy issues, typically
by evolving what Preston and Post termed boundary-spanning
functions. Preston and Post also argued that corporate-society
interaction needed to be viewed not as separate and noninteracting
streams but through the lens of an "interpenetrating systems
model." Companies,using boundary-spanning functions, attempted
to cope more proactively than reactively with problems and issues
their activities raised in spheres other than the economic sphere,
inherently recognizing their interdependence (interpenetration)
with society.

Issues management became another branch of the evolutionary
tree of corporate citizenship both during the 1980s and, in some
respects, continuing today. Wartick[26] made a link between corporate
financial performance and the capacity to manage issues well, a
perspective taken global by Nigh and Cochran[27] and strategic by
Mahon and Waddock[28] using the life cycle perspective popularized
by Preston and Post.[29] Taking a more systemic, network-oriented
perspective based on some of the literature on multisector collab-
oration, Austrom and Lad[30] proposed that alliances might create a
new context for organizations, new values, and new ways of think-
ing, some of which can today be seen emerging in practice, e.g.,
through the initiatives of the UN Global Compact or the evolution of
the Global Reporting Initiative as a multistakeholder effort.

According to Frederick,[31] CSR2 was more pragmatic or practice
oriented than CSR1 had been. Indeed, CSR2 seems to have been
drawn from the experience of companies rather than from calls for
more responsibility coming from scholars or activists such as Ralph
Nader. Two substreams emerged from this thinking.[32] One stream

was a micro-organizational stream emphasizing structural changes within the company to enable it to be more responsive to external issues,[33] a stream whose progenitors were Ackerman and Bauer.[34]

The second stream within CSR2, according to Frederick, was the macro dimension, which focused on public policy and which was epitomized by the seminal work of Preston and Post.[35] Although Preston and Post famously spoke about the public responsibilities of managers, in practice, those public responsibilities became subsumed soon enough to the at least theoretical responsibilities that managers bore to the shareholders as the shareholder revolution began. This occurred in the early 1980s under the rhetoric of "shareholder first," promoted by the increasingly dominant Chicago School economists, led most notoriously by Milton Friedman and in the political context of the socially conservative Reagan era.

In Practice: *During the late 1970s and up to the present day, companies began to evolve what Preston and Post[36] called boundary-spanning mechanisms, or departments that helped the companies bridge between corporate activities and decisions and external constituencies (or sometimes, internal ones). Among the earliest of the types of boundary-spanning units to be studied in detail by business in society scholars was the public affairs function (though of course public relations had been studied for years by experts in that field).[37] Illustrating the side-by-side growth of different branches of what has now become corporate citizenship, corporate boundary-spanning functions have proliferated in the years since the public affairs function was initially studied by the Boston University group.*

Today, most multinational companies or companies of any size have several if not all of the following types of boundary-spanning functions: employee relations, employee communication, labor relations, public relations, public affairs, government relations, issues management, media relations, investor relations, customer relations, supplier relations, community relations, and, newly emerging, stakeholder relations. Figure 2 depicts these boundary-spanning functions graphically. Notably, as will become important in looking at more recent branches of thinking about the CSRs, boundary-spanning functions typically have the term "relations" in their title, although a few take on the term "management".

Additionally, corporate participation in the public policy domain has multiplied through the establishment of corporate political

FIGURE 2   Boundary-Spanning Functions Typical of the Modern
Multinational
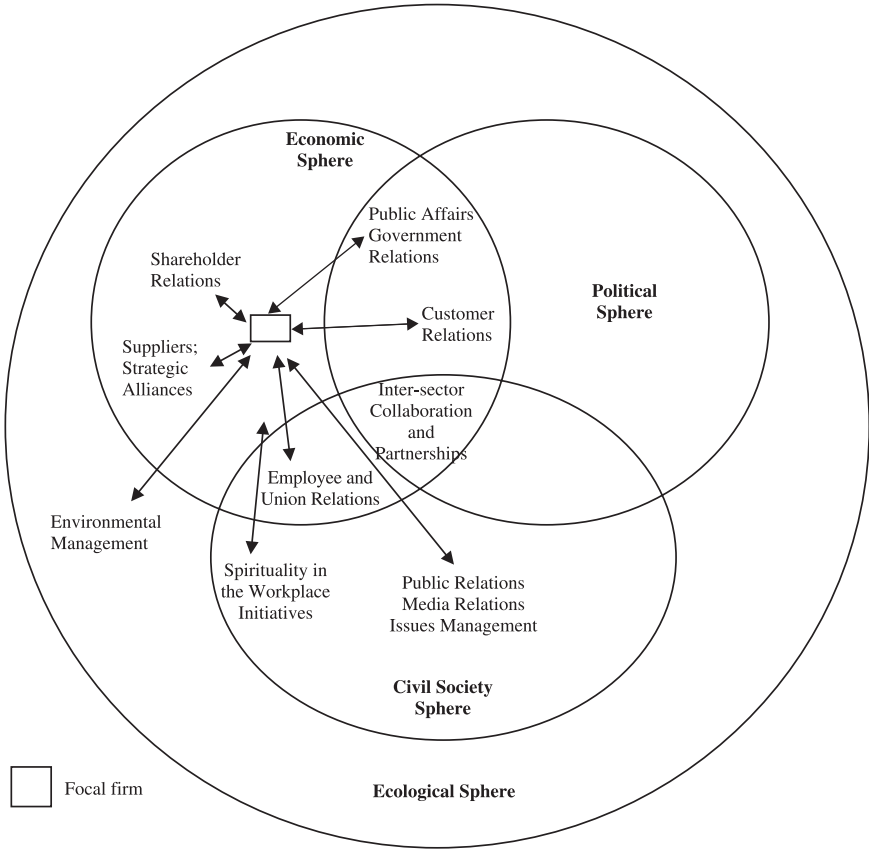
action committees and company-sponsored contributions to
political campaigns, a growing sophistication about lobbying, and
enhanced corporate political activism generally.[38] In the parallel
universes that co-exist, there are continuing calls for greater
corporate responsibility on many fronts, combined with calls for
and efforts to curtail corporate political power by restricting both
the contributions to political campaigns and the influence they are
intended to buy. Both of these streams of practice continue to grow
apace. Further, although the shareholder has clearly been the

dominant stakeholder in the minds of most managers (and economists, as well as management academics other than business in society scholars) since the Reagan Revolution pushed shareholders front and center, it is not always clear that the rhetoric of shareholder interests matched the reality of corporate practice, particularly during the late 1999s and early 2000s.

CSR3: Corporate Social . . . Rectitude. The third iteration of CSR was, according to Frederick,[39] in somewhat unfortunate terminology which was never widely adopted, corporate social rectitude, or CSR3. CSR3 reflected the dramatic growth of interest in business ethics within the general business in society field in the mid and later 1980s. CSR3, according to Frederick, emphasized both social values derived from the sociopolitical environment and the emergence of a great deal of conceptual writing about business ethics.

Led largely by converted philosophers, the business ethics component of the business in society field emphasized ethical decision-making processes, codes of conduct, and efforts to infuse companies with a broader set of values than narrow economic self-interest. As Frederick defined it, rectitude or ethics involved "a pervasive sense of rightness, respect, and humanity" that would put values and ethics "at the center of a company's concerns, its policies, and its major decisions."[40] Unfortunately, in practice, little of the sort happened, and as Liedtka[41] pointed out, the field of business ethics has had little demonstrable effect on business practice, despite the common values across many management systems and approaches which she identified in that seminal—but undercited or acknowledged—paper. The broader focus on values, however, has had some impact on practice, as is made clear in the work of not only Liedtka,[42] but also Wicks,[43] as well as the seminal management research of Collins and Porras and Senge,[44] as both theorists and progressive practitioners began to recognize the power in articulating and deploying inspirational vision and values within companies.

In Practice: *By the mid-1980s, companies had begun to realize the importance of incorporating codes of conduct/ethics into their operational activities, in part because of a plague of scandals besetting the defense contracting industry. These scandals had resulted in the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act of 1978, which mandated ethics codes in*

defense contractors to avoid scandals associated with corruption and bribery. Out of these activities, ultimately, sprang the Ethics Officers Association and various centers on Business Ethics, the Society for Business Ethics (on the academic side), organizations like the Ethics Resource Center in Washington, which helps businesses implement codes of conduct/ethics and ensures compliance, as well as numerous boutique consulting firms focused on ethics implementation.

Many defense contractors implemented codes of conduct during this period in order to comply with legal mandate. The driving force was legal compliance and, in many companies, compliance still appears to be the dominant driving force for having and implementing a code of conduct. Concepts of vision and values received a great deal of scholarly and popular attention during the 1990s, highlighted in practice by the important work of Collins and Porras in their popular book *Built to Last*,[45] which argued that visionary companies, based on solid and widely shared values, significantly outperformed companies without embedded vision. Also highly influential to at least a small group of companies was the work of Peter Senge,[46] which attempted to foster vision and values through a systemic approach to understanding successful "learning" organizations. Here it is important to notice that many of the most influential works fostering attention to vision and values, especially those that influence practice, were written outside the field of business in society. When these works, such as Senge's and Collins and Porras's, are from scholars, they tend to be from management scholars interested in influencing the practice field.

CSP: Corporate Social Performance. Another stream emerged around 1991 when Donna Wood,[47] building on the work of Wartick and Cochran,[48] and using principles, processes, and outcomes, drew up an integrated guiding framework of corporate social performance that linked the major streams to date. Basically, the CSP framework provided an outline of what needs to be considered in assessing corporate (social) responsibility or performance, as well as an overview of the dominant (at the time) processes associated with that performance. The framework (see Table 3) was primarily intended to advance theory and research in the field rather than to influence practice. Somewhat more restrictive (narrowly focused) than the current understanding of corporate responsibility and

---

TABLE 3   The Corporate Social Performance Model

Principles of Corporate Social Responsibility
    a   Institutional principle: legitimacy
    b   Organizational principle: public responsibility
    c   Individual principle: managerial discretion

Processes of Corporate Social Responsiveness
    a   Environmental assessment
    b   Stakeholder management
    c   Issues management

Outcomes of Corporate Behavior
    a   Social impacts
    b   Social programs
    c   Social policies

Source: D. J. Wood, Social Issues in Management: Theory and Research in Corporate Social Performance, *Journal of Management* 17.2 (1991):383–406.

corporate (business) citizenship, the CSP framework focused dominantly on the social (vs. broader stakeholder and environmental) impacts of corporate performance and rightly belongs in the CSR1 and CSR2 streams as identified by Frederick.[49]

As an assessment tool, the CSP model is helpful in pointing scholars and practitioners alike toward the policies, processes, and performance arenas that must be evaluated in order to assess social responsibility. It, however, largely ignores (except for a bow to stakeholder management) the integral responsibilities of companies that are associated with impacts on stakeholders and that began to surface with the evolution of stakeholder theory and the emergence of the language of corporate citizenship in the late 1990s. As Swanson[50] pointed out, the CSP approach fails to integrate ethical/value processes and the moral foundation for managerial and corporate action with the economic rationale that is notable in the economic paradigm. In "reorienting" the CSP model, Swanson argued for an interactive orientation focused on four levels of analysis: CSR macroprinciples, CSR microprinciples, corporate culture, and social impacts.

Using Frederick's[51] insightful and provocative nature-based approach to foundational corporate values, Swanson[52] argues that corporate decisions should be made on the basis of what Frederick[53] says are the basic values that shape companies, economizing

(efficiency) and ecologizing (not wasting resources), as well as power seeking (aggrandizement), which provide both negative and positive duties (benefits) to society. Swanson further argues for integration of both the normative and descriptive approaches to business in society through the concepts of value neglect (which highlights the problems of lack of integration) and value attunement to bring the responsibility and responsiveness streams together,[54] thereby attempting to overcome what Freeman[55] has called the separation thesis (the separation of ethics and business practice).

CSR4: Cosmos, Science, Religion (Spirituality). In a late-1990s keynote address to the Social Issues in Management (SIM) division of the Academy of Management, claiming that scholars had "exhausted" the primary analytic framework of CSR, Frederick (1998) added a fourth wave to his CSR framework. CSR4 invites the field away from a corporate-centric focus and toward a cosmos (C) or naturalistic and science-based orientation as a proxy for all of the natural sciences. Frederick pushed (and continues to push) for an understanding of the naturalistic basis on which human social institutions arise, through the "S" in this wave, i.e., science (S), and toward a type of understanding of man's search for meaning embodied in religion (R), or spirituality.

Interestingly, and as a side-bar, the latter orientation of spirituality in business shaped itself largely outside the business in society field, at least within practice, and in the Academy of Management, emerging as the Management Spirituality and Religion (MSR) group, separate from the more business-centric Social Issues in Management (SIM) division. This path is much the same as had been followed by the Organization and Natural Environment (ONE), Gender and Diversity in Organizations (GDO) (formerly Women in Management), and, more recently, Critical Management Studies (CMS). The spirituality in business movement, derived in some respects from interpretive methodologies that focus on meaning-making and its role in fostering successful businesses, attempts to build values into business through emphasizing spirituality (or religion) and meaning, personal and organizational awareness, and development along a number of important dimensions.[56] Furthering this side-bar, it is important to note that while the business in society field in some respects spawns such outgrowths, few business in society scholars actually participate in them. In particular,

the emergence of CMS poses a problem for business in society scholarship if it assumes the role of what Freeman,[57] in his SIM division chair's address, called "crits." That critical role has now been largely subsumed within the CMS, not the SIM, division of the Academy of Management.

Frederick's[58] effort to move the business in society field toward a less corporate-centric perspective builds on his important book, *Values, Nature, and Culture in the American Corporation*,[59] which used a natural science perspective to analyze the values that underpin business. As noted above, the fundamental values that underscore the role of business in society were, according to Frederick,[60] economizing, or prudent and efficient use of resources, commonly known as efficiency, and power aggrandizing, or augmenting and preserving the power of managers and organizations. These values stand in some tension with a third important value cluster identified by Frederick,[61] ecologizing processes, which like nature create cyclical and sustainable processes and patterns of use and reuse of raw materials.[62] In my own book, *Leading Corporate Citizens*,[63] I attempt to move these values to the sectors or spheres that constitute human society (economic—economizing values, political—power aggrandizing values, and civil society—relationship or civilizing values), along with the natural environment as underpinning with its ecologizing values (see also Waddell[64] for further explication of the differences in values within each of the broad sectors of society). Although SIMians (IABSians, and SBEians, to use Frederick's terminology) welcomed Frederick's intellectual efforts, the field remains largely focused within a corporate-centric paradigm while other fields (as the previous paragraph dramatically illustrates) adopt the wider and more critical perspective once the hallmark of the business in society field. As Frederick (2003, personal communication) points out, "if [business in society scholarship is] to remain centered on the corporation and miss the lessons to be found in the parallel universe of science and the cosmos—then we can expect others to do it."

In Practice. *The work of Peter Senge[65] and others in the systems dynamics group at MIT evolved in the 1990s into a membership organization called the Society for Organizational Learning (SoL), which attempts to bring practitioners, consultants, and researchers together in a variety of learning forums. Although focused explicitly*

on organizational learning, there is an implicit awareness of vision, values, and meaning in organizations within SoL that links rather directly to the spirituality in business movement. Additionally in practice, there is now an annual meeting of what has become the International Symposium on Spirituality in Business housed at Babson College, which was founded by Laury Hammel, among others, the original founder of what has now become the business-based membership organization, Businesses for Social Responsibility (BSR). BSR itself, founded in the late 1980s as New England Businesses for Social Responsibility, spawned and later merged into Businesses for Social Responsibility (BSR) in the mid-1990s. BSR focuses mostly on issues of corporate (social) responsibility and has grown to become, in its own words, "a global organization that helps member companies achieve success in ways that respect ethical values, people, communities and the environment" (http://www.bsr.org), thereby linking many of the implicit goals of the corporate responsibility and spirituality in business movements.

STAKEHOLDERS, CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY 1, 2, 3, AND CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP

Two major streams of the business in society field since 1984 have been the CSR/CSP emerging into corporate citizenship stream and the largely separate stakeholder stream, both underpinned in many ways by the growing emphasis on business ethics. Only recently, as will be discussed below, has theory begun to merge stakeholder thinking into thinking about corporate responsibility or citizenship. Other important streams that emerged during the past two decades of the 20th century and into the present time include a focus on corporate reputation and another separate emphasis on corporate (stakeholder) relationships and engagement. Together, these streams constitute the current progress of corporate citizenship.

Stakeholder Thinking

Thinking about stakeholders (stakeholder theory) evolved rapidly over the time period since Freeman's[66] seminal book first popularized the concept. As with corporate responsibility theory, the language surrounding stakeholder theory has also shifted over

time. Freeman's[67] general idea was that managing stakeholder relationships is essential to managing any enterprise, indeed it represents the very basis on which companies are founded and managed, and is critical to strategic management in particular. Companies cannot, in this view, exist without stakeholder relationships, and relationships by their very nature are inherently normative because of the mutuality of interests they imply. This proposition avoids what Freeman has called the separation hypothesis which says that business and ethics can be discussed independent of each other[68] (or, implicitly, that corporate "social" responsibility can be divorced from stakeholder or corporate responsibility). Companies, in the stakeholder view,[69] will be more successful when they have better stakeholder relationships.[70]

Stakeholder language was later adapted to become stakeholder *management*, with the attendant (and largely mistaken) implication that all stakeholders could (should), in fact, be "managed" by companies.[71] Over time, Freeman[72] has argued that narratives or stories about company performance are central to building coherence in understanding stakeholder relationships and company practices and performance. Others[73] have argued for three types of stakeholder theory: descriptive, instrumental, and normative (falling into, Freeman would likely say, the separation thesis). Some theorists suggest that stakeholder theory should be considered core to the theory of the firm,[74] although this suggestion has not made the leap into practice to date. Drawing on the work of Preston and Post,[75] Clarkson[76] argued that stakeholders could be both primary and secondary, depending on the impacts of the company on them (or vice versa). The core idea is that companies cannot exist without relationships to stakeholders and these relationships carry with them moral implications.

Stakeholder thinking basically argues that because corporate activities affect and are affected by the actions of internal and external constituencies (stakeholders),[77] the *relationships* and practices (see below) that a company develops with respect to its stakeholders are central to the company's long-term effectiveness and have implicit moral weight. As I have elsewhere argued, responsibility is integral to any corporate relationship or practice at some level (from very poor to excellent), but cannot because of its integral nature be avoided. This argument is fundamentally the same one that Freeman[78] makes in arguing against the separation thesis.

The dominant framing of stakeholder relationships, stakeholder management, has important and generally unrecognized implications that stakeholders can and should be *managed* much as internal corporate processes and employees (who are, of course, important stakeholders) can be managed. The implicit power dynamic of this language, however, makes it problematic for external stakeholders, who are attempting to influence corporate practice, not to be under the dominance of the company, and fails to recognize the inherent mutuality of *relationships.* The most widely cited framework of "stakeholder management" is that of Mitchell, Agle, and Wood,[79] which makes explicit the one-way operationalization of stakeholder dynamics, as well as the power implications. The alternative language, stakeholder relationships (or relationship management), represents another emerging stream of thinking.

Corporate Responsibility (CR1)/Corporate (Business) Citizenship. By the mid to late 1990s, new terminology and thinking about what we shall from here on call corporate responsibility (CR) began to emerge. Donaldson[80] published an important book that linked international business, the forces of globalization, and business ethics. The term corporate responsibility drops the word social so popular in previous language development to reflect the emerging sense that responsibilities are integral to corporate actions, decisions, behaviors, and impacts.[81] Generically, these decisions, behaviors, and impacts can be called corporate practices—and those practices inherently affect stakeholders and the natural environment. In turn, actions of stakeholders (and the status of the natural environment) affect a company's ability to carry out its work, thus corporate responsibility (nee corporate citizenship) integrally links corporate practices, stakeholders, and the integral responsibilities associated with relationship.

The term corporate responsibility is generally comparable in usage to the term corporate citizenship (CC),[82] which largely emerged from British thinkers rather than from the business in society field in the U.S. as previous developments had largely done. CR/CC is similar to business citizenship, as articulated by Wood and Logsdon and Logsdon and Wood.[83] Business citizenship incorporates the rights and duties of companies, stakeholder relationships, and opportunities and challenges of the global business environment. It is premised partly on political theory, which, in the early days of the business in society field, was more central than it currently is.[84]

The terms corporate responsibility and corporate (business) citizenship integrate stakeholder relationships into their operationalization for the first time, uniting the two dominant streams in the business in society field, because in addition to focusing on the social implications of business activities, they also incorporate issues related to companies' performance with respect to specific stakeholders and the natural environment. This integration makes stakeholder- and environment-related performance central to CR.[85] Mutual, holistic relationship-based interactions are part of both the core foundation of corporate citizenship and, in an emerging form of CR, that of corporate relationships.

Important work in the business ethics arena also typifies this period, particularly Donaldson and Dunfee's integrative social contracts theory.[86] Donaldson and Dunfee argue for the existence of foundational values that they call hypernorms which are global in scope and can be applied in any context. Picking up on this term in our study of responsibility management systems in corporate practice, Charles Bodwell and I have argued for values we term foundational values[87] as the basis for developing comparable codes of conduct and stakeholder/ecological practices across companies in different contexts.

During the 1990s and early 2000s, two other CRs became popular: corporate reputation and corporate relationships (including notions of stakeholder engagement). As "corporate social responsibility" partially morphed into "corporate responsibility" (CR1) in the world of practice, companies also began paying attention to their corporate reputation (CR2), in part as a result of renewed anti-corporate activism during the 1990s. Simultaneously, corporate (stakeholder) relationships (CR3 or CSR4a) emerged as an important set of operating principles and processes within the boundary-spanning functions that companies had begun developing in the 1970s and 1980s.

Corporate Reputation (CR2). The work of Charles Fombrun and colleagues[88] brought considerable academic attention to the issue of corporate reputation during the 1990s. Emerging in part from the marking field, corporate reputation is aimed at protecting company brands and image. The study of corporate reputation drew attention to the reality that underlying a company's public image (or public relations activities) was a reputation that could either

attract or turn away key stakeholders. Fombrun started the Reputation Management Institute at New York University, which both influenced and made a bridge to practice, and also began to do stakeholder-based surveys of companies' reputation. Additionally, the journal *Corporate Reputation Review* provided an outlet for academic papers (focused somewhat on practice) that highlight issues of corporate reputation.

In the business in society field, early work by Wartick[89] explored corporate reputation by looking at media exposure. Integration of corporate reputation into the business in society field, uniting much of the empirical work on corporate (social) responsibility/ performance, and a key element of the progress of corporate citizenship, was solidified by the publication of a special issue of *Business and Society* in December 2002, featuring articles by Wartick, Whetten and Mackey, Mahon, and Lewellyn.[90]

Company reputation is affected by a company's appearance on (or omission from) various ratings and rankings that have become popular since the early 1980s when *Fortune* magazine began its "Most Admired" rankings. The Reputation Institute, for example, links reputation and stakeholder perceptions by publishing an annual RQ (Reputation Quotient) index that rates external stakeholders' perceptions of the companies. Numerous other ratings and rankings assess company performance on a wide variety of issues related to corporate citizenship.

Corporate (Stakeholder) Relationships (CR3, CSR4a)/Stakeholder Engagement. As the language of stakeholder theory diffused into corporate and popular parlance, the term stakeholder management gained a degree of dominance, taking a central place in important works like the Post et al. book *Redefining the Corporation* and their related paper, "Managing the Extended Enterprise" (see note 69). Others, however, focused on the relational aspects of stakeholder, emphasizing stakeholder engagement as a long-term process of mutual interaction[91] and recognizing that stakeholder relationships are the foundation of the perceptions that make up corporate reputation.

Stakeholder engagement processes partially grew out of attention to public-private partnerships, which have evolved into multistakeholder collaboration and dialogue[92] to bring multiple interests together around important social, political, and economic

development issues. Engagement on a relatively equal footing means power sharing, interaction, and partnership and is high-lighted in emerging multistakeholder dialogues being sponsored, for example, by the United Nations' Global Compact's Learning Forum among numerous others.

Engagement with corporate executives on sensitive issues is also an important strategy of the social investment movement, particularly social investors who submit shareholder resolutions. Some organizations like the Interfaith Center on Corporate Responsibility sponsor about 100 shareholder resolutions annually, some of which are withdrawn after engagement with company executives on the relevant issue.

In Practice. *From a practitioner perspective, CR and CC terminology began as much with company practice in a few leading progressive firms (e.g., BPAmoco and its progress environmental stance, Royal Dutch Shell after its problems with Brent Spar and Nigeria when it began publishing a triple bottom line report) as in academia with the influence coming from practice to the academy. In the U.S., the Hitachi Foundation (a Japanese company) in Washington, DC notably published a report entitled* Global Corporate Citizenship—Rationale and Strategies *in 1997 by David Logan, Delwin Roy, and Laurie Regelbrugge, which helped to frame the conversation for businesses. Consultancies began to spring up in Great Britain to help companies forward their citizenship agendas, including one developed by David Logan called The Corporate Citizenship Company.*

In England, the University of Warwick established a Corporate Citizenship Unit which gained considerable notoriety, first under the direction of former BP executive Chris Marsden (who also published several articles promoting the idea of corporate citizenship) and then under the direction of Malcolm McIntosh (now at the University of Bath and founder of an independent institute on sustainability). By 2000, McIntosh had established the *Journal of Corporate Citizenship* (Greenleaf) as a means of driving the field forward and providing an outlet for scholarly and practitioner articles on the subject in what was hoped would be a global forum. Also, several books on corporate citizenship had been published, including *Corporate Citizenship* by Malcolm McIntosh, Deborah Leipziger, Keith Jones, and Gill Coleman, *Global Corporate Citizenship* edited by leading management scholar (and consultant) Noel Tichy and colleagues

Andrew McGill and Lynda St. Clair, and *Perspectives on Corporate Citizenship* edited by Andriof and McIntosh, not to mention my own *Leading Corporate Citizens*.[93] Also during this period, the company membership organization formerly known as the Center for Corporate Community Relations at Boston College, which had helped to build the profession of community relations, a boundary-spanning function, changed its name in 2001 to the Center for Corporate Citizenship, spreading the terminology among its active membership and focusing the attention of practitioners on the broader and still evolving concept of corporate citizenship.

Stakeholder language has become popular in practice since Freeman's book was first published, with most companies now acknowledging their ongoing relationships with a range of critical primary and secondary stakeholders. Stakeholder engagement processes appeared in progressive companies, particularly those that had been hard hit by activism (e.g., Royal Dutch Shell and Nike). From interaction, companies moved to participation in collaborative activities, such as multistakeholder dialogues and collaboration under the auspices of economic development agencies and, for example, the UN Global Compact.

Additionally, corporate reputation gained considerable attention in both the academy and in practice, particularly when brand-name companies began to be hit by labor, human rights, and environmental activism during the 1990s, as they followed global outsourcing strategies that brought attention to the relatively poor practices of supplier companies. Ratings of companies on the basis of issues that were at least on the surface unrelated to financial performance began in the 1990s to become quite popular (many deriving from Fortune magazine's long-standing "Most Admired" rankings). The social investment movement also evolved from an almost strictly issues-based focus (focusing on negative screens to screen out companies whose particular products or practices social investors had problems with) toward more of a stakeholder-related set of screens.

Engagement with corporate executives on sensitive issues is an important strategy of the social investment movement, particularly social investors who submit shareholder resolutions. Some organizations like the Interfaith Center on Corporate Responsibility sponsor about 100 shareholder resolutions annually, some of which are withdrawn after engagement with company executives on the

relevant issue. The work of ICCR is complemented by that of IRRC, the Investor Responsibility Research Center, which tracks shareholder resolutions and performs research on them.

Activists of all sorts have begun to learn to engage with companies directly, sometimes through collaborative activities, sometimes through multistakeholder dialogues, and sometimes directly over specific issues. As one example, the UN Global Compact signatory companies participate in a series of policy dialogues on issues of importance to business under the sponsorship of the GC office. Consultancies increasingly pay attention to issues related to stakeholder engagement or foster dialogue/conference sessions to teach collaboration and dialogue skills to management (e.g., the Centre for Innovation in Management at Simon Fraser University in Canada). The 1999 meeting of the World Trade Organization in Seattle, where sometimes violent protests against globalization and its impacts on people, societies, and the natural environment broke out, represents a pivotal point in the practice of corporate citizenship. These protests and ensuing ones around the globe highlighted the reality that companies exist within societies and are subject to the scrutiny of activists of all stripes.

In making their corporate citizenship activities explicit and transparent, many European Union companies appear to be well ahead of U.S. companies. Some regularly issue what are now being called triple (or multiple) bottom line reports[94] in an effort to be more transparent about their corporate citizenship to their stakeholders. The EU itself issued a White Paper on Corporate Social Responsibility in 2002.

A TIPPING POINT FOR CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP?

Many factors[95] push in the direction of corporate responsibility/citizenship and against the forces of shareholder dominance of the Chicago School economic model, which puts shareholder interests above those of other stakeholders. But it is obvious from looking at the very brief overview of what is happening in scholarship and practice that these factors have yet to cohere into a system with the power or strength of the economic model and what Mike Jensen[96] calls the single objective function of profitability. Stakeholder theory and corporate citizenship's triple bottom line demand complexity of

objective functions (as Duane Windsor[97] recently argued), a capacity to "take" multiple perspectives, which is also a given for productive stakeholder engagement of any sort.[98] The triple (or any multiple) bottom line approach demands multiple objective functions and new, more holistic measurement systems (e.g., balanced score-card,[99] holistic performance assessment,[100] and social audit).[101]

The Global Reporting Initiative, with its association with AA 1000 (stakeholder and sustainability), SA 8000 (labor), and ISO 14000 (environmental) standards and processes, pushes both corporate citizenship practice and scholarship in new directions that demand greater integration rather than less. As I have argued elsewhere,[102] however, creating a tipping point[103] for corporate citizenship de-mands a far more systemic and holistic approach to corporate responsibility (and performance in general) and its assessment than has existed to date. Below, I briefly outline what I believe to be the essential components for making corporate citizenship real:

- *Responsibility Management Systems:* coherent, systemic, and holistic internal responsibility management systems that acknow-ledge the mutuality of interests of companies and their stake-holders and the natural environment (with appropriate external support from consultants and industry or related organizations/ associations), and

- *Responsibility Assurance Systems and Processes:* externally credible responsibility assurance that comprises generally (globally) accepted foundational principles and standards pro-mulgated by credible institutions, globally accepted and credible reporting standards and guidelines for at least the triple bottom line, and credible external verification, monitoring, and certi-fication systems.

Let me explain. One key factor in making corporate citizenship real is the evolution of recognized and accepted responsibility manage-ment systems[104] analogous to accepted quality and environmental management systems. The second key factor is a holistic and integrated responsibility assurance system, which from what I can see now, involves three additional elements. As noted above, the first key element is globally accepted standards and principles, e.g., those of the Global Compact, Sullivan Principles, Caux Prin-ciples, OECD Guidelines for Multinational Corporations, ILO conven-tions, or, more likely, some synthesized and rationalized combination

of the core elements of these and related principles. Second, there will need to be generally accepted social and environmental (and financial) reporting standards for which Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) seems to be the leading contender at the moment. The third element of the responsibility assurance system is credible and generally accepted, verifiable assessment, certification, and monitoring systems (along the lines of AA 1000 stakeholder engagement/triple bottom line and SA 8000's labor assessment practices).

How do we know such a system is needed? Well, one of the characteristics of the scandals of 2002 (and surrounding years) is that much trust in the system has been destroyed. Some 1000 companies have joined the UN Global Compact, agreeing to live up to the nine principles, but they represent only a drop in the bucket compared to the 70,000 multinational firms in existence, not to mention the millions of small and medium-sized enterprises that hardly receive any attention at all in the literature on corporate citizenship. Of the GC signatories, as of early 2003, only 44 were U.S. companies, yet U.S. companies clearly dominate the global business environment. Progress has been made on corporate citizenship, but, from this very cursory overview, it is clear that much more needs to happen both to link the parallel universes of practice and scholarship that now exist and to integrate the CR and stakeholder streams within the business in society field. Yet, as Frederick[105] might well point out, all of this is still corporate centric, while as the world's problems today dramatically illustrate, there is life in society beyond companies.

WHAT REMAINS FOR CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP SCHOLARS?

We have come far. Corporate citizenship has made progress. But there is obviously a distance yet to be traveled to complete the journey toward making corporate citizenship real, in integrating the parallel universes within scholarship and with practice, and toward expanding the purview and impact of the business in society field. There is plenty of work left to do to continue the progress of corporate citizenship, in both the scholarly and practitioner realms. The corporate scandals of (and around) 2002, the many protests against globalization, the long-term economic implications of war, and a

politically inward United States within a globalized world highlight some of the many important issues related to corporate citizenship that still demand attention. Such issues provide an outline for the future development of corporate citizenship research that may be helpful to consider. Scandals drew attention to the conflicts on corporate political involvement/strategies, unhealthy political ties, corruption, lack of transparency, and lack of accountability for impacts of many large companies today. They draw attention to the reality that many people do, in practice, separate their morality and their humanity from economic and business decisions.

The activist pressures that emerged around issues related to outsourcing in the 1990s (e.g., human rights abuses, labor rights, sweatshop working conditions, pay scales, living standards, population control, corruption, and environmental degradation) highlight further areas of concern. Issues of ecological sustainability, while receiving significant attention from environmental scholars, need to be re-introduced into the corporate citizenship/responsibility agenda, in part to integrate the extensive attention on the ecology which has emerged in the European Union (in particular). Other issues, such as AIDS in the workplace, water resources/scarcity, war (e.g., Iraq) and its impacts on business, making work more meaningful and balancing human life and the spheres in which human civilization operates, all demand attention. And these issues simply scratch the surface. Important questions need to be asked and answered and business in society scholars have critical roles to play in that process.

Integration of these universes and the dichotomies within the field might serve us all well; finding common language that defines what we mean by corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, values/ethics, and the many related terms can only enhance the progress and credibility of the field. Finding ways to show the business relevance of an integral perspective that conceptualizes the values we experience as human beings and those we experience in business as one, not many, can be an important step. Broadening our own reading, research, and scholarship, whether by studying the natural sciences as Frederick argues, reading literature as Freeman suggests, using art (e.g., plays, as Dawn Elm recently did in her SIM division chair's address), reading sociology, anthropology, psychology, and related disciplines, or creatively integrating other disciplines *into* the field (rather than allowing

them to separate and create yet new parallel universes as we have experienced in the past) is arguably a productive—and integrated— path to follow.

Hard-Hitting Scholarship . . . ?

Much as we might hate to admit it, Jon Entine's incessant pushing on the hard questions forces us to ask questions we might other- wise avoid. The hard questions about the social value of branding and marketing show up in books like Naomi Klein's *No Logo*, about the practices of the fast food/meat packing industry in Eric Schlosser's *Fast Food Nation*, and the questioning about the popular assumptions of the role of business in society in work by sociologists like my colleague Charlie Derber in *People Before Profits* and *Corporation Nation*.[106] They show up on activist websites such as Sweatshop Watch, CorpWatch, AdBusters, NoLogo, and others like them. They show up in the emergence of new divisions of the academy, new centers where productive engagement between companies and academics is taking place, and new lines of thinking that are more integrative in their potential. Increasingly, they show up in work by scholars in other disciplines (e.g., the critical management studies group, gender and diversity group, complexity theorists and scientists [Frederick, personal communication], organization and environment, spirituality in business groups). Such scholarship outside the business in society field threatens to slowly erode the core of the disciplines, unless, as Dr. Seuss says, in *The Lorax*, UNLESS . . .

> Now that you're here,
> the word of the Lorax seems perfectly clear.
> UNLESS someone like you
> cares a whole awful lot,
> nothing is going to get better.
> It's not.
>   —Dr. Seuss, *The Lorax*

Answers to these problems of scholarship, focus, and inclusion of new and vital topics that stop the development of more parallel universes in the interest of attempting to understand the one we experience day to day will conceivably allow the field to grow in a healthy and more integrated way and show up where we have the

courage to ask—and try to answer—the tough questions. They show up where we can simultaneously raise the values, the management, and the human questions that might not find their answers in traditional empiricism but where answers are sorely needed.

These hard questions and equally hard answers need to show up in our work, too.

NOTES

1.   M. Gladwell, *The Tipping Point: How Little Things Can Make a Big Difference* (Boston: Little, Brown, 2000).

2.   S. Waddock, "What Will It Take to Create a Tipping Point for Corporate Responsibility?" Working Paper, Boston College, 2003.

3.   D. Vogel, *Lobbying the Corporation: Citizen Challenges to Business Authority* (New York: Basic Books, 1979).

4.   W. C. Frederick, *Values, Nature, and Culture in the American Corporation* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1995).

5.   S. Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens: Vision, Values, Value Added* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 2002).

6.   D. Swanson and W. C. Frederick, "A Call to Arms and Plan for Collective Action." Issued on the IABS and SIM listservers, 2002.

7.   W. C. Frederick, "Theories of Corporate Social Performance," in *Business and Society*, ed. S. P. Sethi and C. M. Falbe (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1987); and Moving to CSR4: What to Pack for the Trip, *Business and Society* 37.1 (1998):40–59.

8.   Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens.*

9.   D. J. Wood and J. M. Logsdon, "Theorizing Business Citizenship," in *Perspectives on Corporate Citizenship*, ed. M. McIntosh and J. Andriof (Sheffield, England: Greenleaf, 2001); J. M. Logsdon and D. J. Wood, Business Citizenship: From Domestic to Global Level of Analysis, *Business Ethics Quarterly* 12.2 (2002):155–188.

10.   A. B. Carroll, A Three-Dimensional Conceptual Model of Corporate Social Performance, *Academy of Management Review* 4 (1979):497–505; The Four Faces of Corporate Citizenship, *Business and Society Review* 100–101 (1998):1–7.

11.   D. J. Wood, Social Issues in Management: Theory and Research in Corporate Social Performance, *Journal of Management* 17.2 (1991):383–406; Corporate Social Performance Revisited, *Academy of Management Journal* 16 (1991):691–718.

12. D. L. Swanson, Addressing a Theoretical Problem by Reorienting the Corporate Social Performance Model, *Academy of Management Review* 20.1 (1995):43–64.

13. R. E. Freeman, The Politics of Stakeholder Theory: Some Future Directions, *Business Ethics Quarterly* 4 (1994):409–422.

14. R. E. Freeman, *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach* (Boston: Pitman, 1984).

15. R. E. Freeman, "Value Creation and Trade: A Stakeholder Approach." Unpublished working paper, 2003.

16. C. Fombrun, *Reputation: Realizing Value from the Corporate Image* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1996).

17. Frederick, Corporate Social Performance.

18. Frederick, Moving to CSR4.

19. Ibid.

20. Ironically, using this biological reference brings us to Frederick's more recent work on the linkages between biology/nature and business ethics/responsibility (see note 4).

21. Frederick, Corporate Social Performance.

22. E. M. Epstein, *The Corporation in American Politics* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1969).

23. Vogel, *Lobbying the Corporation*.

24. Frederick, Corporate Social Performance.

25. L. E. Preston and J. E. Post, *Private Management and Public Policy: The Principle of Public Responsibility* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975).

26. S. L. Wartick, How Issues Management Contributes to Corporate Performance, *Business Forum* 13.2 (1988):16–22.

27. D. Nigh and P. L. Cochran, Issues Management and the Multi-national Enterprise, *Management International Review* 34 (1994 Special Issue):51–59.

28. J. F. Mahon and S. A. Waddock, Strategic Issues Management: An Integration of Issue Life Cycle Perspectives, *Business and Society* 31.1 (1992):19–32.

29. Preston and Post, *Private Management and Public Policy.*

30. D. R. Austrom and L. J. Lad, "Issues Management Alliances: New Responses, New Values, and New Logics," in *Research in Corporate Social Performance and Policy*, vol. 11, ed. J. E. Post (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1989).

31. Frederick, Corporate Social Performance.

32. Ibid.

33.   E.g., J. E. Post, *Corporate Behavior and Social Change* (Reston, VA: Reston, 1978); J. E. Post, E. A. Murray, Jr., R. B. Dickie, and J. F. Mahon, The Public Affairs Function in American Corporations: Development and Relations with Corporate Planning, *Long Range Planning* 15.2 (1982):12–21.

34.   R. W. Ackerman and R. A. Bauer, *Corporate Social Responsiveness* (Reston, VA: Reston, 1976).

35.   Preston and Post, *Private Management and Public Policy.*

36.   Ibid.

37.   Post et al., The Public Affairs Function.

38.   J. F. Mahon, Corporate Political Strategy, *Business in the Contemporary World* 2 (1989):50–62.

39.   Frederick, Corporate Social Performance.

40.   Ibid.,157.

41.   J. M. Liedtka, Constructing an Ethic for Business Practice: Competing Effectively and Doing Good, *Business and Society* 37.3 (1998):254–280; and Linking Competitive Advantage with Communities of Practice, *Journal of Management Inquiry* 8.1 (1999):5–16.

42.   Ibid.

43.   A. C. Wicks, The Value Dynamics of Total Quality Management: Ethics and the Foundations of TQM, *Business Ethics Quarterly* 11.3 (2001):401–436.

44.   J. C. Collins and J. I. Porras, Building Your Company's Vision, *Harvard Business Review* (September–October 1996):65–77; and *Built to Last: Successful Habits of Visionary Companies* (New York: HarperBusiness, 1997); P. Senge, *The Fifth Discipline* (New York: Free Press, 1990).

45.   Collins and Porras, *Built to Last.*

46.   Senge, *The Fifth Discipline.*

47.   Wood, Social Issues in Management; Corporate Social Performance Revisited.

48.   S. L. Wartick and P. L. Cochran, The Evolution of the Corporate Social Performance Model, *Academy of Management Review* 10 (1985):758–769.

49.   Frederick, Corporate Social Performance.

50.   Swanson, Reorienting the Corporate Social Performance Model.

51.   Frederick, *Values, Nature, and Culture.*

52.   Swanson, Reorienting the Corporate Social Performance Model.

53.   Frederick, *Values, Nature, and Culture.*

54.   D. L. Swanson, Toward an Integrative Theory of Business and Society: A Research Strategy for Corporate Social Performance, *Academy of Management Review* 24.3 (1999):406–522.

55. Freeman, Politics of Stakeholder Theory.

56. Cf. Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens.*

57. R. E. Freeman, "Let's Disband the Academy of Management," Social Issues in Management Division Chair's Address. Reprinted in Social Issues in Management Division *Newsletter*, no. 3 (1989).

58. Frederick, Moving to CSR4.

59. Frederick, *Values, Nature, and Culture.*

60. Ibid.

61. Ibid.

62. Cf. Swanson, Reorienting the Corporate Social Performance Model.

63. Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens.*

64. S. Waddell, Six Societal Learning Concepts in an Era of Engagement, *Reflections: The SoL Journal* 3.4 (2002).

65. Senge, *The Fifth Discipline.*

66. Freeman, *Strategic Management.*

67. Ibid.

68. Freeman, Politics of Stakeholder Theory; "Value Creation and Trade."

69. See also J. E. Post, L. E. Preston, and S. Sachs, *Redefining the Corporation* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002); and Managing the Extended Enterprise: The New Stakeholder View, *California Management Review* 45.1 (2002):6–29.

70. S. Waddock and S. B. Graves, The Corporate Social Performance—Financial Performance Link, *Strategic Management Journal* 18.4 (1997):303–319.

71. J. Andriof and S. Waddock, "Unfolding Stakeholder Engagement," in *Unfolding Stakeholder Thinking: Theory, Responsibility and Engagement*, ed. J. Andriof, S. Waddock, B. Husted, and S. Rahman, 19–42 (Sheffield, England: Greenleaf, 2002).

72. Freeman, Politics of Stakeholder Theory.

73. E.g., T. Donaldson and L. E. Preston, The Stakeholder Theory of the Corporation: Concepts, Evidence, and Implications, *Academy of Management Review* 20.1 (1995):65–91; T. M. Jones, Instrumental Stakeholder Theory: A Synthesis of Ethics and Economics, *Academy of Management Review* 20 (April 1995):404–437.

74. E.g., S. Brenner and P. Cochran, A Stakeholder Theory of the Firm, *Proceedings of the International Association of Business and Society*, Sundance, UT, March 1991; Donaldson and Preston, The Stakeholder Theory; T. M. Jones and A. C. Wicks, Convergent Stakeholder Theory, *Academy of Management Review* 24.2 (1999):206–221.

75. Preston and Post, *Private Management and Public Policy.*

76. M. B. E. Clarkson, A Stakeholder Framework for Analyzing and Evaluating Corporate Social Performance, *Academy of Management Review* 20.1 (1995):92–117.

77. Freeman, *Strategic Management.*

78. Freeman, Politics of Stakeholder Theory.

79. R. K. Mitchell, B. R. Agle, and D. J. Wood, Toward a Theory of Stakeholder Identification and Salience: Defining the Principle of Who and What Really Counts, *Academy of Management Review* 22.4 (1997):853–886.

80. T. Donaldson, *The Ethics of International Business* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1992).

81. Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens*; "What Will It Take?"

82. C. Marsden, The New Corporate Citizenship of Big Business: Part of the Solution to Sustainability? *Business and Society Review* 105.1 (2000):9–26; C. Marsden and J. Andriof, Towards an Understanding of Corporate Citizenship and How to Influence It, *Citizenship Studies* 2.2 (1998):329–352; M. McIntosh, D. Leipziger, K. Jones, and G. Coleman, *Corporate Citizenship: Successful Strategies for Responsible Companies* (London: Financial Times/Pitman, 1998).

83. Wood and Logsdon, Theorizing Business Citizenship; Logsdon and Wood, Business Citizenship.

84. Albeit see Mahon, Corporate Political Strategy.

85. Marsden, New Corporate Citizenship; Marsden and Andriof, Understanding Corporate Citizenship; McIntosh et al., *Corporate Citizenship*; Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens.*

86. T. Donaldson, Values in Tension: Ethics Away from Home, *Harvard Business Review* (September–October 1996):1–12. Reprint #96402; T. Donaldson and T. W. Dunfee, Toward a Unified Conception of Social Contracts Theory, *Academy of Management Review* 19.2 (1994):252–284.

87. S. Waddock and C. Bodwell, From TQM to TRM: The Emerging Evolution of Total Responsibility Management (TRM) Systems, *Journal of Corporate Citizenship* 2.7 (2002):113–126; S. Waddock, C. Bodwell, and S. B. Graves, Responsibility: The New Business Imperative, *Academy of Management Executive* 16.2 (2002):132–148.

88. Fombrun, *Reputation*; C. J. Fombrun, Indices of Corporate Reputation: An Analysis of Rankings and Ratings by Social Monitors, *Corporate Reputation Review* 1.4 (1998):327–340; Opportunity Platforms and Safety Nets: Corporate Citizenship and Reputational Risk, *Business and Society Review* 105.1 (2000):85–107; C. Fombrun and M. Shanley, What's in a Name? Reputation Building and Corporate Strategy, *Academy of Management Journal* 33 (1990):233–258.

89.   S. Wartick, The Relationship Between Intense Media Exposure and Change in Corporate Reputation, *Business and Society* 13 (1992):33–49.

90.   In *Business and Society* 41.4 (2002): S. Wartick, Measuring Corpor 4ate Reputation: Definition and Data, 371–392; D. A. Whetten and Alison Mackey, A Social Actor Conception of Organizational Identity and Its Implications for the Study of Organizational Reputation, 393–414; J. F. Mahon, Corporate Reputation: A Research Agenda Using Strategy and Stakeholder Literature, 415–445; P. G. Lewellyn, Corporate Reputation: Focusing the Zeitgeist, 446–455.

91.   E.g., A. Svendsen, *The Stakeholder Strategy: Profiting from Collaborative Business Relationships* (San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 1998); J. S. Harrison and C. H. St. John, Managing and Partnering with External Stakeholders, *Academy of Management Executive* 10.2 (1996):46–60; R. E. Freeman and D. R. Gilbert, Jr., *Corporate Strategy and the Search for Ethics* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988).

92.   J. M. Calton and S. L. Payne, Coping with Paradox: Multistakeholder Learning Dialogue as a Pluralist Sensemaking Process for Addressing Messy Problems, *Business and Society* 42.1 (2003):7–42; S. L. Payne and J. M. Calton, "Towards a Managerial Practice of Stakeholder Engagement: Developing Multi-Stakeholder Learning Dialogues," in Andriof et al., eds., *Unfolding Stakeholder Thinking*, 121–136; S. Waddell and L. D. Brown, Fostering Intersectoral Partnering: A Guide to Promoting Cooperation among Government, Business, and Civil Society Actors, *IDR Reports* 13.3 (1997).

93.   J. Andriof and M. McIntosh, eds., *Perspectives on Corporate Citizenship* (Sheffield, England: Greenleaf, 2001); N. Tichy, A. McGill, and L. St. Clair, eds., *Corporate Global Citizenship* (New York: Lexington Books, 1998); McIntosh et al., *Corporate Citizenship*; Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens.*

94.   J. Elkington, *Cannibals with Forks: The Triple Bottom Line of Sustainability* (Gabriola Island, B.C., Canada: New Society Publishers, 1998).

95.   See Waddock et al., Responsibility.

96.   M. C. Jensen, Agency Costs of Free Cash Flow, Corporate Finance, and Takeovers, *The American Economic Review* 72 (May 1986):323–330. Reprinted in Andriof et al., eds., *Unfolding Stakeholder Thinking*, 65–84.

97.   D. Windsor, "Jensen's Approach to Stakeholder Theory," in Andriof et al., eds., *Unfolding Stakeholder Thinking*, 85–100.

98.   Waddock, *Leading Corporate Citizens.*

99.   R. S. Kaplan and D. P. Norton, The Balanced Scorecard—Measures that Drive Performance, *Harvard Business Review* (January–February 1992):71–79.

100.   P. Lewellyn and M. Sillanpää, "Holistic Performance Model." Paper presented at the International Association of Business in Society Annual Meeting, March 2001, Sedona, AZ.

101.   S. Waddock and N. Smith, Corporate Responsibility Audits: Doing Well by Doing Good, *Sloan Management Review* 41.2 (2000):75–83.

102.   Waddock, "What Will It Take?"

103.   Gladwell, *The Tipping Point.*

104.   E.g., Waddock and Bodwell, From TQM to TRM; Waddock et al., Responsibility.

105.   Frederick, Moving to CSR4.

106.   N. Klein, *No Logo: No space, no choice, no jobs, no logo: Taking aim at the brand bullies* (New York: Picador, 2000); E. Schlosser, *Fast Food Nation: The Dark Side of the All-American Meal* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2001); C. Derber, *Corporation Nation: How Corporations Are Taking Over Our Lives and What We Can Do About It* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998); and *People Before Profit: The New Globalization in an Era of Terror, Big Money, and Economic Crisis* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2002).