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ABSTRACT

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is argued to be a strategic imperative, one that can significantly affect firm competitiveness. However, little research demonstrates what actually shapes or drives firms towards proactive CSR. This paper proposes that strategic planning is one such driver in that it creates awareness of and formulates responses to a firm's stakeholders, thereby enabling CSR. But while a strategic planning effort can develop the best and most impressive strategies – those that drive CSR – they might be actualized in a manner more or less than intended given the type of firm culture in place. Thus, firm culture is argued to moderate the relationship between strategic planning and CSR.

KEYWORDS

Corporate social responsibility, strategic planning, firm culture, stakeholders, firm success

1. Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been described as a strategic imperative of the firm (Waddock et al., 2002; Davis, 2005; Brammer et al., 2006; Galbreath, 2006a, 2006b; McWilliams et al., 2006; Porter and Kramer, 2006). More specifically, CSR comprises the responsibilities firms assume towards its various stakeholders and as such, acts as the means for them to do their part in fulfilling societal welfare (Freeman, 1984; Gilbert and Freeman, 1988; Clarkson, 1995; Mullin, 1996; Post et al., 2002; Smith, 2003; Sundaram and Inkpen, 2004; Ingenbleek et al., 2007). With respect to fulfilling its social responsibilities, a firm's actions range from reactivity to proactivity (Carroll, 1979; Clarkson, 1995; Hart and Milstein, 2003). A firm is reactive in terms of CSR when it either rejects or is unaware of the expectations of its stakeholders. Conversely, a firm is proactive in terms of CSR when it is aware of, anticipates and meets its stakeholder demands. Of interest then, is what shapes or drives a firm's posture with respect to CSR.

According to Aguilera et al. (2007), studies on CSR have been dominated by the testing of the relationship between the construct and firm financial performance – not on exploring what *drives* CSR. The authors suggest that "breakthrough" research such as meta-analysis and supply and demand models (e.g., McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Orlitzky et al., 2003; De Bakker et al., 2005; Mackey et al., 2007) demonstrate that there is a significant positive effect of CSR on financial performance and given the evidence, new research directions should be pursued. Other scholars argue that there has been an overemphasis on examining the content of CSR activities to the detriment of studying the institutional factors that might shape or drive such activities in the first place (e.g. Margolis and Walsh, 2003; Campbell, 2006; de Graaf, 2006; Gond and Herrbach, 2006; Brickson, 2007; Campbell, 2007). "Therefore, an important new line of inquiry within the field is no longer if CSR works [or what its activities consist of], but rather, *what catalyzes organizations to engage in increasingly robust CSR initiatives*…" (Aguilera, 2007: 3) (italics in original).

While the importance of the Aguilera et al. (2007) statement is acknowledged, researchers have not entirely avoided the issue of drivers of CSR. Scholars have suggested the government (Moon, 2004), national business systems (Edwards, 2004; Matten and Moon, 2004), social network pressures (Burke et al., 1986; Burke and Logsdon, 1996), NGOs (Campbell, 2007) and competition and globalization (Korhonen, 2002). However, much of this research focuses on the *external* institutional influences on CSR (cf. Jones, 1999; Campbell, 2006, 2007). An equally valid and rich line of research is the study of internal determinants of CSR which, according to Campbell (2007), is needed. In this paper, central, internal constructs are examined including strategic planning and firm culture and particularly the relationship between the two.

Contributions of this paper are two-fold. First, for the few scholars who have examined *internal* institutional drivers, it is unclear how they are brought into strategic decision making of the firm so as to affect CSR. For example, Aguilera et al. (2007) propose that employee motives influence firms to engage in CSR. However, are these motives random events, in that they accelerate a firm towards more robust CSR on an ad-hoc or even random basis? Or, as a stakeholder group, are employee motives factored into a more systematic, strategically-driven effort to engage in CSR? It is unclear what the Aguilera et al. (2007) position is on this matter. In this paper, an argument is built that consideration of both external *and* internal institutional drivers are concentrated under a central, overarching construct; namely, strategic planning. Thus, the issue of drivers of CSR is framed into a more strategic level of analysis of how organizations adapt to their environments than most previous discussions.

Second, the complexities of organizational adaptation suggests that there are potentially many mediating and/or moderating variables in the relationship between strategic planning and CSR, let alone between CSR and firm performance (cf. Boyd, 1991; Capon et al., 1994; Miller and Cardinal, 1994; Brews and Hunt, 1999; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000; Margolis and Walsh, 2003; Dentchev, 2004). Rarely have such variables been explored but rather linear relationships are assumed. In this paper, strategic planning is treated as a corporate effort designed to carefully explore external and internal conditions so as to elicit courses of action that best place the firm in a position to succeed. In the current business climate, CSR is becoming necessary to succeed and even gain competitive advantage (McWilliams et al., 2006; Porter and Kramer, 2006). However, anecdotal evidence suggests that “formal” or comprehensive strategic planning does not always produce the desired or intended result (Mintzberg, 1985, 1987, 1990). Some have observed that in the day-to-day execution of a strategic plan, cognitive frames of employees are filtered through firm culture, which in turn impacts on decision making. Thus, while this paper argues that comprehensive strategic planning increases the likelihood of proactive CSR, the relationship might be strengthened or weakened depending on the type of firm culture in place. Here, the contribution to the literature is the examination of moderating variables in the relationship between strategic planning and CSR, by specifically studying the degree to which the organizational norms and behaviors of the firm at large (i.e., firm culture) impact on that relationship. No research to date has explored strategic planning and CSR by considering the role of firm culture in moderating that relationship.

The paper is organized as follows. First, a theoretical background will be presented, mainly focusing on the complementary relationship between stakeholder theory and CSR. Next, the conceptual framework will be identified and research propositions presented. Following the research propositions, conclusions and future research options will be discussed.

2. Theoretical background

A number of organizations and institutions have roles to play to create and sustain societal welfare (Mullin, 1996; Ehrenberg, 1999; Edwards, 2004; Sundaram and Inkpen, 2004). In the case of business firms, traditionally, the basic role that they have played, as opposed to the role of governments, social service organizations, churches, educational institutions and nonprofits, is an economic one. Indeed, the business firm is the basic economic unit in society and therefore acts as a vehicle for economic progress in countries around the world (Carroll, 1979; Henderson, 2005). While the economic role is vital and a core focus of management attention, the *nature and intensity* of the influences on the firm – beyond those that are purely economic orientated – is rising and continually changing, thus adding increased pressure on strategic decision-making (Prahalad and Hamel, 1994; Cuesta Gonzalez and Valor Martinez, 2004; Galbreath, 2006a, 2006b; Porter and Kramer, 2006; Aguilera et al., 2007; Campbell, 2007).

By way of example, social issues such as AIDS, poverty, obesity, the environment and corporate accounting practices, global warming, among others, are reaching beyond the attention of governments to businesses, where expectations are being placed on firms to take a proactive role in developing and providing solutions to such issues (Gordon, 2002; Rosen et al., 2003; Bansal and Clelland, 2004; Lawrence, 2004; Windsor, 2004; Galbreath, 2006b; Aguilera et al., 2007; Lash and Wellington, 2007). The regulatory climate is also shifting in many industries, both impacted by law and by volitional standards such as those put forth by the Global Reporting Initiative, the U.N.'s Global Compact and organizations like AccountAbility, ISO and Social Accountability International (Aaronson and Reeves, 2002; Cuesta Gonzalez and Valor Martinez, 2004; Aguilera et al., 2007). According to several scholars, these and many other influences are the direct result of the impact of different stakeholder expectations (e.g., McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Waddock et al., 2002; Carroll, 2004; Aguilera et al., 2007).

Stakeholders comprise the actors that affect or are affected by the firm (Freeman, 1984; Gilbert and Freeman, 1988; Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson and Preston, 1995, Mitchell et al., 1997; Post et al., 2002). Generally, stakeholders are classified into two groups: 1) primary and 2) secondary. Primary stakeholders include shareholders and investors, customers, employees, suppliers, governments who provide infrastructures and whose laws and regulations must be obeyed, the natural environment and the communities in which a firm operates. Secondary stakeholders include actors such NGOs and the media. Although a decidedly important focus has been placed on the power of primary stakeholders, recent evidence suggests that secondary stakeholders are asserting considerable influence and do drive strategic actions of firms (Armour et al., 2003; Bartley, 2003; Dentchev, 2004; Eesley and Lenox, 2006). Therefore, firms are increasingly pressured to develop responses to secondary stakeholders – in addition to primary stakeholders – in order to demonstrate effective strategy.

The fundamental thesis of stakeholder theory is that a firm is responsible to its various stakeholder groups. However, stakeholder theory emphasizes "to whom a firm is responsible". This postulate does not answer, "To what is a business responsible for?" Carroll's (1979) conceptualization of the social responsibilities of business best responds to the latter question. His conceptualization of firm responsibilities include: 1) economic; 2) legal; 3) ethical; and 4) discretionary (or philanthropic). Thus, by combining the literature on stakeholder theory and CSR, we can say that a firm's social responsibilities consist of the sum of its obligations toward its stakeholders (cf. Robertson and Nicholson, 1996; Driver and Thompson, 2002; Smith, 2003; Wheeler et al., 2003; Dentchev, 2004; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). For example, firms have a responsibility to shareholders and investors to produce profits, which is part of their economic responsibilities. As for governments and other regulatory stakeholder groups, firms have a legal responsibility to comply with all in-effect laws. With respect to their ethical responsibilities, firms have an obligation to produce products for consumers that are not dangerous or will not otherwise inflict harm. In a last example, to respond to community stakeholders, firms have discretionary responsibilities to invest in social and cultural enterprises. Thus, identifying, understanding and strategically responding to the demands for CSR arising from various stakeholder expectations is a complex management challenge, one that, theoretically, can be best addressed through strategic planning.

3. Conceptual framework and propositions

3.1 Proposed main effect between strategic planning and CSR

Strategic planning is described as an attitude and a process concerned with the future consequences of current decisions (Ansoff, 1965; Learned et al., 1969; Andrews, 1971; Grant, 2003; Slater et al., 2006). The literature is replete with the advantages of strategic planning, most notably its ability to improve the fit between the organization and its external environment (Learned et al., 1969; Andrews, 1971; Godiwalla et al., 1981; O'Shannassy, 2003; Hill and Jones, 2004). Others argue that planning aids in the identification of strategic issues that might impact on a firm's ability to meet its objectives, offers an assessment of future threats and opportunities, elicits an objective view of managerial problems, creates a framework for internal communication, provides inputs for management decisions, promotes forward thinking and encourages a favorable attitude to change (Loasby, 1967; Hausler, 1968; Andrews, 1971; Wilson, 1979; Ansoff, 1980; Lorange, 1980; Langley, 1988; Mintzberg et al., 1998). Further, there are intrinsic benefits that accrue as a result of strategic planning, including the positive effects of planning on local employment and the economy (Greenley, 1986).

With respect to understanding the impact of the construct, scholars have taking the position that the central issue is not a lack of strategic planning, but rather the degree to which firms do plan (Ramanujam and Venkatraman, 1987a; McKiernan and Morris, 1994; Hopkins and Hopkins, 1997). That is, of prime interest is the level of comprehensiveness or intensity given to strategic planning. According to Miller and Cardinal (1994), firms derive higher value from strategic planning the more comprehensive their efforts. Strategic planning comprehensive is of focal interest to this paper.

After reviewing the literature (e.g., Ramanujam and Venkatraman, 1987a; Veliyath and Shortell, 1993; Kargar, 1996; Boyd and Reuning–Elliott, 1998; Grant, 2003; Slater et al., 2006), five dimensions are identified that comprise a comprehensive strategic planning effort. Thus, in this paper, strategic planning is conceptualized as: 1) the degree of external orientation of the system; 2) the degree of internal orientation of the system; 3) the level of integration achieved within functional departments; 4) the extent of key personnel involvement in the planning process; and 5) the extent of use of analytical techniques (Figure 1).

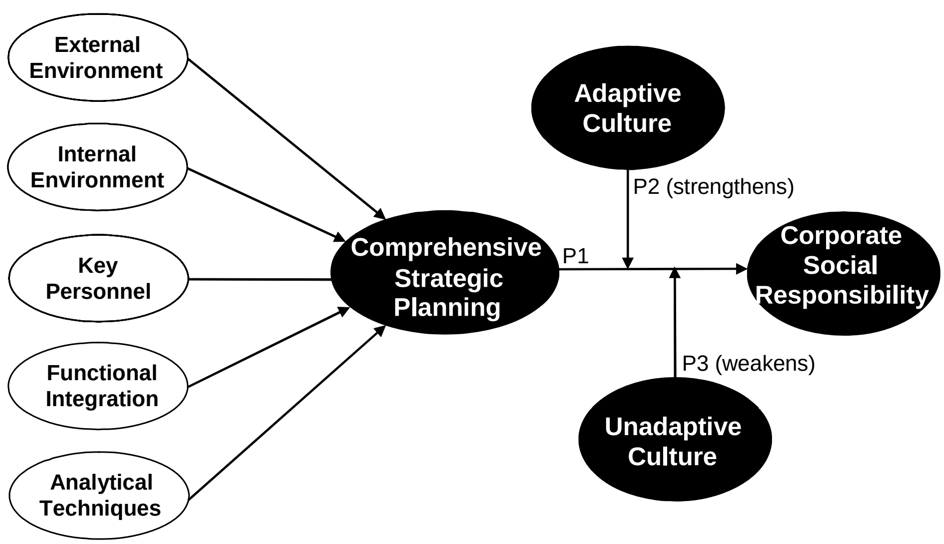

Figure 1. Conceptual model

First, to objectively assess their level of competitiveness and to determine courses of action, firms examine the external environment in order to understand the issues that might potentially affect survival and drive strategic change (Learned et al., 1969; Andrews, 1971; Porter, 1980, 1985; Veliyath and Shortell, 1993; Boyd and Reuning–Elliott, 1998; Slater et al., 2006). Here, firms study both the macroenvironment (e.g., regulations, social issues, environmental issues, demographic changes, etc.) and industry environment (e.g., new competitors, changes in competitor strategies, industry forces, etc.). Of particular concern are a firm's external stakeholders (O'Shannassy, 2003). Because external stakeholders (e.g., customers, suppliers, communities) exert strong influence on the firm (Clarkson, 1995; Post et al., 2002; Waddock et al., 2002), studying their particular needs and expectations leads to the knowledge necessary to ascertain the level and type of CSR response required to retain their participation and to develop valuable, on-going relationships with them (Gilbert and Freeman, 1988; Jones, 1995; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Bronn and Bronn, 2003; Laszlo et al., 2005; Galbreath, 2006b; Miles et al., 2006).

Second, firms assess their internal environments for strategic implications (Andrews, 1971; Stevenson; 1976; Lorange and Vancil; 1977; King and Clevland, 1978; Grant and King, 1982; Camillus and Venkatraman, 1984; Fredrickson, 1984; Hill and Jones, 2004). As part of their internal assessment, firms examine a number of factors, including which resources and capabilities are required to address a changing external environment, what structure and control mechanisms are necessary to create a fluid and responsive organization and strengths and weaknesses relative to the market (Andrews, 1971; Quinn, 1992; Mintzberg, 1993; Whittington et al., 1999). However, firms also relate strategies to internal stakeholders (e.g., employees, shareholders, investors, etc.) and therefore assessment here is part and parcel with the overall role of examining the internal environment (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Bronn and Bronn, 2003; Dawkins and Lewis, 2003; Laszlo et al., 2005; O'Shannassy, 2003; Galbreath, 2006b, Miles et al., 2006). Hence, firms assess the degree to which they are responsive and responsible to internal stakeholder groups as well as assess what is needed to enact necessary changes to improve relationships with those stakeholders.

Third, strategic planning entails the inclusion of a variety of functional areas in order to integrate different functional requirements into a general management perspective (Lorange, 1980; Snow and Hrebiniak, 1980; Hitt et al., 1982; Ramanujam et al., 1986; Ramanujam and Venkatraman, 1987a, 1987b). Because firms consist of several departments such as finance, marketing, production, human resources, R&D and sales, strategic planning acts as a mechanism for communication across these functional departments so that relevant information is coordinated in the planning process (Wilson, 1994; Grant, 2002). Additionally, various departments each derive learnings from different stakeholder interactions and as such, through the strategic planning process, offer important insight into the actions that are necessary to fulfill stakeholder needs and expectations (Crane and Livesly, 2003; Galbreath, 2006b; Miles et al., 2006).

Fourth, strategic planning involves more than a single constituent. Although the CEO and other top executives take ultimate responsibility for strategic planning (Andrews, 1971; Johnson and Greening, 1999), inputs and insights come from a variety of key personnel, both from within and outside of the organization (Ramanujam and Venkatraman, 1987a, 1987b; Veliyath and Shortell, 1993; Hart, 1992; Hart and Banbury, 1994; Kochan and Rubinstein, 2000; Miles et al., 2006). For example, line managers play an important 'boundary spanning' role, gathering information on customer and market trends, passing this information up through the organization and liaising with internal planners on the development of creative strategic ideas (Mintzberg, 1994; Markides, 2000; O'Shannassy, 2003). On the other hand, the use of outside experts, such as consultants, brings an additional level of knowledge and experience that contributes to effective strategic planning (Ginsberg, 1989; Delany, 1995). Given that no single individual holds complete knowledge of all issues related to strategy, firms that behave in a collaborative posture between key personnel maximize the probability of generating viable organization strategies (Burgelman, 1991). Further, given their direct influence on the firm, explicitly engaging key personnel from stakeholder groups in the strategic planning process, through the mechanism of strategic conversations, minimizes future stakeholder concerns for CSR and enhances strategy making and response (Bronn and Bronn, 2003; Crane and Livesly, 2003; Miles et al., 2006).

Lastly, the use of analytical techniques in planning facilitates knowledge discovery, guides decision making and helps drive strategic action (Glaister and Falshaw, 1999; Frost, 2003). A variety of analytical techniques are used by firms such as SWOT, PEST/STEP, product portfolio matrices, stakeholder analysis, scenarios, market segmentation, critical success factor analysis, 'what if' analysis and economic modeling, among others (Clark, 1997; Hussey, 1997). Of importance is that firms leverage tools to assess both their external and internal environments, while also to help facilitate knowledge transfer, internal communications and overall decision making. According to Day (1986) and Langley (1988, 1991), the use of analytical tools includes information generation, providing a structure for analysis, encouraging communication of ideas, assisting with coordination and control, and also symbolic purposes. Further, Webster et al. (1989) argue that analytical tools can raise the level of strategic thinking in organizations and the effectiveness of strategic planning.

As a whole, when all five dimensions are given formal attention, a comprehensive strategic planning effort generates critical information, ensures a thorough consideration of all feasible options, forces firms to evaluate the environment (internal and external), stimulates new ideas, increases motivation and commitment, enhances internal communication and interaction and ultimately charts a course of action with respect to adding value to stakeholders. Hence, firms who are comprehensive strategic planners are aware of, understand and can formulate responses to meet stakeholder expectations for CSR. Conversely, firms who are not comprehensive strategic planners run the risk of poor understanding of stakeholder expectations and lack the insight and wherewithal necessary to develop strategies that demonstrate CSR towards them. Given these scenarios, the following is proposed:

> Proposition 1: All things being equal, the more comprehensive the strategic planning the greater the likelihood of proactive CSR.

3.2 Proposed moderating variable in the strategic planning-CSR relationship

Although little empirical evidence verifies claims (Glaister and Falshaw, 1999), debate exists in the literature as to the degree that strategic planning facilitates organizational adaptation via a deliberate, systematic course of action (Mintzberg, 1985, 1987, 1990). Although Mintzberg's (1985, 1987, 1990) thesis generally rebuts formal strategic planning as a means to create successful organizational adaptation, others offer alternative viewpoints to address his issue. For example, employees within firms have different cognitive frames that process what they are told through the filters of their past experiences, current expectations and organizational norms and coping mechanisms; thus, actions made through their frames might not be the fully intended expectation of a given strategic plan (cf. Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Westley, 1990; Wood, 1991; Bartunek et al., 1992). Such cognitive frames can be processed through the filters of firm culture (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1996).

Firm culture is "the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration" (Schein, 1984: 3). Gibson et al. (1991: 46) describe culture as the "personality or feel" of the firm, explaining how people behave in different circumstances. Johnson (1992) indicates that firm culture consists of various stories, myths, rituals, symbols, routines and control systems. Given these observations, firm culture is a potential moderating variable with respect to actions in the area of CSR. The reason is that as employees seek to respond to demands of various stakeholders, their actions might be shaped by patterns of behavior ingrained in the conduct and coping mechanisms of the firm at large (i.e., firm culture).

Kotter and Heskett (1992) describe two types of firm culture: 1) adaptive and 2) unadaptive. An adaptive culture is one that fosters the maintenance of harmonious relationships within a firm. According to Kotter and Heskett (1992), in adaptive cultures, a culture of caring exists, including care about customers, stockholders and employees. Thus, in organizations where an adaptive culture is demonstrated it is expected that employees not only focus on their own needs and interests, but show concern for the needs and interests of others, including rewarding the efforts of others and when making decisions, involving others to provide input and insight (Cooke and Hartmann, 1989). Further, an orientation to others is likely to extend beyond focal employees to other stakeholder groups. That is, in adaptive cultures, firm members would be encouraged to systematically engage stakeholders in such a way to address their demands for CSR. Lastly, several scholars suggest that in recent years CSR has become a salient business issue to which firms need to respond (e.g., Waddock et al., 2002; Dawkins and Lewis, 2003; Galbreath, 2006b; Lockett et al., 2006; Porter and Kramer, 2006). It is expected that firms with adaptive cultures would be responsive to such an issue, giving due consideration and action to changing and increasing social responsibilities.

On the other hand, unadaptive firm cultures place emphasis on competition and winning, one where members focus on individual achievement at all costs (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988; Kotter and Heskett, 1992). People in such organizations mainly focus on themselves and operate in a "win-lose" framework, believing they must work against (rather than with) their peers to be noticed, to gain recognition and to advance (Cooke and Hartman, 1989). Given the emphasis on self-interest and self-seeking in unadaptive cultures, the amount of attention given to other actors in the circle of influence is expected to be weak; therefore, stakeholder interests and needs are likely to be neglected. Unadaptive cultures are also expected to neglect changes in the environment, thereby potentially ignoring increased stakeholder demands and the need to more proactively demonstrate CSR.

While strategic planning can develop the best and most impressive strategies – those that drive CSR – they might be affected by the type of firm culture in place (cf. Wilson, 1994; Maron and Van Bremen, 1999; Sin and Tse, 2000). Consequently:

Proposition 2: The association between strategic planning and CSR is moderated through an adaptive firm culture. Where an adaptive firm culture is present, the association is strengthened.

Proposition 3: The association between strategic planning and CSR is moderated through an unadaptive firm culture. Where an unadaptive firm culture is present, the association is weakened.

4. Conclusions and suggestions for future research

Since the 1970s, strategic planning has taken its place in the study of organizations and is a central construct in the strategy literature (Boyd and Reuning-Elliott, 1998; Hoskisson et al., 1999; Mahoney and McGahan, 2007). As such, strategic planning has been argued to be an important management activity that enables firms to plan for the future, adapt to changing environments and to build competitive advantage. However, the vast majority of research efforts have focused on the relationship between strategic planning and financial performance (Boyd, 1991; Capon et al., 1994; Miller and Cardinal, 1994). While important (Ramanujam and Venkatraman, 1987a; Mahoney and McGahan, 2007), such efforts are very narrow in scope and leave many questions unanswered. That is, for such a central construct in the field of strategic management, beyond the linear, rather one-dimensional performance relationship, we still know relatively little about the value of strategic planning to successful organizational adaptation.

With respect to successful organizational adaptation, CSR is beginning to take on importance in the literature, and amongst businesses, as an imperative that directly affects a firm's ability to cope with its environment and ultimately to create and possibly sustain competitive advantage (McWilliams and Siegel, 2000; Waddock et al., 2002; Laszlo et al., 2005; Galbreath, 2006b, McWilliams et al., 2006; Porter and Kramer, 2006; Ingenbleek et al., 2007). A question then arises as to how firms face this imperative and directly incorporate it into the strategic management of the firm.

Taken together, this paper proposes that there is a greater likelihood of proactive CSR where firms demonstrate a thorough examination of external and internal environments in the strategic planning process, who have a broad level of functional department participation in strategic planning, who engage key personnel in strategic planning and who make effective use of analytical techniques in strategic planning. However, employees within firms have different cognitive frames that process what they are told through filters such as organizational norms and coping mechanisms. Hence, actions derived from their frames have the consequence of potentially being something more or less than the intended expectation of a given strategic plan. Firm culture is argued to impact on day-to-day decision making frames of employees and thus, moderates the relationship between strategic planning and CSR.

Future research could examine the extent that “formal” versus “informal” strategic planning drives CSR. For example, this paper describes a comprehensive, systematic, deliberate approach to strategic planning. According to Mintzberg (1985, 1987, 1990), effective strategy development is informal and emergent – not systematic or deliberate. Studies, for example, could explore the planning school of strategy versus the learning school of strategy to see what differentials exist with respect to their relationship in driving proactive CSR.

Future research could also further study the impact of culture as a moderating variable in the relationship between strategic planning and CSR. In this paper, two types of firm culture have been described, adaptive and unadaptive. However, other firm culture types have been identified in the literature (Quinn and McGrath, 1985; Deshpande et al., 1993). Studies could explore additional cultures, predicting the degree to which they might impact on the strategic planning-CSR relationship.

Lastly, as discussed, firms are under increased pressure to pay attention and respond to stakeholders interests, thereby demonstrating CSR. One way that firms, particularly top executives, might be motivated to pay attention and respond to stakeholders is through corporate governance structures. The literature on corporate governance is concerned with the efficient structure of organizations and various mechanisms that are expected to monitor and motivate top executives (Baysigner and Hoskisson, 1990; Jensen and Murphy, 1990). Studies could explore the extent to which corporate governance structures impact on top executives' orientation to focus on issues of a social nature in their strategic planning efforts. Of particular interest would be exploring the interrelationships of corporate governance, strategic planning and CSR.

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