Responsibility and Collaboration

Empirical Studies of Corporate Social Responsibility in Swedish Food Retail

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Abstract

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is a widely debated concept among academics, practitioners and non-practitioners. By definition, CSR concerns the economic, legal, political, environmental and social responsibilities of a business to its stakeholders and society at large. The conventional view of the role of business in society is to act as a market place and make a profit, in a space where demand meets supply. However, extending the role of CSR to include ethical responsibilities often raises questions of *why* and *how*? In this thesis, a qualitative research design was used to examine how businesses, more specifically Swedish food retailers, approach their extended responsibilities in society. The analysis focused in particular on collaborations between retail food businesses and other actors.

Food retailers hold a key position in forming a link between producers and consumers in the value chain. They are socially and economically tied to a number of problems facing consumers on local level and in the wider global community, such as climate change, food security and public health. Such problems are often complex and based on value conflicts among various stakeholders, and therefore cannot be resolved in isolation. In conditions of social connectedness, responsibility lies with all actors, with businesses considered to have a privileged position in terms of their negotiating power and ability for collective action. The food retail sector is therefore an interesting empirical setting for studying CSR.

In four empirical studies, different CSR activities in Swedish food retailers' approaches to taking responsibility for social, environmental or political issues linked directly or indirectly linked to their operations were scrutinised. These activities included different forms of stakeholder engagement, such as partnership, dialogue or multi-stakeholder initiatives. The results indicated that through CSR, food retailers in collaboration with other actors can co-create value and proactively engage in driving (social) change. Responsibility can thus be viewed as the shared objective of collaborations between businesses, organisations and society at large, rather than being attributable to a single actor.

Keywords: business ethics, case study research, collaboration, corporate responsibility, dialogue, food retailer, globalisation, social connection model, stakeholder engagement, Sweden

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Dedication

To Kjell and Elina.

"Omnium enim rerum principia parva sunt."
Marcus Tullis Cicero (106 - 43 B.C.)

Contents

List of Publications

This thesis is based on the work contained in the following papers, referred to by Roman numerals in the text:

I   Rotter, J.P., Özbek, N. & Mark-Herbert, C. (2012). Private-public partnerships: Corporate responsibility strategy in food retail. *International Journal of Business Excellence* 5(1/2), 5-20.

II   Rotter, J.P., Özbek, N. & Mark-Herbert, C. (2012). Exploring corporate social responsibility in food retail category management. *Social Business* 2(3), 223-241.

III Rotter, J.P., Airike, P.-E. & Mark-Herbert C. (forthcoming). Exploring political corporate social responsibility in global supply chains. *Journal of Business Ethics*. DOI 10.1007/s10551-013-1927-4.

IV   Rotter, J.P. (manuscript). Collective responsibility-taking to tackle wicked problems. The case of public health and corporate social responsibility in Swedish food retail. To be submitted to *Business & Society.*

V   Rotter, J.P. & Mark-Herbert, C. (2013). Corporate social responsibility in Swedish food retail: The case of tiger shrimp. *International Food and Agribusiness Review* 16(3), 167-176.

Papers I, II, III and V are reproduced with the permission of the publishers.

My contributions to Papers I-V were as follows:

I   Paper I is based on Master's work carried out by myself and Nurgül Özbek, where the work during the thesis process was equally shared with Cecilia Mark-Herbert as thesis supervisor. My contributions to the article lie mainly in the writing, data collection and analysis. As the first author, I took charge of managing the writing and submission processes. Nurgül Özbek and I presented a draft version of this paper at the First Nordic Symposium of Corporate Social Responsibility (2010) at Copenhagen Business School.

II Paper II is based on co-authorship, where as the leading author I took responsibility for paper development and the review process. My main contributions lie in the theoretical positioning and performing most of the analysis and discussion. I presented a draft version at the 2011 Corporate Responsibility Research Conference (CRRC) in Leeds, UK.

III Paper III is based on co-authorship, where as the first author I was responsible for the overall paper development and review process. I presented a draft version at the 29th European Group for Organizational Studies (EGOS) Colloquium in Montreal, Canada, in 2013. My main contributions lie in the idea development, literature review, and presentation and analysis of the tiger shrimp case, as well as overall analysis and discussion.

IV I am sole author of Paper IV. I presented a draft version of this paper at the 25th Annual International Association for Business and Society (IABS) Conferences in Sydney, Australia, in 2014.

V   Paper II inspired Paper V, a co-authored, semi-fictional teaching case. I took overall charge of case development, providing input to the accompanying teaching note and the review process. The case was selected as the winning Harvard-Style Teaching Case for the IFAMA Teaching Case Competition 2013. It is published as open source and is available at: http://www.ifama.org/files/TigerShrimp_20130031.pdf.

I also contributed to the following publications and projects:

1. Airike, P.-E., Rotter, J.P. & Mark-Herbert, C. (under review). Corporate social responsibility in the electronics supply chain – Motivations and challenges of multi-stakeholder collaboration. *Business & Society*. A draft version was presented by Peppi-Emilia Airike and myself at the Social Business is Good Business Conference at Anadolu University, Turkey, in 2013.

2. Rotter, J.P. Airike, P.-E. & Mark-Herbert, C. (2013). Category management in Swedish food retail. Challenges in ethical sourcing. In Röcklingsberg, H. & Sandin, P. (Eds), *The Ethics of Consumption: The Citizen, The Market, and The Law* (pp. 54-59). Wagening: Wageningen Academic Publishers. I presented an extended abstract of this book chapter at the 11th EurSafe Congress (2013) held in Uppsala, Sweden.

3. Farazee, A., Kanellopoulou, M., Laurenti, R., Rotter, J. P., Singh, J. & Sinha, R. (2013/2014). A multidisciplinary PhD student project supported by KTH-Sustainability. We presented a poster titled "Closing the Material Flow Loop in Mobile Phone Product Systems - A Multidisciplinary Approach Based on System Dynamics Model and Simulation" at the KTH-Sustainability Day (2014) held in Stockholm, Sweden.

4. Mark-Herbert, C., Rotter, J. & Pakseresht, A. (2011). Corporate responsibility - creating shared value. Newspaper column in *The Hankyoreh*, available at: http://www.hani.co.kr/arti/economy/heri_review/485889.html.

9

Abbreviations

CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
FMCG	Fast-Moving Consumer Goods
MSi(s)	Multi-stakeholder initiative(s)
NGO(s)	Non-government organisation(s)
PCSR	Political Corporate Social Responsibility
PPP(s)	Private-public partnership(s)[1]
SSNC	Swedish Society for Nature Conservation, Naturskyddsföreningen
WWF	Worldwide Fund for Nature, Världsnaturfonden

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[1]Also referred to as public-private partnerships, PPP

1 Introduction

> When the Stranger says: 'What is the meaning of this city? Do you huddle close together because you love each other?' What will you answer? 'We all dwell together to make money from each other?' or 'This is a community?'
>
> (Eliot, T.S., 1934)

When asked to wash their hands with soap, to take responsibility for themselves and others in preventing the spread of disease, most people would probably answer "Yes, of course!" or "I know!". Yet this answer is highly dependent on the context and knowledge. When told that a piece of soap could save their life and that of others by increasing sanitation, people could also think "How amazing!" or "Too strange to be true!". Given the right information and the right tools, people can choose how to act, which has an effect on others and ourselves.

A similar gap in meaning can be said to exist when it comes to other forms and areas of taking on responsibility. While some individuals and businesses may already practise responsible behaviour naturally or strategically, others might not be aware of their options and the consequences their actions have, or simply do not see the reason for changing behaviours. Depending on their own context, values and knowledge, people may perceive approaches and actions as common sense or revolutionary thinking, but can adapt their behaviour over time to evolve individually and as a global society.

The aim of this thesis was to study organisations, which are now taking responsibility in the form of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), focusing particularly on diverse forms of collaborations with other actors. Given that we live in an interconnected world, the overall objective was to learn from the insights gained and reflect on how to address some of the smaller everyday issues, but also the pressing more complex problems shared by the global community, such as poverty, climate change and food security, among others.

1.1 Background

The practice of CSR is one of the growing key concerns for businesses in contemporary society (Maon *et al*., 2010; De Bakker *et al.*, 2005) where the term 'responsibility' is central to the notion of CSR. Responsibility, deriving from its Latin origin '*responsum*', means reply or response (Merriam Webster, 2014a*)*. However, the modern dictionary defines responsibility as: "1) the state of being the person who caused something to happen, 2) a duty or task that you are required or expected to do and 3) something that you should do because it is morally right, legally required, etc". (Merriam Webster, 2014b). This implies action or non-action through decision-making that can be judged by its virtue, consequences or principles (Boatright, 2003).

From a philosophical perspective, responsibility is a complex concept that implies a certain degree of 'free will', which refers to the choice to act or not in a given situation, assuming "a particular sort of capacity of rational agents to choose a course of action from among various alternatives" (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2010). According to Kohák (1998), such freedom is not only the right to make choices, but is tied to responsibility for realised and unrealised consequences. Kohák (2000) claims that no individual has the absolute right to prioritise their needs over any other individual life, as this a matter of respect and democratic processes. 'Taking responsibility' is therefore about making choices and answering for the intended and unintended outcomes to oneself and society at large. Responsibility can arise from multiple sources and can be directed towards multiple objects (Pless & Maak, 2011). This often results in trade-offs, which leaves taking responsibility open to controversies and debate (Stolle & Micheletti, 2013; Pless & Maak, 2011; Ählström, 2010), particularly in the realm of business. Such debate is often ideologically based and concerned with the questions of to whom and for what a business should be responsible – in the words of Handy (2002): "*What's a business for?*"

Back in 1946, Drucker distinguished three areas of responsibility of management, namely towards the institution, the workers and society (Birch, 2003; Drucker, 1999). The responsibility of business should be concerned with what a business *does to*, but also can *do for*, society (Drucker, 1999, p. 213). Today the discourse on the relationship between business and society revolves around the role and responsibility of business towards society and how a business can legitimately include such an agenda in its management practices, often labelled under the umbrella term CSR (De Bakker *et al*., 2005; Van Marrewijk, 2003). By definition, CSR is concerned with the economic, legal, political, environmental and social roles and responsibilities of a business towards its stakeholders and society at large (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; Carroll

& Shabana, 2010; Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Dahlsrud, 2008; Garriga & Melé, 2004; Birch, 2003; Van Marrewijk, 2003; Elkington, 1998; Carroll, 1979). The discourse on this arguably extended responsibility and role of business is vast and regularly challenged from within and outside the academic field of CSR (*e.g.* Banerjee, 2008; van Oosterhout & Heugens, 2008), where it is sometimes associated with matters of common sense or labelled as naïve, given that it conflicts with assumptions on the role of business in other dominant fields in business studies, such as neo-classical economics. The philosophy of free market capitalism has certainly created economic progress and wealth for many actors, yet challenges remain to ensure fairness and benefits for all actors and countries, as well as protection of the environment (Stolle & Micheletti, 2013; Aguilera *et al.*, 2007). For example in regards to environmental conditions, Rockström *et al.* (2009, p. 23) stress that humanity, given current practices, has already transgressed three out of nine non-negotiable "planetary boundaries", namely climate change, the rate of biodiversity loss and the rate of interference with the nitrogen cycle. The well-known metaphor of "the tragedy of the commons", coined and popularised by Hardin in 1968, envisages the ultimate tragedy of the (economic) man:

> Each man is locked into a system that compels him to increase his herd [sheep] without limit - in a world that is limited. Ruin is the destination toward which all men rush, each pursuing his own best interest. (Hardin, 1968, p. 1244).

So how can the notions of CSR and 'collaboration' help rethink economic rationalities to safeguard human survival on earth in the most extreme example? Two classical and thought-provoking publications, Carson's "*Silent Spring*" published in 1962, and Commoner's (1971) "*Closing the Circle*", both stress the importance of a relationship and the responsibility of business and society working as a whole to ease social injustices and environmental degradation in order to secure prosperity. Carson (2002) described the effects of pesticides on the environment, which led to an uprising of environmental activism in the United States and ultimately to a change in legislation. Commoner emphasised in a speech on ecology and social action held at Berkeley in 1973 that:

> The root cause of the crisis is not found in how men interact with nature, but in how they interact with each other - that to solve the environmental crisis we must solve the problem of poverty, racial injustice and war; that the debt to nature, which is the measure of the environmental crisis, cannot be paid person

by person in recycled bottles or ecologically sound habits, but in the ancient coin of social justice.

Commoner (1971, p. 300) suggests that environmental problems are fundamentally social problems, where social change can only come through "rational, informed, and collective social action". A half-century has passed, and the global community still faces a number of complex problems and dilemmas, such as climate change, food security, poverty and public health issues, among others. The nature of these problems has not changed greatly since Commoner's time and they are still believed to require a collective approach to addressing such complex dilemmas from "a multitude of actors from different spheres and levels from society" (Stolle & Micheletti, 2013, p. 11). This involves finding collaborative ways among various actors to manage value conflicts that are often of a political, environmental and economic nature (Svendsen & Laberge, 2005, Rittel & Webber, 1973). The term collaboration broadly refers to a "positive form of working in association with others for some form of mutual benefit" (Huxham, 1996, p. 1).

In a metaphorical approach to businesses as political systems, organisations aim to create social order by engaging society with the aim of aligning divergent interests through consultation and negotiation while creating both public and private goods (Morgan, 1997, p. 154). The notion of political organisation is also driving the current discourse within CSR, given that the world in the 21st century is characterised by interconnectedness of natural ecosystems and individuals, a process driven by globalisation (*e.g.* Jensen & Sandström, 2011; Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Assuming social connectedness implies that agents, *i.e.* actors, are connected by participation in global social and economic processes. Even though private organisations such as businesses are not democratically elected, they are seen as powerful institutions that are embedded in networks and society and are therefore ascribed extended responsibility towards their stakeholders and society at large (Schrempf, 2014; Stolle & Micheletti, 2013; Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; Young, 2006). Young, a contemporary political philosopher, was dedicated to reformulating the role that business and citizen hold in order to work together towards global justice (Young, 2006). She proposes a social connection model in which agents, *i.e.* actors, are viewed as being connected by participation in global social and economic processes. Therefore all actors in a system are responsible, by their direct or indirect linkage, for social injustices (Young, 2013; 2006). Under such circumstances, she describes responsibility as two-fold, on the one hand "backward looking", and associated with liability and accountability for past incidents, and on the other "forward-looking", with a focus on working

16

towards easing structural injustices that arise from existing systems (Young, 2013; 2006). Today, businesses and their managers are viewed as holding a superordinate position in society and therefore have a central role in taking responsibility that is both forward- and backward-looking (Schrempf, 2014; Stolle & Micheletti, 2013; Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). The questions that then arise are: How do business actors voluntarily take responsibility in contexts where a cause(s) or liability is unclear? and What is the role of collaboration in taking extended responsibilities? These are the overall questions underlying the research and analysis in this thesis. However, before the research questions examined in the thesis are defined, the research setting of food retail in its larger context is described in the following section.

1.2   Research Setting

CSR thinking applies to all kinds of industries and businesses. One contemporary dilemma that concerns questions of a social, environmental, economic and political nature relates to the production and consumption of goods (Dauvergne, 2010). "The problem of consumption" is one of the greatest challenges for global environmental governance, given the numerous everyday choices of about 6.8 billion consumers (Dauvergne, 2010, p. 3). According to Commoner (1971), matters of consumption, besides population growth, are responsive to personal control in the form of choices to work towards a more sustainable society. Addressing the complex issue of consumption involves two tasks; that of influencing what consumers choose, use and discard, and that of creating systematic changes related to advertising, population and economic growth, globalisation and technology, among others (Dauvergne, 2010).

   Consumer goods are defined as durable and non-durable goods such as food or clothing that satisfy the needs and wants of consumers through their consumption (Merriam Webster, 2014c). Food, part of a daily consumption pattern, is one of the human's most basic needs, with almost 7 billion people worldwide dependent on the global food value or supply chain[2] (Pullman & Wu, 2011, p. 1). Today, food value chains are highly complex and in reality can resemble a network structure rather than a chain (Baldwin, 2013), given that they frequently involve transnational coordination and trade. Such complex and global value chains are subject to the risk of involving a number of conflicts and dilemmas for many actors. Vogel (2008, p. 266) emphasises that "global firms and their relationship with their global supply chains now

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[2]Supply and value chain in this context refer to the same phenomenon, that of passing products from the sourcing to the end-consumer via different actors and processing stages.

play a key role in shaping labour practices, environmental quality, and human rights conditions, especially in developing countries". For example in this context, food retail is closely linked to the agricultural sector and thus is part of a resource-intensive industry that is highly dependent on resources such as water, energy, land, labour and capital (Tansey & Worsley, 1995). Agricultural production, especially the increase in intensive farming for meeting the food demands of a growing global population at a minimum cost, has substantial social and environmental impacts, such as pollution, erosion and enhanced greenhouse effects, among others (Tansey & Worsley, 1995). According to a study by Fuchs and Kalfagianni (2009, p. 555), in socio-economic terms over half the world's population is engaged in agricultural production. Agriculture, mostly located in developing countries, is considered one of the three most dangerous sectors to work in (besides mining and forestry), with a high percentage of child labour (International Labour Organization, 2011). Agricultural production is therefore associated with a number of economic, social and environmental challenges, as well as being highly dependent on various resources.

One industry within the food system that is highly dependent on agricultural production and concerns the vast majority of all individuals globally in its daily operations is food retailing. Davies (1993, p. 6) defines retailing as "the management of resources to supply the product and service needs of the end-consumer, encompassing the supply chain of any physical products and the exchange processes involved". Retailing is therefore not just directed towards consumers, but also towards the entire supply or value chain, which is influenced by consumer's needs and wants (Davies, 1993). Food retailers build a common link between producers and consumers and are attributed a powerful position that can have an impact locally and globally (Clapp, 2012; Fuchs & Kalfagianni, 2009; Tansey & Worsely, 1995). They further play an important role in the "commodification of food" (Clapp, 2012, p. 23), by increasing (psychic) distance between the producers and consumer, as well as constructing food as a commercial good beyond its nutritional and cultural associations, while participating in economic and political processes that shape the world food economy. According to Fuchs and Kalfagianni (2009, p. 556), 10 large food retailers, namely Walmart (US), Carrefour (France), Tesco (UK), Metro-Group (Germany), Kroger (US), Ahold (The Netherlands), Costco (US), Rewe (Germany), Schwarz-Group (Germany) and Aldi (Germany), control the global food value chains. Corstjens and Lal (2012) point out that food retailers are rarely multinational companies (MNCs) with a few exceptions, such as Carrefour and Walmart. However, food retailers are still linked to an international business environment through their value chains, posing a set of

challenges and opportunities. Opportunities for food retailers are related to their ability to provide certain goods independent of seasonal changes, for example by taking advantage of climate variations in different locations and economic incentives, such as lower (production) costs (International Food Policy Research Institute, 2008). Globalisation makes it possible to increase trade, but challenges may arise and track throughout the value chain, and therefore food retailers are arguably responsible for global social and environmental issues connected to the global food system, despite acting primarily as a service provider (Young, 2013; 2006).

Food retailers, like any other profit-orientated organisation, are subject to a number of industry-specific challenges. They operate under conditions of relatively low margins and high fixed costs, and are therefore dependent on volume and economies of scale (Corstjens & Corstjens, 1995). Food retailers in their role as food access providers for consumers are assumed to be "agile" organisations (Pullman & Wu, 2011), given a constantly changing environment, not just in terms of economic and trade fluctuations, but also with regard to preferences and food habits. They therefore continually need to attract consumers beyond their product range (Tansey & Worsley, 1995). Pullman and Wu (2011) suggest that ways of differentiation lie in *e.g.* store design, product assortment, marketing, private labels, loyalty cards and distribution (Pullman & Wu, 2011). An important commodity for retailers is their 'shelf space', which is adjusted to products adapted to local preferences (Corstjens & Lal, 2012). Hence, 'category management', the administration of the use of shelf space, is essential for a food retailer's competitiveness (Category Management Association, 2014). The aim of category management is to "optimize shopper satisfaction and fulfil the role chosen by the retailer" by combining "assortment, price, shelf presentation and promotion which optimizes the category role over time" (Category Management Association, 2014). These are marketing-related suggestions for refining and differentiating a business model, where CSR thinking can provide a different and extended perspective on how to address these issues. For example, Corstjens and Corstjens (1995, p. 197) claim that the decision not to stock a product can be seen as a service failure and yet might still create a perceived value from a societal perspective, as in the case of tiger shrimp (see Papers II and IV in this thesis). Being positioned at the end of the value chain, food retailers have to ensure and communicate best practices in line with their corporate ambitions throughout the value chain, while being aware of their superior influence on consumers and their choices. CSR-related activities can be coordinated in various kinds of dialogues and systems, such as labelling, tracking and agricultural practices (Teisl *et al.*, 2002).

Previous CSR research in relation to food commerce is scarce and dispersed (Hartmann, 2011). It has tended to focus on the marketing of food products by *e.g.* labelling (see for example Perrini *et al.*, 2010; Hartlieb & Jones, 2009; Binnekamp & Ingenbleek, 2008; Sirgy & Lee, 2008; Jones *et al.*, 2007), supply and value chain management and standards (*e.g.* Pullman & Wu, 2011; Ouma, 2010; Mueller *et al.*, 2009; Spence & Bourlakis, 2009; Smith, 2008; Tallontire, 2007; Maloni & Brown, 2006) and issues of reporting, measuring and communicating CSR (*e.g.* Cuganesan *et al.*, 2010; Gerbens-Leenes *et al.*, 2003). Current research in the field of food also examines the expanding role of food retailers and restaurants in relation to their 'political' role (Rotter *et al.*, forthcoming; Schrempf, 2014; Fuchs *et al.*, 2011). This thesis aims to contribute to consumption-related CSR practices by providing empirical evidence for the food retail sector. Hartmann (2011) emphasises the value of CSR research in the food sector for various stakeholders.

To summarise, food is a global business and given the high impact of the agricultural sector on natural and human resources, environmental, ethical and social aspects are important factors to consider throughout the entire food value chain (Hartmann, 2011). The food retail sector offers a particularly interesting setting given its connection to complex food chains, the involvement of diverse stakeholders, as well as power to influence social aspects on local and global level. This is where a CSR perspective can be crucial for enabling overall sustainable development for businesses, individuals and society at large.

1.3 Aim and Intended Contributions

As mentioned above, there are many reasons and perspectives from which to study CSR in food retailing. The overall aim of this thesis was to shed light on how food retailers take extended responsibilities through the notion of CSR, focusing particularly on how food retailers approach collaborations with other actors to address societal and environmental issues that arise locally and globally. Figure 1 illustrates the two spheres of 'ethics' and 'business', at the intersection of which lies CSR as discussed in this thesis.
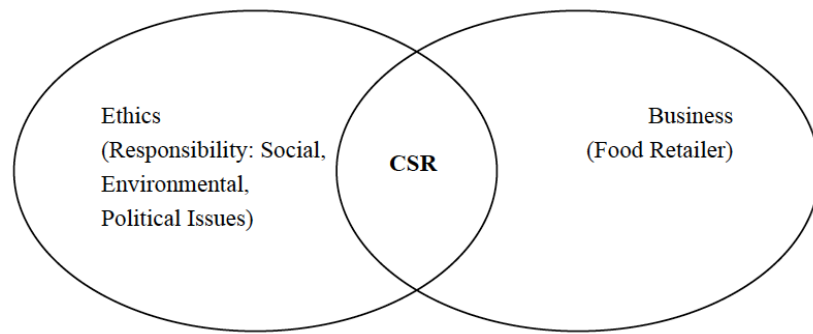
Figure 1. Illustration of link between businesses ethics and CSR.

Four separate empirical case studies are presented in Papers I-IV. The research questions examined in these papers were as follows:

I. What are the conditions, such as perceived motivations and challenges, when it comes to private-public partnerships (PPP) for promoting CSR issues?

II. How are CSR issues managed in a multi-stakeholder dialogue and reflected in category management decision?

III. How do businesses address societal and environmental issues arising in global supply chains? How do these practices reflect the ideals of political CSR?

IV. How do Swedish food retailers express corporate responsibility-taking in providing a supportive context for healthy food choices?

Paper V presents a Harvard-style teaching case that is based on the empirical study in Paper II. It does not examine a specific research question, but raises managerial questions of internal and external collaboration in order to tackle the ethical dilemma of the tiger shrimp trade. The main empirical studies, Papers I-IV are discussed collectively in the following chapters, while Paper V is discussed in a separate section.

The intended knowledge contributions of this thesis are broadly twofold. Firstly, it aims to contribute to the understanding of consumption-related CSR practices in food retail, given that research in the field of CSR and the food sector is scarce (Hartmann, 2011, p. 315). Secondly, it aims to further the theoretical debate on responsibility and collaboration within CSR, as emerging from this research.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The remainder of this thesis is structured into the following chapters: 2) Research Design and Methods, 3) Theoretical Framework, and 4) Results and Conclusions. Chapter 2 describes the research design and methods, as well as ethical considerations and limitations of this thesis. Chapter 3 introduces variants of the theoretical framework of CSR with the focus on collaboration and responsibility under social connection. Chapter 4 synthesises the findings of the respective papers and concludes by reviewing their contributions and implications for CSR research and practice, as well as suggesting possible avenues for continued research. Appendices provide additional information regarding the interview process. Papers I-V are appended at the end of the thesis.

2   Research Design and Methods

Greek philosophy teaches us that change is constant (*e.g.* Heraclitus, 535-475 B.C.[3]; *cit*. Horner & Westacott, 2000). Scientific research too can be described as a journey rather than a destination, where each stop creates a new point of departure (Gummesson, 2000). Research is characterised by a constant search for theories, patterns and concepts to attempt to explain phenomena, where the condition of what is feasible is true for both qualitative and quantitative forms of research. Creating a scientific knowledge contribution therefore remains challenging for any researcher and it is a matter of making choices, which should be guided by the research question itself (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009).

A qualitative research design was chosen for the empirical studies reported in Papers I-IV because of the ambiguous nature of the phenomenon of CSR, coupled with the overall scarcity of literature in the field of CSR in the food sector (Hartmann, 2011). Given these conditions, an inductive approach was deemed more suitable. An empirically driven case study design was chosen for Papers I-IV, which explored CSR within different context-bound examples within Swedish food retailing. In fact within the academic field of CSR qualitative research, explorative and descriptive approaches are widely employed (De Bakker *et al*., 2005). Relying on research traditions in the field allowed lessons to be learned from the approaches and justified the choice of research design for this thesis in order to extend existing knowledge.

This chapter introduces the empirical setting and describes the research design devised to study the case of CSR in Swedish food retail. It presents the methods used for data collection and analysis and the ethical considerations that guided this process. Paper V is treated separately, as the development of the teaching case was different from the original research process. Chapter 2 concludes by discussing limitations arising from the research design and process.

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[3]Before Christ, B.C.

2.1 The Empirical Setting

The research setting and position of food retailers in the food system were described in Chapter 1. The following section focuses on the specific Swedish context of food retailers that influenced the choice of CSR cases, as well as the type and number of organisations studied. The section is divided into a presentation of Sweden as a geographically bound context and an overview of the Swedish food retail landscape, which forms the main empirical setting for Papers I-V.

2.1.1 Sweden as Geographical Context

Sweden has the largest population in the Nordic countries, with an estimated 9.2 million inhabitants (Europa, 2014). Sweden is based on a constitutional monarchy, with King Carl XVI Gustaf as the Head of State and the Moderate Party was in power between 2006-2014. The country can be described as a social democratic welfare state with a 'socialist' culture and strong control-and-command mechanisms (Lindvall & Rothstein, 2006). Sweden became a member of the European Union in 1995. According to the Organization Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD[4]) Better Life Index, Sweden is among the most equitable countries in the world in terms of income equality, but there is still a considerable wealth gap between the top 20% and bottom 20%, with a ratio of 4 to 1. The average household has an estimated net-adjusted disposable income of 27,456 USD per year, which is about 3,500 USD more than the OECD average (OECD Better Life Index, 2013). The average Swedish household spends an estimated 12% of disposable income on food (ICA Annual Report, 2013, p. 24). Life expectancy at birth in Sweden is on average almost 82 years, which is two years higher than the OECD average and one of the highest in the world (Anell *et al.*, 2012, p. 10; OECD Better Life Index, 2013). In terms of online connectedness, in Sweden 91% of the population aged between 16 and 85 years had access to the internet in 2013, about 68% of the population made online purchases and 70% of people were able to access public authority websites for information (Statistics Sweden, 2012, pp. 9-11). Sweden often serves as an example of a society with one of the highest standards of living by providing free access to education and

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[4]34 member countries have signed the Convention on Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD): Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom (UK) and United States (US).

having high environmental, safety and quality standards (Business Insider, 2013). The combination of economic, cultural and social welfare conditions makes Sweden an interesting case setting for researching ethical issues. Campbell (2007) argues that Sweden, together with other Nordic countries, ranks high for ethical behaviour of national organisations, by having an institutional environment that facilitates CSR.

A number of food safety, production and consumption-related news items, such as the China baby-milk scandal in 2008 (BBC News, 2010) and the Escherichia coli outbreak in 2011 (Food Safety News, 2011), have been making the headlines in Sweden and around the world during the past decade. When a food scandal arises, it often affects many actors due to the globalised nature of value chains, as discussed earlier. Prominent cases in Sweden include the horsemeat scandal, where horsemeat was found in frozen lasagne labelled as beef (Dagens Nyheter, 2013; Hedström, 2013) and also in IKEA meatballs (The Wall Street Journal, 2013); re-labelling of expired cheese and meat products in supermarkets (Gefle Dagblad, 2005); mislabelled seafood (Consumer Report, 2011); and controversial social and environmental issues regarding the sourcing of Asian tiger shrimp[5] (Rotter *et al*., 2012; SVT, 2007). Food retailers in Sweden are often seen as influential and are held (partly) responsible in such cases and asked for public statements. Besides unforeseen and pressuring events, attention is also drawn to gradually occurring issues related to, or arising from, food consumption, such as the effects of food on individual health (*e.g*. The Guardian, 2013) and waste management (Naturvårdsverket, 2014; Singh *et al*., 2014).

In response to external and internal pressures, food retailers in Sweden actively work with and communicate their CSR activities through various channels. Unerman and Bennett (2004, p. 704) argue that the internet provides a particularly promising platform for stakeholder engagement and for working towards "democratic corporate accountability". This creates the conditions to observe CSR as a phenomenon openly. Availability, timing and access to data influenced the selection of cases for Papers I-V in this thesis. Paper I investigated voluntary collaboration of food retailers with public actors, such as non-government organisations (NGOs), to support various social and environmental causes. This was communicated mainly on their websites and in-store. Papers II, III and V focused on one food retailer's approach to dealing with the complex issue of tiger shrimp, where sourcing conditions lie outside the direct control of the business. The tiger shrimp case is a recurring theme in the media that is particularly driven by a Swedish NGO, because tiger shrimp

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[5] Asian tiger shrimp (*Penaeus monodon*) are also known as giant tiger prawn among other names. These crustaceans are referred to simply as 'tiger shrimp" in the remainder of this thesis.

are associated with various social and environmental problems. For example, the Swedish Society for Nature Conservation (SSNC) holds an 'anti-tiger shrimp day' every March with the aim of driving change and raising awareness. The objective is to mobilise consumers to protest against the trade in tiger shrimp (Naturskyddsföreningen, 2013). Paper III discussed the tiger shrimp example in combination with another prominent ethical sourcing case referred to as 'conflict minerals', arising from the different empirical background of mining. Mining of conflict minerals refers to the extraction and trade in tin, tungsten, tantalum and gold from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), and is interesting as it involves a number of actors working in a multi-stakeholder setting to ease a complex social and environmental problem at the time of sourcing. The aim of Paper III was to explore the framework of political CSR in those two contemporary cases, despite differences in the empirical settings. Paper IV explored Swedish food retailers taking voluntary responsibility and thereby contributing to larger social goals such as promoting healthy food choices. Food consumption-related diseases, such as obesity, diabetes and cholesterol, are a hotly debated topic in Sweden and other parts of the world, but particularly in Western countries (Dagens Nyheter, 2014; The Local, 2011).

2.1.2 The Swedish Food Retail Landscape

The main empirical setting for this thesis was the Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) industry, more specifically the food retail sector in Sweden. FMCG are groceries and everyday commodities such as food, tobacco, flowers and magazines (Konkurrensverket, 2002, p. 9). The Swedish food retail market is dominated by a few food retailers that are mainly locally active. Conditions can be described as an oligopoly, as the market is dominated by a small number of actors. The largest actors by market share are ICA Sverige AB, Axfood AB, Coop Sverige AB and Bergendahls Food AB (Table 1)[6]. Combined, ICA (41%), Axfood (14%), Coop (18%) and Bergendahls Food (6%) account for approximately 79% of the total food retail market in Sweden (Chamber Trade Sweden, 2013). Other small, independent or foreign actors on the Swedish market include the German Lidl chain, with 3% market share, and the Danish chain Netto, with 2% (Chamber Trade Sweden, 2013; Konkurrensverket, 2002). Table 1 provides some background information about the four main Swedish food retailers based on their governance structure, as well as key economic indicators.

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[6]These are referred to as Axfood, ICA, Coop and Bergendahls Food in the remainder of this thesis.

The four large food retailers listed in Table 1 have both retail (selling to private households) and wholesale activities (selling to other than private households). Most of the food retail outlets in Sweden are rather small in format, such as mini-markets and supermarkets, followed by large superstores, discount stores and hypermarkets (Chamber Trade Sweden, 2013). Each of the store formats often has a special category management assortment that defines the store type. All four main retailers actively communicate CSR activities and their code of conduct through reports and their websites, most likely because of high internet use in Sweden (Hedström, 2014; Statistics Sweden, 2012). Papers I and IV present empirical data from the three main food retailers ICA, Axfood and Coop. Papers II, III and V focus only on Axfood, as its strategy was considered to be not business as usual.

Table 1. *Key data on the main Swedish food retailers for 2012/2013 (Source: ICA, 2014; Chamber Trade Sweden, 2013, pp. 14-15; Coop, 2013; Hedström, 2013, p. 23; Bergendahls, 2012, p. 1).*

	ICA Sverige AB	**Axfood AB**	**Coop Sverige AB**	**Bergendahls Food AB**
Year founded	1939	2000	1899	1922
Sales (SEK billion[7])	114.0	40.0	48.6	16.7
Employees	7617	8285	7011	3182
Ownership	Joint venture	Privately owned	Cooperative	Privately owned
Store format	ICA Maxi, Kvantum, Supermarket, Nära	Hemköp, Willys, Tempo &Handlarn	Forum, Extra Konsum, Nära,	Citygross, Matrebellerna
Number of stores	1326	720	655	165
Market share	~41%	~14%	~18%	~6%

To briefly summarise the empirical setting, Sweden as a geographically bound context was chosen for two complementary reasons. Firstly, Sweden offers rather ideal conditions to study practices of CSR (Campbell, 2007). This thesis can therefore primarily offers insights for actors and industries in Sweden. Even though Sweden is a small country in terms of population, it holds a power position in Western trade, where practices can have a global reach, and serves as an example for other countries and industry members, making it an appropriate research setting. Secondly, the proximity to other researchers, access to case companies and other data sources such as The Nielsen Company (Sweden) created convenient conditions for accessing relevant data. The

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[7] Currency Conversion (09/2014): 1 Euro = 9.19206 SEK; 1 USD = 6.99855 SEK

selected cases are considered appropriate as they cover both pressured CSR responses and proactive CSR initiatives that involve and can affect various stakeholders. The various case features aim to provide a diversified view of collaboration in the case of CSR in Swedish food retail. The following section describes the research design and process.

2.2 The Research Process

The work of designing the research approach was influenced primarily by classical scholars within qualitative methods such as Yin (2008), Gummesson (2000), Eisenhardt (1989) and Alvesson and Sköldberg (2009). With regard to aiming for trustworthiness and authenticity, Creswell and Miller's (2000) considerations were used as guidelines to strive towards validity in the research process. Papers I-IV followed a case study research strategy where written and oral data were collected mainly through interviews and secondary data sources, with a subsequent qualitative data analysis approach. The research approach used in Papers I-IV and Paper V is described in detail in the following two sections.

2.2.1 Case Study Design

Papers I-IV are based on a case study design, which is a common qualitative research strategy in business studies (Yin, 2008; Robson, 2002; Gummesson, 2000). Case research offers an "opportunity for a holistic view" (Gummesson, 2000). Here the focus was on understanding underlying processes in primarily unexplored areas that may be difficult to quantify or comprehend in another way. In other words, in-depth contemporary phenomena are being investigated within their real-life context (Yin, 2008), *i.e.* CSR in Swedish food retail, where questions such as how, why and what were explored. Based on the research purpose, case studies can be classified as an exploratory, descriptive or explanatory analysis of a person, group or event (Yin, 2008). In brief, exploratory analysis can be seen as a pilot study which aims to formulate questions by focusing on what or how, *e.g.* What ways are there to practise CSR in food retail? or How do Swedish food retailers express corporate responsibility in providing a supportive context for healthy food choices? (Paper IV). Descriptive research aims to portray how and what is, or has been, going on by focusing on a particular issue. It requires a theoretical starting point for the subsequent data selection and collection, *e.g.* How do food retailers practise CSR? or, as in this thesis, What are the conditions, such as perceived motivations and challenges, when it comes to private-public

partnerships (PPPs) for promoting CSR issues? (Paper I); How are CSR issues managed in a multi-stakeholder dialogue and reflected in category management decision? (Paper II); and How do businesses address societal and environmental issues arising in global supply chains? (Paper III). An explanatory case study design aims to explain a phenomenon and its relationship by answering how or why questions (Gummesson, 2000). For example, Why do food retailers practise CSR? or Why is there a link between CSR and reputation?. Defining the respective research purposes was influenced by drawing on publicly communicated examples of CSR practices, such as partnerships, ethical sourcing and promotion of social public goods, such as health, as introduced in the research setting, coupled with conditions of existing theoretical framework and literature in the field.

The case studies in this thesis were based on an inductive approach, yet accepted a context of existing theoretical and conceptual frames. This created the conditions for a combination of inductive and deductive reasoning known as abduction. Abduction involves adding a dimension of understanding to the observed patterns, resulting in iteration between the deductive and inductive (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). Gummesson (2000, p. 64) emphasises that there is a degree of abduction in all types of research, where the difference lies in the starting point of a research project and the nature of the research question. In this case, the starting point was inductive, as the objective was not to test existing frameworks, but to develop weak or under-researched aspects of connected concepts, such as responsibility and collaboration in the context of CSR. Such a case study approach is particularly suitable as it allows the researcher to be empirically driven, while at the same time relying on pre-defined concepts (Eisenhardt, 1989).

Even though Papers I-IV (and V) in this thesis were approached from a case study design, the types and combinations varied according to the research objective (Table 2, p. 36). Single and multiple case studies were used (Yin, 2008), with the unit of analysis in Papers I-IV being the organisation(s) in their context. Multiple case studies are preferable where possible, as they are considered to be more robust than single case studies (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Paper I was based on a multiple case study design of three Swedish food retailers, which served as the basis for comparing and contrasting in order to understand motivations and challenges for engaging in PPP from a business perspective. The three food retail organisations are embedded in the same institutional context, providing a coherent sample (Hallén & Eisenhardt, 2012). Paper II (and V) was based on a holistic, single case study of one food retailer, Axfood, with the aim of describing CSR in the context of the tiger shrimp issue. A single case study was deemed suitable as the study aimed to portray in

depth the complex conditions and various stakeholder considerations that underlie a food retailer's approach within the framework of CSR and ethical sourcing. In Yin's (2008) terms, the tiger shrimp issue served as a revelatory case. Paper III a multiple case study, as it combined the single case study of Paper II with a multiple case study of conflict minerals. It described different approaches to collaboration in tackling issues that are locate beyond organisational boundaries with the aim was to explore the phenomenon of political CSR empirically. The two main cases here are embedded in different industries and institutional contexts, meaning the sample was non-coherent. Paper IV was based on a multiple case study and, similarly to Paper I, a coherent sample. The aim was to explore, compare and contrast different approaches of organisations and their CSR approach in enabling healthy food choices.

A "theoretical sample", a term coined by Glaser and Strauss (2008), implies that the group for data collection is controlled, which was done to select the cases in Papers I-V. The cases were included because of working with the phenomenon in question and based on informants' willingness to participate in the study. The theoretical sample in Papers I and IV represents the top three largest food retailers operating on the Swedish market. These companies, namely ICA, Axfood and Coop, account for approximately 75% of the total food retail market in Sweden and can therefore be seen as representative of the Swedish market (Chamber Trade Sweden, 2013). In Papers II and III, the focus was on one main food retailer, namely Axfood. Paper III expanded the empirical setting to that of the mining industry and included as a second case three large actors in the electronics industry, namely Nokia, Intel and Motorola Solutions.

Given the complexity and richness of context-bound data, one main criticism of a case study design relates to limitations on generalisability. Theory generation from case studies is possible (Eisenhardt, 1989), but is not always a compulsory requirement, as it is highly dependent on the research question and sample size. Nevertheless, case studies offer a way to promote novel theory development (Eisenhardt, 1989) and to offer *e.g.* insightful descriptions, which can lead to the uncovering of relationships between constructs (De Bakker *et al.*, 2005, p. 294). In defence of descriptive research, Gummesson (2000, p. 85) states "there is no description without analysis and interpretation". Therefore, as generalisability may be limited even with other methodologies, case studies offer a meaningful way for scientific knowledge contributions. The overall thesis can be seen as empirically driven with the aim of revealing relationships between the constructs emerging from the empirical data in Papers I-IV, with the focus on responsibility and collaboration.

2.2.2 Data Collection

Case study research is open to a broad range of information-gathering techniques (*e.g.* Gummesson, 2000). In this thesis, interviews were chosen as the main means to gather in-depth empirical data for Papers I-IV. The interviews were complemented with additional sources of data. Interviews are based on a researcher asking questions and receiving answers from the informant (Robson, 2002), in order to understand the meaning of the subject's 'lived world' by covering both the factual and the meaning value (Kvale, 2008, p. 11; Yin, 2008). Before planning and conducting the interviews, existing literature and background information on the organisations and case were studied to assure quality and enable information acquired during the interview to be validated and clarified. This multi-method approach is especially useful for building a stronger foundation (Creswell & Miller, 2000), but also works to respect the informants' time by focusing on relevant questions. This section describes the methods and processes of accessing informants for the research, as well as additional data sources used in this thesis.

Informants and interview processes

Accessing informants can be described as informal, with a general openness to participate in research within all cases. A first contact was initiated by an email or telephone call to invite the participants to the study. Contact details were obtained through the food retailers' websites or personal references from colleagues. This was followed by setting a time for a personal meeting or telephone interview, while offering access to an interview guide with the leading questions (Appendix 1). The interview guide was sent by email to the informants. The interview questions used in Papers I-III were semi-structured with a sequence of questions that could be adapted during the interview, allowing for more flexibility (Robson, 2002). These types of interview guides were deemed suitable, as the aim was to gain an initial understanding of the issue (Baker & Foy, 2012). The questions in Paper IV were structured, open-ended questions. All questions were partly derived from existing literature and the theoretical framework.

Face-to-face interviews were preferred, but telephone and asynchronised written interviews via email were accepted and considered for two reasons: they allowed us to experiment with different methods and they were resource-efficient and acceptable in the context of the study (Meho, 2006; Robson, 2002, p. 270). Face-to-face interviews were conducted in the greater area of Stockholm, Sweden, and Espoo, Finland, always at the business sites of the

informants. Most of the interviews were one-on-one and in some cases with another researcher as a third party. Face-to-face and telephone interviews for Papers I-III varied from 30 minutes up to 1.5 hours. Notes were taken besides recording the interviews when conducted via telephone or personally, with the exception of Nokia. Nokia has strict requirements that did not allow for recordings. All recorded interviews were carefully transcribed and returned to the informant for validation and clarification. Creswell and Miller (2000) refer to this process as "member checking" as part of increasing authenticity. However, few informants from the food retail sector availed of this opportunity. For Papers I and II, only about 33% responded to the transcript. This was very different from the data collection for Paper III. In the case of conflict minerals, the informants representing the companies carefully reviewed and modified the transcripts. For Paper IV, the duration of responding to the email interviews is unknown.

In terms of language, interviews were conducted primarily in English and Swedish (Appendix 2). A researcher member with *e.g.* German or Swedish as their mother tongue then carefully translated the transcripts into English. Since most of the research presented in this thesis is based on research collaboration and some projects started before my doctoral studies, I was not able to be personally part of all the data collection. This concerns particularly Paper II, where I instead had access to the transcripts, which I complemented and expanded with data for the purpose of the research objective in this thesis.

A total of 21 interviews were conducted for Papers I-IV (V). A summary of the key informants and the post they hold in their organisation can be found in Appendix 2. Additionally, interviews with informants, six in total, who participated but whose views are not directly reproduced in the papers included Göran Ek (SSNC), Jonas Olsson (Save the Children) and Siv Persson (Worldwide Fund for Nature, WWF) for Paper I and Annica Hansson Borg (Bergendahls Food AB), Ari Mansikkaviita (Statistics Sweden) and Andreas Stenberg (Statistics Sweden) for Paper II.

Additional sources of data

Additional sources of data were selected and included for three main purposes: 1) To obtain an understanding of the historical context where needed (*e.g.* books, journals); 2) to obtain background information about the case companies and case-relevant information (*e.g.* websites, newspapers, annual reports, official statistics); and 3) to increase the robustness of the interview data and triangulate these data (*e.g.* annual reports, policies) (Creswell & Miller, 2000). The overall aim in case presentation was to provide a dense and

rich description to enable the reader to determine the applicability of results in similar contexts (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 129). Examples of additional data include documents in the form of books, journals, reports and newspapers, as well as statistical data from Statistics Sweden, annual reports from the food retailers concerned, published guidelines on health and nutrition from *e.g.* National Food Agency (Livsmedelsverket) and industry reports. One advantage contributing to the validity and dependability of the research is that such secondary documents and materials are not affected by their use by the researcher and can therefore be considered more objective (Robson, 2002). In addition, the internet, or more specifically the world wide web (WWW), was utilised for accessing and retrieving data, as well as for communicating with *e.g.* informants via email. This platform offers a number of advantages, but information from the internet and indirect secondary data were treated with caution as regards quality considerations for scientific purposes (Scott, 1990).

Data from a market research institution: The Nielsen Company (Sweden)

The Nielsen Company is a leading market research institute that provides market insights, research and data on consumers' attitude and behaviour globally. Within the FMCG industry The Nielsen Company measures groceries mainly in two ways; through attitude scan data and surveys. Paper IV investigated the responsibility of food retailers as regards complex problems such as public health and for this The Nielsen Company Sweden kindly provided data from their global omnibus surveys, as well as sales data specific for the Swedish market.

The surveys referred to in Paper IV were conducted between March/April 2011 and August/September 2011 with a sample over 25,000 online consumers in 56 countries throughout Asia Pacific, Europe, Latin America, the Middle East and North America. The sample has quotas based on age and sex for each country based on their internet users, was weighted to be representative of internet consumers and has a maximum margin of error of ±0.6%. The survey conducted by The Nielsen Company was limited to respondents with online access, where penetration rates vary by country. For survey inclusion, The Nielsen Company uses a minimum reporting standard of 60% internet penetration or 10 million online populations.

Secondly, the sales data, or scan data, were on an aggregated level for the whole Swedish food retail market and limited to the last full four years (2010-2013). Scan data are sales data collected through scanning products at the point of sale. In Paper IV volume data were preferred, as they ignore price fluctuations. The choice of food products included in Paper IV was based on

suggestions by consumers on how to lose weight and maintain a healthy lifestyle. These selected products represent products that were mentioned during the survey as ways in which consumers can reduce sugar and fat and increase fibre intake. This overlaps with previous studies that link food products to health effects. For example, according to Vassallo *et al*. (2009, p. 452), pasta and bread are the most studied cereal products regarding health effects when consumed. Furthermore, globally milk and dairy products are widely consumed and contribute approximately 5% of total energy intake (Gill & Rowland, 2003, p. 19). Empirically, there is evidence of health effects from the intake of 'good' (monounsaturated and polyunsaturated) or 'bad' (trans and saturated) fats, as well as of whole-grain and unprocessed products compared with *e.g.* refined carbohydrates (Michels, 2003; Willett, 1994). The combination of previous research and survey findings led me to choose milk, yoghurt, margarine and butter (dairy), a grain product (pasta) and chocolate to illustrate consumer behaviour or products that offer a healthier alternative within their segment or reported to be reduced for health reasons. One advantage of using archive data for the empirical study is the large, timely and representative sample obtained, which exceeds individual research efforts (Robson, 2002, p. 360). It was therefore deemed suitable to illustrate the institutional conditions and enable a discussion about the role of responsibility and collaborative behaviour among various actors.

2.2.3 Data Analysis

In preparation for the data analysis, the interview recordings and notes were transcribed. Given that Papers I-IV were largely descriptive studies, the aim was to present what we as researchers observed in a condensed and coherent way (Miles *et al.*, 2014). Case studies often generate enormous amount of data where a meaningful analysis depends on carefully organizing data by for example separating relevant from irrelevant data (Baker & Foy, 2012). Data analysis is generally organised around three phases, namely 1) collation and description; 2) analysis; and 3) interpretation and synthesis (Leedy & Ormond, 2005). More specifically, each phase involved the following:

Phase 1) Empirical data were systematically organised with the help of matrices to assemble key data from the respondents according to either their role or the conceptual theme (Miles *et al.*, 2014). These data was complemented with secondary material and examined for emergent patterns, which allowed for categorisations. Identifying categories enabled us to keep a logical flow and keep empirical data together, search for patterns and remain

sensitive to paradoxes. As collaborating researchers we often worked independently and then compared and discussed our suggestions.

Phase 2) Collected data were analysed within and across the case(s) and examined with the help of the theoretical framework. In Papers I, III and IV, we followed a case replication approach, meaning that every case served as an independent investigation that was then compared with the other case(s) (Yin, 2008; Zott & Huy, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989). In order to present the data for analysis, a role-ordered matrix was used for Papers II and III in order to summarise and compare different role and perception actors, while for Papers I and IV conceptually-clustered matrices were used to highlight conceptually related data emerging from the analysis (Miles *et al.,* 2014). Paper II was based on a single case study, where the aim was to present an in-depth case description. The results were used to identify patterns on a larger basis where possible.

Phase 3) The process of interpretation and synthesis sought context-bound findings embedded in a larger context of existing literature and relevant discourse. The aim was to let the data speak and see how this fitted or differed from our existing theoretical understanding.

The overall process of data analysis in all papers can best be described as an iterative process by shifting between empirical findings, categories and existing theoretical frameworks. This is also reflected in the presentations of the cases in Papers I-IV, as they rely on and refer to theoretical literature in the analysis. Excerpts from the interviews are used in Papers I-IV to show the authenticity of the data, while respecting ethical standards. We aimed to reduce the overuse of narratives (Hartley, 2004) by gradually working towards clear statements and using direct quotes by the respondents. Furthermore, we made efforts to keep empirical evidence and interpretation clearly separated by carefully presenting empirical findings and analysis in different sections.

Table 2. *Summary of the research design for Papers I-IV.*

	Paper I	**Paper II**	**Paper III**	**Paper IV**
Research approach	Qualitative case study strategy, inductive, context-bound			
Research aim	Descriptive	Descriptive	Descriptive/Exploratory	Exploratory
CSR case	Various (social & environmental)	Tiger shrimp (social & environmental)	Tiger shrimp & conflict minerals (social & environmental)	Public health (social)
Case study design	Multiple case study (same institutional context)	Single case study	Multiple case study (different institutional contexts)	Multiple case study (same institutional context)
Case organisation/s	Axfood, ICA, & Coop	Axfood	Axfood, Intel, Nokia, & Motorola Solutions	Axfood, ICA, & Coop
Unit of analysis	Organisation(s) in question			
Data collection	Six semi-structured interviews (personal/telephone) documents, internet	11 semi-structured interviews (personal/telephone) documents, internet	11 + four semi-structured interviews (personal/telephone) documents, internet	Three structured interviews (email), observations, documents, The Nielsen Company, internet
Language *Interview (I), Response (R)*	I: English R: English	I: Swedish, German R: Swedish, German	I: Swedish, English, Finnish R: Swedish, English, Finnish	I: English R: Swedish
Data analysis	Case-replication approach Conceptually clustered matrix	Within case analysis Role-ordered matrix	Case-replication approach Role-ordered matrix	Case-replication approach Conceptually clustered matrix

2.3 Research-informed Teaching Material

The Harvard-style teaching case (Paper V) was initially developed and driven by the need to create teaching material to use during my lectures at Master's level at the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences (SLU). I was encouraged to try different styles of writing and working towards bridging the link between research and teaching.

Paper V was based on the dilemma of the tiger shrimp issue studied in Paper II and adopted an internal business perspective in the teaching case. It was a semi-fictional case intended for students of marketing, environmental management and applied ethics. The teaching case was developed with Bachelor's students in mind, but the analysis can easily be taken to a more advanced level depending on the literature requirements. The case was written to support primarily qualitative analysis and stimulate a discussion on the role of food retailers when it comes to choice editing of products, as well as a retailer's ascribed influence to work towards overall sustainable development. It was shaped to meet a call for papers by the International Food and Agribusiness Management Association (IFAMA) and submitted for peer review. The case was introduced at the 23rd Annual World Forum and Proceedings held in Atlanta, Georgia, USA, in July 2013, which is sponsored by IFAMA. It was selected as the winning case for the eighth Global Student Case Competition, consisting of 22 teams from around the world. Subsequently it was published as open source in the International Food and Agribusiness Management Review (IFAMR).

In terms of the development of Paper V, I started by studying how to create and write teaching cases (Leenders *et al.*, 2001) as well as reading examples of teaching cases. I then started drafting and re-writing the material from Paper II. I collected additional data to complement the case with the aim of increasing the complexity and degree of the ethical dilemma. The anonymous peer-review process helped to improve the case and particularly direct it towards the role of social media. Writing this teaching case was an enriching experience for me, as I was able to develop my pedagogical and writing skills, which resulted in creating my own teaching material. Personally, I favour case-based teaching over traditional lectures, and having teaching material that is closely tied to my research interests makes teaching more interesting and rewarding for me, as it is very stimulating to learn from the perspectives and discussions of the students. This was my first attempt at bridging the two dimensions of researching and teaching, *i.e.* research-informed teaching, and I hope to advance both my research and teaching skills in the future.

2.4 Research Ethics

Ethical aspects were considered in three ways: (1) During the research process, (2) in how the study was presented in writing and (3) in how the research results were disseminated to various stakeholders.

Ethical considerations during data collection (1) were intended to minimise intrusion and protect the informant, as qualitative research relies heavily on a degree of observation of human actions and personal views. It is therefore a matter of balancing concerns in regards to privacy, confidentiality, convenience, stress and misinterpretation *etc*. (Miles *et al*., 2014; Kvale, 2008; Robson, 2002). We sought to operationalise such ethical considerations in various ways. For example, informants participated voluntarily without compensation and had the option to withdraw at any time. In order to foster transparency and avoid confusion, interview guides (Appendix 1) were sent out in advance. The informants were informed about the purpose of the study and how the data would be used. Furthermore, the informants had the opportunity to choose a meeting site and time that were convenient for them. Informants were given the opportunity to provide feedback on the interview transcripts. None of the informants withdrew actively from the study, although non-validation of a transcript could be interpreted as acceptance or decline. In such cases, if no official statement of disagreement was made, we took this as consent. Anonymity and protection of informants was considered but not seen as necessary in this thesis, as the information obtained was not seen as particularly critical. In fact increasing transparency was preferred, as this is closely tied to the ethical foundation of CSR from a business perspective.

Regarding ethical consideration in writing (2), being a social science researcher, I see myself as having a privileged position that allows me to tell a story, where studying CSR is closely tied to my personal ethical considerations. In this study I adopted a business perspective, which did not mean to imply a normative judgment as to whether businesses are more responsible when it comes to addressing current social and environmental problems on local and global levels. My personal aim was to portray the research as objectively as possible, with limited normative judgment, so that others could draw their own conclusions, yet with the ambition to raise awareness of the complexity and importance of CSR thinking for overall sustainable development.

One issue becoming increasingly important is how research is communicated and made available (3) to a range of stakeholders. This thesis aimed at creating value for a wider audience of academics, practitioners and individuals, and the publication strategy was as open as possible. However,

unfortunately my funding did not allow payment of journal fees for obtaining an open access option. Orally, I disseminated my research within the academic field by attending various national and international conferences that were both topic-specific and of a more general business management nature. Examples of conferences attended were those organised by the European Society for Agriculture and Food Ethics (EurSafe), European Group for Organisational Studies (EGOS), International Association of Business and Society (IABS), Japan Forum of Business and Society (JFBS), Corporate Responsibility Research Conference (CRRC), and the Nordic Symposium for CSR. In order to attend such conferences, I obtained external funding from institutions such as Food in Focus, Formas, the Swedish Retail and Wholesale Development Council (HUR), Forte and internal SLU travel grants. I also attempted to attend seminars and connect with other universities in the Stockholm area conducting research into business ethics and sustainability, such as the Sustainability Group at the Royal Institute of Technology (KTH) and Stockholm School of Economics (HHS). Outside the purely academic setting, I also participated in multi-disciplinary industry meetings such as those organised by HUR and the Royal Swedish Academy of Agriculture and Forestry (KSLA). Moreover, I attempted to make connections with the industry through CSR-related events organised by consultancies such as RESPECT and the Australian Centre for Corporate Social Responsibility (ACCSR), in order to listen to the needs of the industry as regards implementing CSR programmes. Furthermore, I supervised and taught Master's students, with approximately 20 hours of class teaching based on my research area.

2.5 Limitations

This thesis is subject to a number of limitations arising from the research design and from choices made that might offer opportunities for continued research. Limitations can be grouped into four key themes; i) access to data, ii) no process data, iii) research setting and unit of analysis, and iv) researcher-related constraints.

Limitation (i) relates to access to data such as sample size and informants. It is a common problem that access to the case organisations, relevant people and documents is often restricted. Given the oligopolistic conditions of the Swedish market, only a few retailers were available for observation. One advantage of this was that it allowed me to study all the main actors in the Swedish food retail market simultaneously, as in Papers I and IV. However, the sources within these organisations were narrowed down to a limited number of relevant informants working with CSR and showing willingness to participate.

Therefore, in many cases, the empirical data represent a statement by one individual. However, given the key position of the informants in the organisation, they were qualified to provide market insights. Therefore I assumed that their communicated information was relevant and valid for this research. I would agree that this can also be seen as a shortcoming, as it did not clearly allow the point of saturation to be reached and might suggest the need for longitudinal research coupled with an ethnographic study in order to observe more stable patterns. In order to build stronger cases within this study, secondary data were used for triangulation and to increase robustness. However, obtaining internal documentation was rather challenging. In *e.g.* Paper I, it would have been interesting to further explore the need for exclusivity. A follow-up study could shed light on the contractual agreements when it comes to collaboration between NGOs and businesses, as such documents were classified at the time of this study. Another observation relates to the increasing use of the internet as a communication tool by businesses coupled with temporary information sharing, where annual reports in some cases are no longer available for download, but can only be read online.

Limitation (ii) relates to time and resources. In this four-year PhD project, there was little time to investigate each research problem. Known time and resource constraints influenced the choice of research problem addressed, as well as the type of data collection. Firstly, CSR initiatives in this thesis are selected, meaning that there are many other initiatives and activities that are not part of this study. Secondly, interviews in all cases were chosen as being less intrusive and time-consuming an example of ethnographic study of CSR practices. Interviews were suitable as they allowed timely information relevant to the research question to be obtained. However, interviews carry a potential risk of bias, as they rely heavily on self-reported data, which are difficult validate externally. Therefore, as mentioned before, in some cases, as in Paper II, it could have been favourable to combine mixed data collection, such as observing internal meetings, to allow for deeper investigation of the processes. Generally, in my view CSR would benefit from being studied from a process perspective rather than as a 'snapshot' in time. Yet, a longitudinal research design was not feasible within this thesis for reasons of limited access to informants and time constraints. Another resource constraint was tied to the condition that the SLU library has limited subscriptions to scientific journals relevant for my studies. I tried to find other ways, *e.g.* obtaining copies from other libraries or asking for last versions from authors, but this was not always possible, and therefore some literature were omitted. This is not meant as an excuse, but rather points to a problem, where open access publishing under

existing conditions might be valuable to consider in order to increase the accessibility of (publicly funded) research.

Limitation (iii) concerned the research setting and unit of analysis by focusing on the business organisations as well as one geographically bound market, Sweden. Sweden provides a unique setting where the generalisability for other markets might be limited. Future research could include comparative studies on how CSR is practised under changing institutional conditions.

As regards researcher-related limitations (iv), in terms of language I primarily relied on material published in English and German, as I am proficient in both languages. My Swedish skills are moderate and continuously improving yet, particularly in the beginning, I had to rely on translations by native speakers or asked the native speakers to communicate in English, which is likely to have had an effect on the way and type of information communicated and understanding and interpretation of the data. Therefore, future research should attempt to conduct all interviews in the native language of the informant, as this could increase trust, comfort and clarity. Furthermore, there is a risk of cultural and personal bias, where efforts were made to critically re-evaluate conditions and findings.

To summarise, this chapter described the research design adopted in order to study the case of CSR in Swedish food retail and its various limitations and delimitations. I hope that this enables the reader to follow and evaluate the claims made based on the data, as well as inspiring new opportunities for continued research. The next chapter presents variants of the theoretical background of CSR with particular focus on responsibility under social connection and business collaborations within CSR.

3   Theoretical Framework

Responsibility and collaboration in relation to CSR are the two key themes of this thesis. This chapter starts by summarising extant literature and cornerstones of CSR research, as CSR is the central phenomenon in Papers I-V. The assumption of forward- and backward-looking responsibility in the context of the social connection model by Young (2013; 2006) is then described in more detail. Chapter 3 concludes with a description of the diverse forms of business collaborations within the CSR literature dealt with in Papers I-V.

3.1   Cornerstones of Corporate Social Responsibility

Following the economic perspective of free market capitalism as advocated by Friedman (1962), businesses are traditionally understood as single-purpose institutions that engage in and maximise economic activities by accepting legal constraints (Boatright, 2003, p. 373). Confining organisations primarily to economic ends, and therefore limiting the role of business in society, is meant to preserve other private and public institutions, primarily on a national level (Boatright, 2003). The philosophy of free market capitalism has certainly created economic progress and wealth for many actors, yet challenges remain to ensure fairness and benefits for all actors and countries, as well as protection of the environment (Stolle & Micheletti, 2013; Aguilera *et al*., 2007). In economic terms, markets are not always efficient, which can create externalities and conditions for market failures, with substantial welfare consequences (Greenwald & Stiglitz, 1986). Commoner (1971, p. 287) refers to externalities as "a burden on society as a whole". A clear distinction is generally made between private and public institution, where externalities concerned with environmental protection and social justice are usually viewed as responsibilities of the state (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011), even if they are

partly caused and sustained by the private sector. However, given the changes in the trade environment due to globalisation, coupled with on-going financial, environmental and social dilemmas, the role and responsibilities of the private sector in society are being revisited (Muhr *et al.*, 2010; Visser *et al.*, 2007). Businesses as powerful and political actors constantly make decisions for various stakeholders internally and externally, for example regarding resources, development of technologies and products, working relations, *etc.* (see *e.g.* Deetz, 1992). Given such changing roles, Matten and Crane (2005) suggest that businesses have started to assume a state-like role. This suggests that various responsibilities are increasingly becoming a matter for the market sphere.

One attempt to introduce responsibilities (back) into business conduct in order to lessen externalities and "counter moral deficits in business" is through the notion of CSR (Muhr *et al.*, 2010, p. 5). The idea of CSR is being driven by members of civil society, academic researchers, the media, politicians, profit-driven and not-for-profit organisations (Stolle & Micheletti, 2013). It urges all members of society to realise that social and environmental values need to be taken into consideration if this planet is to persist for future generations, as stated in the well-known Brundtland Report (1987). Today CSR is often used as an umbrella term for related concepts such as sustainable development, business ethics, corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship and corporate social performance (Carroll & Shabana, 2010, p. 86; De Bakker *et al.*, 2005, p. 288). Definitions remain fuzzy (Whitehouse, 2006; Windsor, 2006), but despite differences in the understanding of the terms they share a core assumption: that of business having extended ethical responsibilities of a social and environmental nature. Carroll (1979) attributed a first broad understanding of CSR to Bowen (1953, p. 6), who defined the responsibilities of the businessman as to "pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of their objectives and values of our society". CSR in the classic sense is associated with businesses going beyond their primary economic function of pure profit maximisation by including environmental and social responsibility, also referred to as the "triple bottom line" (Elkington, 1998). In other words, CSR can be described as a form of voluntary self-regulation that is based on social, environmental and economic dimensions, as well as stakeholder and civil society interactions (Dahlsrud, 2008; Van Marrewijk, 2003, p. 102). Basu and Palazzo (2008, p.124) define CSR as "the process by which managers within an organization think about and discuss relationships with stakeholders as well as their roles in relation to the common good, along with their behavioural disposition with respect to the fulfilment and achievement of these roles and relationships".

44

This definition of CSR was adopted for the purpose of this thesis. The assumption of actors 'voluntarily' assuming such roles is complex. Voluntary here refers to the absence of a formal rule or law. While this idea of voluntarism can be questioned, given institutional pressures (Porter & Kramer, 2006), the CSR initiatives studied in this thesis were assumed to be primarily voluntary.

The idea behind CSR is not new, but has historically diverse roots (Visser *et al.*, 2007; Carroll, 1999). Historical developments and theoretical strands within CSR have been carefully reviewed elsewhere, for example by Schwartz and Carroll (2008), who present underlying theories according to various definitions of CSR. Carroll (1999) reports an extensive literature review on the concept of CSR since the early 1950s. De Bakker *et al.* (2005) present a bibliometric analysis of CSR-related research and theory during the last 30 years. Garriga and Melé (2004, pp. 63-64) provide a review of relevant theories classified in terms of instrumental, political, integrative and ethical theories. In that paper, each theory is ascribed to certain goals, which can be useful in understanding different traits of theories related to CSR. Aguilera *et al.* (2007) suggest a framework to determine the motives, which influence CSR at the individual, organisational, national and transnational level. They distinguish between three major classes of motives, namely instrumental, relational and moral (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007). Windsor (2006) offers a critical synthesis of three competing approaches to CSR, which are categorised as ethical conception of CSR, economical conception of CSR and a corporate citizenship conception. Maon *et al.* (2010, p. 35) present a stage model of CSR development that aims to integrate management activities with organisational values and culture.

Scherer and Palazzo (2011) suggest that CSR can be divided into two main schools of thought, which they refer to as "instrumental" and "political" CSR. Given that political CSR (PCSR) is used as theoretical framework in Paper III, it is worth providing a brief outline of the main differences in the two views of CSR suggested by Scherer & Palazzo (2007; 2011). Instrumental CSR assumes a single legal context with strong command-and-control regulations, or in other words "a division of labour between business and government" (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011, p. 903). Businesses under the assumptions of one legal context can operate in their purely economic role and derive value or address liability issues through the practice of CSR. Scherer and Palazzo (2007, p. 1110) seek to drive the agenda of CSR beyond its traditional image as an instrumental tool and towards a "political process of solving societal problems often on a global scale". Therefore, PCSR, on the other hand, suggests an "extended model of governance with business firms contributing to global regulation and providing

public goods" (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011, p.901). Scherer and Palazzo's (2011) framework focuses on five key dimensions, namely: 1) Governance model; 2) regulation; 3) responsibility; 4) legitimacy; and 5) societal foundations of CSR. In brief, the governance model (1) is concerned with who should take responsibility for what, and how, under globalising conditions. The aim of corporate governance under PCSR is to re-establish political order and fill regulatory gaps through global governance initiatives such as multi-stakeholder initiatives (MSi) and different forms of collaboration (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Dimension (2) of regulation explores the role of soft versus hard law governance, in other words self-regulation where command-and-control mechanisms are absent. This raises questions of effectiveness, but also the opportunity to participate in voluntary regulation schemes to seek for example legitimacy. Responsibility (3) is based on social connectedness and Young's two-way interpretation of forward- and backward-looking responsibility (2013; 2006), which is elaborated on in the next section. Legitimacy (4) in PCSR is shifting from a cognitive or pragmatic understanding towards a moral one. Moral legitimacy is reflective and grounded in the exchange of arguments to determine whether an individual, institution or action is legitimate (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). The societal foundation of CSR (5) assumes a shift from a liberal democracy towards a Habermasian approach of a deliberative democracy. PCSR is not to be confused with corporate political activity (CPA), such as lobbying, campaign financing and coalition building, the agenda of which is primarily to use and shape government power in ways favourable for the business (Lawton *et al.*, 2013; Hillman & Hitt, 1999; Sethi, 1982). As Sethi (1982, p. 32) states, "political participation might be viewed by one group as a positive act in a democratic system, another group might construe such participation as abuse of power and an attempt to subvert democratic processes". The notion of self-regulation of businesses has been critically examined by Vogel (2008) who concludes that there is limited evidence of the effectiveness of global business regulations and in particular in regards to the notion of a more democratic business conduct. Vogel (2010; 2008) claims that self-regulation are not a substitute for state-regulation, as the may address some issues but not resolve them. It is therefore a matter of "hard and soft-law reinforcing one another" (Vogel, 2010, p. 83). PCSR aims to fill the part of the self-regulation gap from a business ethics perspective, which is undoubtedly a problematic task. Corporate political power and participation are linked to great (ethical) responsibility raising the question of how corporate power can be (legitimately) harnessed for the greater good, particularly under complex and globalising conditions. This thesis and particularly Paper III seek to contribute to this discussion.

To illustrate different degrees of engagement of CSR-related activities, for example ranging from internal company to global issues, the schematic illustration provided by McElhaney (2008, p. 23) may be useful (Figure 2). It assumes an interconnectedness to issues as well as a process perspective, where a company might start with internal or local issues and expand later through participation to act on global issues. The practice of CSR activities can be seen as reaching from instrumental CSR to PSCR thinking, depending on how a business defines its role in society and positions itself on the issue in question. In this illustration both approaches to CSR implicitly co-exist, as they might be aimed at addressing different areas and approaches to taking responsibility.
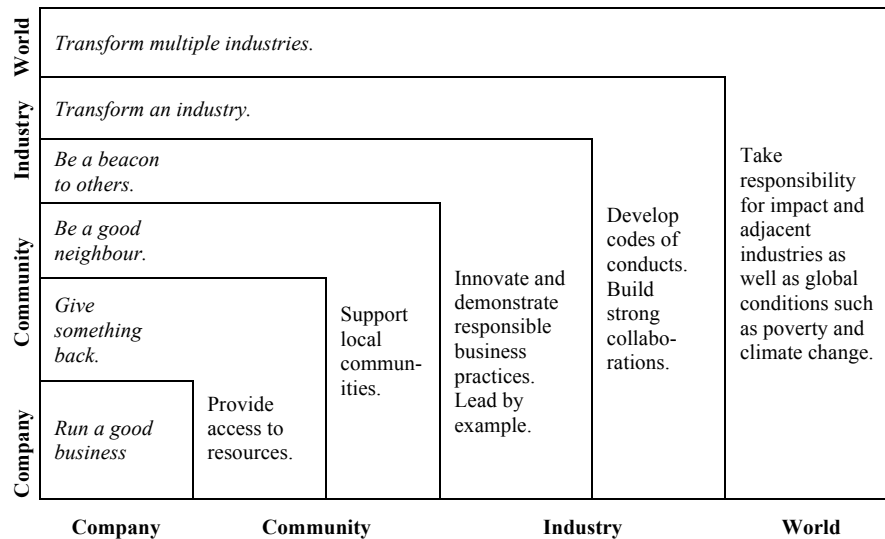

Figure 2. A Corporate Social Responsibility landscape (adapted from McElhaney, 2008, p. 23).

To conclude, it should be noted that individual CSR activities could also accumulatively lead to transformation of practices. The next section describes the notion of responsibility arising from social connection of actors, as suggested by Young (2013; 2006).

3.2 Responsibility and Social Connection

From a CSR perspective, the questions of responsibility for what and to whom are crucial. Waddock (2001) argues the need for an enlightened or "mindful" organisation and its leaders, including integrity, wisdom and a holistic view on

the inter-connectedness of things and the role of oneself in this context. Assuming a 'social connection' implies that agents, *i.e.* actors, are connected by participation in global social and economic processes. Under such conditions, all actors in a system have a responsibility to ease structural injustices and environmental issues, where actors do not have to be liable or guilty in order to be held responsible (Young, 2013; 2006). Assuming that the locus for ethical responsibilities lies with the individual, responsibility is to some degree always personal and individual choices have political influences, so every individual is part of a global approach to taking responsibility (Micheletti, 2003, p. 2). Young (2013, p. xiii) defines a responsible individual as "a person who tries to deliberate about opinions before acting, makes choices that seem to be the best for all affected, and worries about how the consequences of his or her actions may adversely affect others". Moreover, Young (2006) argues that through the structural position of actors, different opportunities and capacities arise that can contribute to structural change. These are dependent on four parameters, namely power, privilege, interest and collective ability (Table 3).

Table 3. *Four parameters of reasoning about responsibility (Young, 2013, pp. 144-147).*

Parameter	Assumption
Power	Relates to the potential or actual power that an actor holds over outcomes. Young (2013, p. 144) recommends that an organisation should focus on issues where it has more capacity to influence processes. It is about the possibility to pressure for desired outcomes.
Privilege	Refers to the fact that some actors have relative privilege compared with *e.g.* victims, which is often tied to power (Young, 2013, p. 145). Young (2013) argues that the more privilege and power an actor has, the greater their responsibility associated with this beneficial position. Another implied feature of being privileged is that a change in habits is assumed to be less effortful than for a less privileged actor.
Interest	This is associated with a level of awareness, as well as a determination to change structural processes that produce injustices. It is about aligning self-interests with those of society and victims (Young, 2013, p. 146).
Collective Ability	Refers to the possibility to engage other actors and to "draw on resources of already organized entities and use them in new ways for trying to promote change" (Young, 2013, p. 147).

According to Young (2013; 2006), the term responsibility can be interpreted in two different ways. On one hand it looks at liability and accountability for past incidents, while on the other it can be interpreted as future-orientated, with a focus on working towards easing structural injustices that arise from the existing systems, which are shared and "can be discharged only through

collective action" (Young, 2006, p. 103). Businesses and their managers are understood to hold a superordinate position in society (Table 3) and therefore play a central role in taking responsibility that is both forward- and backward-looking (Stolle & Micheletti, 2013). As mentioned above, Young's (2006) two-fold notion of responsibility is borrowed from political sciences and popularised in the CSR literature by Scherer and Palazzo (2011).

Earlier research conceptions of responsibility in CSR research (Barth & Wolff, 2009) are associated with Hart's (1968) four types of responsibility: role responsibility, causal responsibility, liability responsibility and capacity responsibility. Role responsibility suggests that "whenever a person occupies a distinctive place or office in a social organization, to which specific duties are attached to provide for the welfare of others or to advance in some specific way the aims or purposes of the organization, he is properly said to be responsible for the performance of these duties or for doing what is necessary to fulfill them" (Hart, 1968, pp. 212-213). Furthermore, Hart (1968, p. 213) states that "responsibilities in this sense may either be legal or moral, or fall outside this dichotomy". This is closely tied to Young's idea of forward-looking responsibility, where actors due to their positioning have a moral obligation to social justice and act responsibly. Liability responsibility, according to Hart (1968), *i.e.* being by law responsible for harm, is similar to Young's interpretation of backward-looking responsibility. The definition and approach to this sort of responsibility are highly dependent on the existing hard law, in other words what is punishable and how is it enforced (Hart, 1968). However, assuming that CSR is voluntary, the forward-looking approach or role responsibility is more suitable for the purposes of this ethical discussion. For completeness, it should be noted that capacity responsibility according to Hart (1968) assumes that an individual is psychologically and mentally capable of being held responsible for his actions; while causal responsibility is closely tied to liability responsibility and refers to being responsible for outcomes that were caused by that person's actions (Hart, 1968, p. 214). The difference in Young's argument lies with the assumption that actors are socially connected and therefore despite being liable or directly connected, still have responsibility as they maintain processes that lead to structural injustices (Young, 2013; 2006).

To summarise, given globalisation and the blurring roles of actors, reasoning about the role of being responsible as individuals and organisations is important, but at the same time raises the questions: How can business actors voluntarily take responsibility in contexts where a cause(s) or liability is unclear? and What is the role of collaboration in taking extended responsibilities? The next section provides an overview of variants of CSR

with the focus on businesses taking responsibility through a collaborative approach with stakeholders.

3.3   Business Collaborations

Young's (2013; 2006) notion of responsibility is closely tied to interconnectedness and collaboration with various actors that are socially connected, as "no single societal actor can work independently or in a vacuum" (Warhurst, 2005, p. 154). Collaboration in this context, as stated in the introduction, is defined as two or more actors working together towards a mutual benefit (Huxham, 1996). In this thesis the focus is on collaborations of businesses working across their organisational boundaries, primarily to drive social and environmental issues. This section starts with an introduction to stakeholder theory following Freeman (1984) and continues with a description of various forms of stakeholder engagement, ranging from partnerships to MSi, as studied in Papers I-V.

3.3.1 Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory and thinking is fundamental to CSR (Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Maon *et al*., 2010; Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Doh & Guay, 2006; Matten *et al*., 2003; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). It aims at identifying those groups and individuals that are connected to a business's environment with the intention to "broaden management's vision of its roles and responsibilities beyond the profit maximization function" (Mitchell *et al*., 1997, p. 855). Therefore the idea behind a stakeholder model is to extend the view of an organisation and its relationships with other actors besides shareholders. It is primarily a management tool that can be used for descriptive, normative or instrumental purposes (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

Even though stakeholder theory was first introduced in the 1960s, it was not until the publication of Freeman's book '*Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*' in 1984 that it found acceptance on a broader level (Preble, 2005). Freeman (1984, p. 46) defines stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objective". To date, a substantial number of definitions of stakeholder have emerged, all of which focus on slightly different aspects and importance, such as primary and secondary stakeholders, who have different expectations from a CSR approach (De Bakker *et al*., 2005; Mitchell *et al*., 1997). Examples of primary or key stakeholders include shareholders, investors, employees, customers and

50

suppliers. Secondary stakeholders can include media, interest groups, competitors, civil society and society at large, among others (Figure 3). The classification often depends on the level of direct or indirect affection by the organisation (Mitchell *et al*., 1997). Another way to look at stakeholders is to see them as internal, such as employees and shareholders, and external, such as government, suppliers, environment, media, competitors, political groups, trade associations, customers, local and global communities, and future generations (Benn & Bolton, 2011). Henriques and Sadorsky (1999, p. 89) categorise stakeholders into four main groups based on their primary roles as: organisational, regulatory, community-based and the media. These particular clusters of stakeholders were followed in Paper II. Stakeholder theory was used descriptively in order to illustrate the interconnectedness, yet categorise stakeholders in groups to facilitate comparison of their needs and wants.
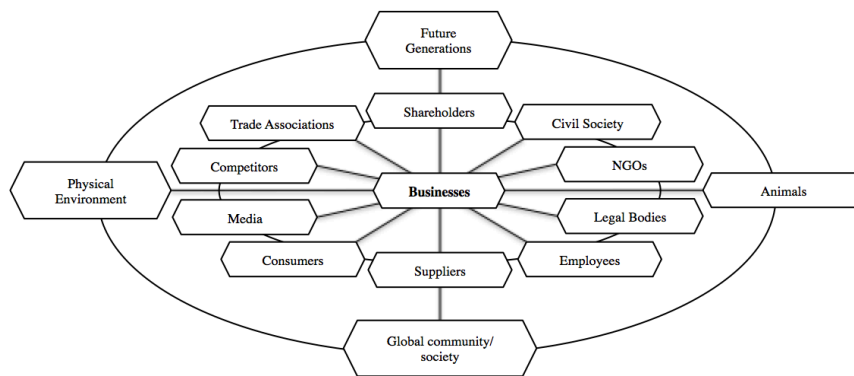

Figure 3. Illustration of a firm-centred stakeholder map (adapted from Freeman, 1984, p. 25).

Stakeholder theory can be problematic and raises many questions as regards which stakeholders should be considered and who should be addressed in what way. For example, stakeholders can be classified according to their salience, which is defined by power, urgency and legitimacy (Agle *et al*., 1999; Mitchell *et al*., 1997). Myllykangas *et al*. (2010) stress that stakeholder relationships are dynamic processes, where the focus should be on the development of value creation and not just who and what is significant at one point in time. They propose inclusion of factors such as the history of relationships, objectives of stakeholders, interaction and information sharing, as well as trust between stakeholders and the potential for stakeholder learning.

Another implicit criticism lies in the view that traditional stakeholder theory is based on a "firm-centred" approach to issues (Figure 3), where stakeholders are grouped around the business (*e.g.* Freeman, 1984). This implies that

businesses are attributed a superordinate position that endows them with power and control (*e.g.* Banerjee, 2008). Roloff (2008a) and Svendsen and Laberge (2005) advocate an "issue-focused" stakeholder approach, which is built on a network perspective where actors contribute to addressing a shared problem, particularly under globalisation. This approach is becoming increasingly popular within the field of CSR research, where there is an emphasis on the multi-actor approach of businesses, NGOs, industry, civil society *etc.* to tackle an issue collectively (*e.g.* Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; Warhurst, 2005). In this view, businesses themselves can be seen as stakeholders of the issue in question.

Even though stakeholder theory is considered a valuable tool for identifying responsibilities towards certain groups and actors, by itself it is considered not to be sufficient for managing responsibility (Jensen & Sandström, 2011; Visser *et al.*, 2007; Matten *et al.*, 2003, p. 111; Donaldson & Preston, 1995). From an academic perspective, stakeholder theory does not aim at prediction, but permits understanding, description and interpretation of real-life management practices in a more coherent way (Visser *et al.*, 2007). As regards managing stakeholder needs and responsibility, the following section describes forms of stakeholder engagement through, for example, partnerships, alliances and MSi, established with the aim of working together for a "collaborative advantage" (Huxham & Vangen, 2005, p. 2).

3.3.2 Stakeholder Engagement

Stakeholder engagement refers to the process of involving stakeholders and their needs in business operations and decisions (Sloan, 2009; Visser *et al.*, 2007). The advantages of stakeholder engagement are associated with better risk management, designing more sustainable solutions, pooling of resources, mutual learning and education, as well as trust building among the actors (Visser *et al.*, 2007, pp. 431-432). Engaging stakeholders can be approached either through dialogue and other forms of communicative action or through various formal and informal collaborations with various stakeholders. Many different forms of stakeholder engagement exist and are often referred to as stakeholder dialogue, multi-actor collaboration, business-NGO partnerships, PPPs, MSi, *etc.* One common criterion these share is that they involve at least one private actor that engages with one or many other actors to enhance processes and/or outcomes for a particular issue (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2014). Within such stakeholder engagements, the perspective and role of food retailers can alternate between a firm-centred and issue-centred approach. The three

variants of stakeholder engagement discussed in the Papers I-IV are summarised below.

Firstly, stakeholder dialogue has multiple meanings, ranging from being open to communication to creating a sense of commitment and relationship among the actors and to the co-construction of obligations and responsibilities (Burchell & Cook, 2008, pp. 36-37). Dialogues are key "for developing constructive relationships with stakeholders" (Waddock, 2001, p. 34). In this thesis, stakeholder dialogue, as described by Waddock (2001), refers to a form of engagement strategy aimed at information sharing, open and respectful communication coupled to an ongoing commitment of taking responsibility and problem solving. The key issue with stakeholder dialogue lies in the question of who is invited, as this will often determine the result. This issue of representation and inclusion has been highlighted by *e.g.* Banerjee (2008) and Vogel (2008). A stakeholder dialogue is often a first step towards establishing other forms of collaboration, or might be used to get access to certain knowledge (Table 4). Paper II followed a stakeholder dialogue initiated by Axfood as regards making a decision on how to handle the tiger shrimp issue and using these insights to develop an overall fish policy.

Secondly, partnerships among different actors, especially those that have traditionally been adversaries, have been highlighted as one way to work with global issues based on "pooling comparative advantages" (United Nations, 2010). Doh and Guay (2006, p. 51) stress "the rising influence of NGOs is one of the most significant developments in international affairs over the past 20 years". Mendelson and Polonsky (1995) argue that the willingness to enter into inter-organisational collaboration has increased for companies and for non-profit organisations, due to the fact that they realise that both parties derive benefits from these associations. In other words, collaboration is mutually more beneficial than confrontation and the complexity of problems calls for collaboration (Hartman *et al.*, 1999), in order to address issues that arise on a local and global level (Warhurst, 2005; Hartman *et al.*, 1999). Partnerships, like other forms of collaboration, are built on the idea of joining forces and resources, as all organisations have some strengths but not the strength required to do everything (MacDonald & Chrisp, 2005; Mendelson & Polonsky, 1995). Conditions for a collaborative window are determined by organisational strategies, motives to collaborate, perceived risks and challenges, as well as contextual factors, which formed the research aim of Paper I. At the time of the empirical study, Paper I looked at PPP, which can be defined as "a voluntary or collaborative alliance which implies cooperation between two (or more) actors be it public, private, non-governmental organizations (NGOs)" (United Nations Development Program, 2006, p. 12).

According to Ruuska and Teigland (2009, p. 323), PPP are project-based initiatives involving often geographically dispersed public and private actors that aim to create products or services where risks, costs and benefits are mutually shared. In our case, the partnerships were between the food retailers (Axfood, ICA, Coop) and the local branch of national and international NGOs (WWF, Save the Children, SSNC). Paper I explored the motivations and challenges of forming a partnership of two dissimilar actors, for-profit and non-profit organisations (PPP), in order to work towards improving social and environmental issues in the context of Swedish food retail. PPP are a particular type of partnership, but can be very similar in the process and outcome to other forms of stakeholder engagement, such as MSi.

Thirdly, definitions of MSi vary, but a common feature is that they are understood as "networks in which actors from civil society, business and governmental institutions come together in order to find a common approach to an issue that affects them all" (Roloff, 2008b, p. 238). Therefore the essence of MSi is the involvement of multiple individuals and groups from private and public sectors that all have a stake or interest in a specific issue. Just like global partnerships, such collaborations are often seen as a remedy for complex problems that businesses, governments and societies face, both locally and globally (Sharma, 2007). MSi are built on a network-based structure with an issue-focused approach (Roloff, 2008a). In a multi-stakeholder context the central actors aim to solve issues and dilemmas in a non-hierarchical way through deliberation (Roloff, 2008a). Deliberation here refers to a *communicative* inclusion of multiple perspectives, through *e.g.* an extended stakeholder dialogue (Roloff, 2008b). MSi have to be seen as processes (Hemmati, 2002) with diverse aims, ranging from dialogues to designing and monitoring standards (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). Irrespective of the goal, the overall aim is to bring several voices into decision making (Utting, 2002) and balance power asymmetries between different interest groups (Scherer & Palazzo, 2011). MSi in context of PCSR are discussed in Paper III. Paper IV assumed social connectedness, implying a number of collaborative initiatives that range from dialogues to formal collaborations with actors on different levels.

The notion of (multi-stakeholder) dialogue and collaboration is not un-criticised (Banerjee, 2008; Vogel, 2008), but it has been proposed as one way forward to create sustainable development solutions for addressing global issues collectively (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2014; Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; Sloan, 2009; Roloff, 2008a; Warhurst, 2005; Bohm, 2004; Calton & Payne, 2003; Young, 2000). All three forms of stakeholder engagement aim to achieve CSR objectives. One way to organise these forms of business collaborations is by

focusing on the process or outcome sought through stakeholder engagement. However, it should be noted that both process and outcome can co-exist, hence they are not opposing. They can be viewed rather as the initial intent for forming a collaboration, where processes and outcomes may overlap or transform during the collaboration.

Table 4 presents a provisional description of the process- and/or outcome-orientated perspective adopted from Nidumolu *et al*. (2014), depending on the forms of collaboration studied in this thesis. Table 4 is inspired and supported by McElhaney's (2008) illustration of the CSR landscape presented in Figure 2. It presents different forms of stakeholder engagement discussed in this chapter, based on the number of actors and the type of collaboration. It suggests that by working with multiple actors, the process and outcome can have more far-reaching effects than by working with single actors. However it might not always be suitable to engage in a MSi in order to take responsibility. In other words, the form of stakeholder engagement as well as intended goal is likely to be dependent on the issue in question.

Table 4. *Process- and outcome-orientated stakeholder engagement (adapted from Nidumolu et. al., 2014, p. 79).*

Form of Stakeholder Engagement	Process	Outcome
Stakeholder dialogue	Stakeholders are invited to share knowledge and interest. Aim is to build relationships.	Stakeholders take part in defining conditions for corporate conduct
Business-NGO partnership	Stakeholders work towards better processes, *e.g.* labour conditions in foreign countries	Stakeholders work together to raise awareness and share resources
Multi-stakeholder initiative	Stakeholders identify and share new processes that reduce consumption, protect the environment or reduce poverty. Innovation-focused	Stakeholders collaborate to define desired global outcomes or standards that influence the industry and global communities

This theoretical chapter intended to provide a wider context and overview of existing CSR literature and developments in the field. It discussed the notion of responsibility under social connection, as suggested by Young (2013; 2006). Furthermore, stakeholder theory and engagement were described from a CSR perspective. The following Chapter 4 presents and discusses the results of Papers I-V.

4 Results and Conclusions

This final chapter summarises the main findings of Papers I-IV and provides a brief outline of the intended learning outcome of the Harvard-style teaching case (Paper V). The focus in the summaries is on the role of business collaborations for taking responsibility in connection with CSR issues. This is followed by a discussion of how responsibility is expressed through CSR in Swedish food retail as identified in the research. Chapter 4 concludes with some final remarks and by outlining some suggestions for future research.

4.1 Overview and Summaries of the Empirical Studies

This first part of this chapter presents the findings of the four empirical and context-bound case studies, which focus on how food retailers express extended responsibilities (Table 5). A common theme in Papers I-IV is collaborations with various actors in addressing different CSR issues. Paper I specifically looks at the motivations and challenges for collaboration to establish partnerships with non-profit organisations. Paper II explores the use of a stakeholder dialogue for decision-making in the case of the tiger shrimp dilemma. Paper III investigates the process of collaboration and dialogue from a political CSR perspective. Paper IV explores the role and responsibility of Swedish food retailers in enabling a context for healthy food choices that affects a number of stakeholders. The following summaries concentrate on factors that contributed to the emerging picture of this thesis, hence particularly the role of taking responsibility through collaborations from a business ethics perspective. The summary of Paper V highlights the intended student learning outcome with regard to stakeholder theory and engagement.

4.1.1 Paper I

Since stakeholder theory and engagement is key to CSR, the aim of Paper I was to understand the motives and challenges to collaboration between business and non-profit or public actor(s). Private-public partnerships were seen as a constructive way to take responsibility towards society from the food retailers' perspective. A qualitative case study approach was used to analyse business-NGO partnerships between Swedish food retailers and local NGO branches. More specifically, it examined existing partnerships between the Swedish food retailers ICA, Axfood and Coop and the NGOs Save the Children, WWF and SSNC. The results suggest that these formal collaborations focus on consumer engagement, education, philanthropy and donations, mostly within the community. From a business perspective, the perceived motives for collaborating relate to access to knowledge and creating a mechanism for consumers to contribute towards driving issues of sustainability. The challenges to partnerships are associated with ensuring mutual benefits from the collaboration, as well as risks of a negative image by being associated with actors and their operations, *e.g.* in the event of a scandal. 'Successful' partnerships are dependent on clarified roles, formal objectives, monitoring outcomes and soft values such as trust. As regards challenges, the responses indicated that businesses assume a hierarchical position over the NGOs, as the businesses hold more power over resources. Furthermore, the stated need for exclusivity was problematised from a business perspective.

Paper I contributes to the debate on collaborations to promote sustainable development and take responsibility collaboratively. With a change in the trade environment and a redistribution of roles and responsibility in society, the question of who is responsible and for what arises. Roles are unclear, which creates confusion and difficulties in forming and performing in collaborations. The collaborations studied can be seen as rather weak in respect to their network ties and contractual base. 'Weak' refers here to partnerships being outcome-orientated and dissolvable at any time. This implies a firm-centred approach to stakeholder engagement. Taking responsibility in this case is approached by creating a relationship with an 'adversary' actor with the aim of creating value for stakeholders by driving social and environmental issues. In Young's (2013; 2006) terms, the responsibility is forward-looking, aiming at changing current conditions without direct liability linked to the food retailers' operations. In theory, forming partnerships with *e.g.* NGOs is one way to address complex challenges, where businesses utilise their powerful position, sense of responsibility and collective ability to change and respond to contemporary issues. The CSR efforts studied might not directly aim at solving

a complex problem, but the collaborative efforts can still affect an issue by supporting a cause(s) and enabling stakeholder engagement through creating a mechanism for consumers in the form of donations, educational labelling and increased access to information. This approach to stakeholder engagement can be seen as outcome-oriented (Table 4).

4.1.2 Paper II

Paper II introduced the 'tiger shrimp dilemma' from a Swedish food retail perspective and focused on the second largest food retailer in Sweden, namely Axfood. Tiger shrimp is a food product demanded by consumers globally, but is associated with a number of controversial social and environmental impacts at the time of sourcing. The WWF offers sustainable consumption guidelines in the form of colour-coded lists where tiger shrimp is red-listed and therefore not recommended for consumption. The tiger shrimp case has gained significant media attention within Sweden, creating pressure on food retailers to act. One question that emerged in this context was: What is the food retailer's role in responding to this issue and how do they make sense of their CSR decisions? Paper II was based on a single case study design, where we followed a stakeholder theory approach coupled with Basu and Palazzo's (2008) sense-making framework in order to describe how a food retailer incorporates external realities and pressures into its business conduct from a CSR perspective. The particular case of tiger shrimp served for the development of an overall sustainable fish policy for Axfood.

Following an extended stakeholder dialogue and on the recommendation of an NGO (WWF), Axfood has stopped selling tiger shrimp across its stores. This case provides an interesting setting, as Axfood relied on an NGO as a partner for a 'shared vision'. This is not a particularly formal partnership, as described in Paper I, but Axfood still turned to a non-profit organisation to access knowledge and consumer guidance. Based on Paper I, it can be argued that Axfood made a greater informal commitment as it communicated its position based on WWF recommendations, and was therefore dependent on WWF expertise and reputation. By relying on WWF recommendations, we argue that Axfood incorporated the agenda of an activist identity as a response to external pressures and in order to take responsibility for itself and its consumers. This informal collaboration aimed foremost at creating a fish policy, hence this can be seen as outcome-orientated where the issue is in focus.

The findings suggest that due to the sense-making of Axfood, the decision to ban tiger shrimp from stores was in line with its overall CSR character, of

wanting to act as an agent for change. Through this, the food retailer harnessed its role responsibility (Hart, 1968) and power to make a decision for their consumers and society in the larger sense that aimed to ease problems and injustices indirectly linked to the food retailer's operations (Young, 2013; 2006). Responsibility in this case can be viewed as forward-looking, as liability and the cause of the dilemma are unclear and tied to other complex problems. A multi-stakeholder dialogue offers a useful approach in creating a decision based on democratic values, such as transparency and participation.

Paper II emphasises the interconnectedness of stakeholders, where the solution does not lie with one actor alone. One issue that was raised is that of diverse agendas of actors, which seemed to hinder the process of finding overall sustainable solutions. Given that the tiger shrimp matter is treated competitively among the Swedish food retailers, meaning each retailer follows an independent approach, it is debatable what the impact of one retailer's action in terms of the "greater" good actually is. Furthermore, the question of choice editing of products arises.

4.1.3 Paper III

Following Scherer and Palazzo (2011), Paper III takes a PCSR perspective on the issue of tiger shrimp and conflict minerals, which are both contemporary and complex issues associated with a controversial social and environmental impact at the time of sourcing. The paper explores the role of businesses (food retailer and electronics companies) in a globalised context and describes how they harness their political influence to address collaboratively issues located in the supply chain, yet outside their direct control. The paper offers insights into the relationship between business and society and how businesses deal with external pressure through political processes. There is evidence that businesses are taking extended responsibility through political processes in form of collaboration with other actors, such as representatives of civil society organisations, international organisations and governments, among others. Business collaborations here are communicative in nature, by building on extended dialogue with diverse actors and working towards filling moral and regulatory gaps. Collaborations aim at creating guidelines on how to practical treat the tiger shrimp case and related aquaculture production, as well as how to tackle the complex issue of conflict minerals. In Paper III we observed that the form of governance in such collaborations shifted from a hierarchical approach (as in Paper I), with business promoting its terms towards a more heterarchical, *i.e.* network-based, collaboration in order to tackle an issue. Businesses here become co-authors of voluntary, soft-law governance, yet the

approaches to collaborations in the two cases presented in Paper III differ. While industry members are working actively together in the conflict mineral case, in the tiger shrimp case each Swedish food retailer is working independently. Furthermore, Axfood does not actively engage in the collaborative initiative but indirectly support the WWF's strategy by following the recommended temporary ban on sale of tiger shrimp. Axfood therefore exhibits collaborative behaviour without formal collaboration that aims to contribute to tackle the large issue. In both cases, businesses do not dictate the terms of collaboration, but are one part of it; hence these collaborations can be argued to be issue-focused.

Stakeholder engagement in the tiger shrimp case can be seen as outcome-orientated (Table 4) in the short run, yet also supporting the process of driving sustainable consumption and finding sustainable fishing solutions. Responsibility in this case is forward-looking (Young, 2013; 2006). In the conflict mineral case, responsibility is also forward-looking with a clear emphasis on processes within the collaboration. The companies studied accept that through their structural position, they are expected to act responsibly. Even though issues of legitimacy persist, it seems that businesses are taking on political responsibilities through different collaborative forms that aim to work towards sustainable solutions under globalisation.

4.1.4 Paper IV

Paper IV examined the role of food retailers when it comes to complex public health issues tied to a local context. Food retailers enjoy a gate-keeping position in the value chain, where food retailers with their sense of corporate responsibility and powerful position can play a distinctive role in working with public health issues. For example, food retailers can act as an intermediary for different actors, such as policy makers, non-profit organisations and researchers, by educating and directing consumer choices. More importantly, food retailers can choose how and what to offer to consumers through their category management. Food retailers can therefore be seen as partly liable for their conduct and the products they offer (Schrempf, 2014). The aim of Paper IV was to examine empirically how food retailers take responsibility when it comes to public health assuming a context of social connection. The analysis was based on an exploratory case study of the three major Swedish food retailers.

The findings indicate that the case retailers are approaching health issues from three areas: category management, marketing and education, and diverse stakeholder engagements. Stakeholder engagements contain both firm-centred

and issue-focused approaches, where the food retailer mostly chooses the type of collaborations. Formal and informal collaborations focus on processes, *e.g.* increasing sports awareness and supporting health research, as well as outcomes such as more playful packaging and labelling of healthy foods to encourage their consumption. Responsibility here is forward-looking (Young, 2013; 2006) from the retailers' perspective (yet might also be argued to be partly backward looking).

Findings suggest that consumers continue to indulge in 'unhealthy' behaviour despite food retailers' efforts to provide a context where health-conscious choices can be made. This raises questions of how taking responsibility can be synchronised, so that the outcome itself is responsible for society at large. Assuming social connectedness, all actors have to take relative responsibility. From a prescriptive view, it seems that consumers and media need are not sufficiently included in the discourse. The paper suggests to work towards an approach of "collective responsibility'taking" by viewing responsibility as shared outcome and common goal and consequently include various actors more actively in the debate and processes in order to enable an overall sustainable development.

Table 5. *Comparison of research approaches and findings from Papers I-IV.*

	Paper I	Paper II	Paper III	Paper IV
Contextual assumptions	Finite planet and resources, complex dilemmas, globalisation, rethinking the role of business in society, forward- and backward-looking responsibility, collaborative approach			
Research setting	Food retailer as link between producer and consumer, service provider, competitive industry, food as basic human need, complex value chains, resource-intensive industry (labour, land, water)			
	Sweden – Western country, developed economy, favourable institutional conditions for CSR, three main food retailers; ICA, Axfood & Coop			
Topic (issue)	Various	Tiger shrimp	Tiger shrimp & conflict minerals	Public health & food
Research design	Organisations in context	Organisation in context	Organisations in context	Organisations in context
	Meso-level	Meso-level	Meso-level	Meso-level
	Descriptive	Descriptive	Descriptive	Exploratory
	Multiple case study	Single case study	Multiple case study	Multiple case study
Variants of theoretical framework	Partnerships (stakeholder theory)	Stakeholder theory and sense-making	Political corporate social responsibility	Social Connection Responsibility

Table 5. *Continued.*

	Paper I	Paper II	Paper III	Paper IV
Main findings	Business-NGO partnerships foremost outcome-orientated, raising consumer awareness and engagement	Multi-stakeholder dialogue for grounds of seeking a legitimate strategy. Foremost outcome-orientated	Multi-stakeholder initiatives, deliberation, civil society for an outcome and process-orientated goal	Stakeholder dialogues and collaboration with outcome and process orientations
	Firm-centred	Issue-focused	Issue-focused	Firm-centred & issue-focused
	Forward-looking responsibility			

4.1.5 Paper V

Paper V, a Harvard-style teaching case, is intended to serve as a real-life example for case-based undergraduate teaching in marketing, management or applied ethics. This research-informed teaching case is based on Linda, the main character, who has to present a decision to the management board of Axfood on how to handle the tiger shrimp dilemma. This case poses a complex dilemma with social and environmental implications for a wide range of stakeholders locally and globally. Social media is proposed as a tool for increasing conditions for "everyday democracy" (Deetz, 1992).

The case aims at three learning outcomes: 1) Increasing awareness and approaches to reflecting on and tackling ethical issues from a business perspective; 2) developing an understanding and application of stakeholder theory and management by encouraging a more generous definition of who is a stakeholder and how different interests can be taken into account; and 3) raising a general debate on the role of business in society given social connectedness where decisions can affect a multitude of stakeholders. To guide the student's individual thoughts and in-class discussions, suggested questions could focus on: What are the challenges and benefits of the tiger shrimp trade? What is the role of the two key characters in the case? Who are the stakeholders? Should the product be stocked or not? Arguments for and against this decision? What are the grounds for making a category management decision based on stakeholder theory? What principles, consequences, personal preferences and values, could guide the decision? What is the link between business and society? and What recommendation(s) could Linda present to the Board of Directors?

It is often assumed that business decisions are made based primarily on strategic financial arguments. The case prompts students to re-examine stakeholder theory and the underlying question *"What's a business for?"* (Handy, 2002) in terms of creating value for a wide range of stakeholders. In the original case study (Paper II), the CSR manager, with the support of the organisation took an ethical stand and compromised short-term profits in order to assume responsibility in line with their corporate sense-making (see Basu & Palazzo, 2008).

4.2 Discussion and Concluding Remarks

This section discusses the findings from Papers I-IV (V) and the role of responsibility and collaboration identified in this research. Concluding remarks follow this brief discussion.

4.2.1 Collaboration and Responsibility in Swedish Food Retail

Sweden is a democratic welfare state, characterised by a high standard of living, a 'socialist' culture and strong control-and-command mechanisms. Even though Sweden is a relatively small country in terms of population, it has power in Western trade, where practices have a global reach. Sweden and Swedish citizens are linked to issues arising in the global context, as they are socially connected to various complex problems. This thesis examined Swedish food retailers' approaches for voluntarily taking responsibility for social, environmental and political issues, and the role of collaborations with other actors in this context.

From a Swedish food retail perspective, taking responsibility seems to be a complex issue and it remains unclear what it actually means to be or act responsibly. Each approach to stakeholder engagement follows a different pattern or strategy, where the collaborations on various CSR issues are approached from a firm-centred and issue-focused approach. This seems to be depending on the nature of the issue in question. Given that as a global community we face a number of diverse problems that are constantly changing, it is difficult to single out one impact and its ethical influence. With social connectedness, all practices can have an impact and lead to transformation, individual and accumulative the same way all actors have responsibility. All empirical studies examined forward-looking responsibility in the sense that Swedish food retailers aim at improving conditions for various stakeholders to which they are socially connected. It is therefore a voluntary responsibility, which is addressed through various forms of collaborations from a CSR

perspective. The various cases studied provide a diversified view of collaboration in the case of CSR in Swedish food retail.

The findings suggest that through collaborations, food retailers take responsibility in the form of outcome and process orientation. Collaboration can thus be seen as a tool for taking responsibility, although through the process of collaboration, responsibility can also be understood as a shared outcome. Responsibility as a shared outcome is dependent on the engagement of each actor in a system given that they have related roles. Food retailers can be seen as creating a space where consumers can get information and access to options to engage in CSR or ethical/social/environmental causes. Through the CSR efforts of Swedish food retailers, consumers are invited to support certain social and environmental causes. The empirical studies pointed to that consumers are often taken for granted and presented with solutions formulated within stakeholder dialogues and collaboration. Assumptions about what consumers want and need, as well as how and why consumers (should) act seem to be disconnected from the CSR initiatives and stakeholder engagement. In an ideal case consumers and businesses would work collectively and in harmony to drive structural change.

Taking responsibility is therefore best regarded as a process and shared objective between various actors, not an attribute of a single actor. By integrating different CSR practices, food retailers can take on responsibility for their own business conduct and value chain-related issues. Food retails are already gradually extending their role from being a service provider of food to being a provider of educational efforts and a participant in various forms of collaboration intended to tackle social and environmental issues outside the organisation's boundaries. These potentially contradictory roles of being a business while at the same time as functioning as 'facilitator' (by engaging in dialogues, partnerships and MSi, which in turn result in tangible outcomes such as education and labelling efforts, as well as category adjustments), can be problematic and require further investigation. The role of food retailers and CSR is arguably (increasingly) political and collaborative in nature, where long-term implications remain to be seen.

4.2.2 Concluding Remarks

Stakeholder engagement and collaboration are important mechanisms when it comes to taking responsibility for ethical issues, given that any action or non-action often affects a range of stakeholders and society at large. Through different collaborations, different issues can be addressed, ranging from local to global and system issues. The idea of collaboration is nothing new, but may

need to be repackaged and enriched in order to work towards sustainable business in future. Both forms of local and global engagement seem to have their purpose. The contemporary idea of a multi-actor collaboration aims to increase awareness, dialogue and participation, which are conditions for a democratic society. Such initiatives aim at addressing global problems we share as a global society. Yet, local initiatives by working with an NGO can also be a way to work towards a more sustainable society. Driving local issues for a global change can also be an important process for gradual change.

The reasons for engagement in collaboration initiatives from a business perspective may be explained by Young's (2013; 2006) four reasons for taking responsibility (power, interest, collective ability, privilege). However, these do not always explain or emphasise sufficiently the partners with whom businesses should collaborate and how, in order to ease structural injustice and other complex environmental problems. From a process perspective, change is happening gradually and all actors can contribute to change that will in turn affect all actors. The critical question of who is (continuously) invited to voice their concerns persists. Returning to the introduction, given that responsibility lies with the individual, the vast mass of individuals playing the role of consumer cannot be ignored while at the same time the question of how people can be motivated to do the 'responsible thing' arises. It seems that this calls for an extension of CSR thinking. CSR aims to re-introduce morals in business conduct, but perhaps it is time to introduce morality back into consumption patterns?

People need food, where food sustainability is dependent on finding long-term approaches to sustainable food production methods, product development, consumption patterns and waste management among others. It therefore requires a collaboration of diverse actors working together, formally and informally, towards the common goal of an overall sustainable development that respects the "planetary boundaries" (Rockström *et al.*, 2009). This thesis did not aim to present strategies or solutions, but stressed the importance of taking responsibility as a shared and long-term objective with a focus on food retailers as one actor in the food system. Food is not just a global business but also a growing one, as it is a basic human need tied to a continuing global human population growth. This calls for immediate action to continue working towards finding sustainable solutions. Commoner (1971, p. 299) points out "a basic lesson from nature: that nothing can survive on the planet unless it is a cooperative part of a larger, global whole". This suggests a need for an on-going interaction between the market, citizens and the law in order to share responsibility for problems that arise on a daily basis as well as the structural and more complex problems we face as a global community.

4.3   Contribution to CSR Research

This thesis provides new knowledge about CSR by describing empirically how businesses – food retailers in this case – address their extended responsibility through different forms of collaboration. By not choosing a classical marketing perspective on researching CSR, as is often done in the search for a 'business case', or estimating the impact of CSR in any other way, my intention was to contribute to the debate on the role of business in society by framing CSR beyond economic value, in a societal perspective. In other words, the work was based on the assumption that CSR is necessary for businesses, rather than profitable. This approach to CSR helped reframe the issue and opened the debate on whether we should study CSR as a practice by focusing on issues of legitimacy and ethics rather than resources.

Furthermore, this thesis provided novel empirical knowledge about consumption-related practices, a hitherto poorly explored research field (Hartmann, 2011). Given that food is a basic human need, food-related research provides interesting insights for studying morality and ethics that hopefully is of relevance for a large number of stakeholders. Food production and consumption are tied to several sustainability issues facing the global community. Using the case of Swedish food retail CSR activities in this thesis, the role of food retailers embedded in the food system is stressed, where this thesis contributes to the debate of responsible corporate governance where boundaries and roles are fuzzy and in transition. In this sense it contributes particularly to the literature on CSR that regards the increasingly "political role of businesses" (see Scherer & Palazzo, 2011; 2007) in society through social connectedness and globalisation. Businesses are increasingly being held responsible and accountable for issues that are directly and indirectly linked to their operations. Collaborations are seen as a means of taking responsibility.

The main theoretical contribution of the thesis lies in unpacking the dynamic nature of taking responsibility. On one hand, businesses in contemporary society need to be proactive and participate within collaborations to act responsibly by engaging with other actors and opening the way for democratic decision-making processes and tackling complex problems. However, taking responsibility does not stop there, since responsibility can be seen as a shared outcome. Taking responsibility seems to require a process view tied to some form of 'synchronisation' between those actively representing groups in collaborations and those having to participate in order to enable change. Responsibility from a business and an individual perspective is a matter of daily interactions, where (social) change in a democratic society

does not (just) lie with the handful of representatives participating in collaborations, but tied to the actions of a large mass of single actors.

To summarise the key findings, this thesis shows that:

1) Various actors can influence businesses to act responsibly, despite having direct liability. Businesses seem willing to take responsibility with a forward-looking approach.

2) The role of businesses in collaborations can be firm-centred or issue-focused, with both forms being found in the empirical case studies.

3) There is currently a perception of consumers as a *passive recipient* of CSR initiatives, rather than an *active partner* in collaborations.

4.4   Contribution to CSR Practice

This thesis illustrated how business collaborations opt to work with CSR issues. CSR remains a sensitive practice; a holistic and versatile approach to managing businesses' responsibility in a social context full of dilemmas. In my view, the strength of CSR lies in its ability to vary and adapt in a versatile way to all businesses and conditions. One challenge for businesses persists in aiming to find ways to integrate CSR activities more coherently, so that what is said matches the actions across the entire organisation. Being a responsible food retailer also means selling responsible products, besides driving and working with stakeholder engagement. Responsible corporate conduct has to be reflective and reflected in the daily operations and overall mission statement of a business, where areas of responsibilities are constantly changing.

The idea of measuring the effectiveness of CSR is flawed and risky. Therefore, I would agree with other scholars that CSR is best understood from a management view as a way of running an organisation, which requires a long-term process perspective tied to ethical positioning. CSR thinking in this sense is ideally about how businesses are embedded in society by being aware of both their forward- and backward-looking responsibility. Businesses such as food retailers hold a crucial role as a service provider that endows them with a great responsibility to play their part in taking responsibility for local and global issues to which they are socially connected. They are arguably more agile and exposed and therefore expected to be responsive to issues. Enforcing ethical values and finding sustainable solutions through collaborations with other actors can be an influential driver for social change and the viability of the business. Risks are primarily associated with misuse of corporate power and questions of representation, which need to be balanced out. Challenges to collaboration lie in finding a mutual interest in a common goal and synchronising taking responsibility by various actors that might not be part of

the collaboration, but need to be included in order to create a responsible outcome. This is where the role of the media and corporate communication can be vital.

4.5 Suggestion for Future Research

In order to further the debate on collaboration towards a more sustainable society in this context, there are two areas of research that in my view are valuable in understanding how different actors can increase their collaborative window for driving overall sustainable development. The first concerns exploring (power) issues of multi-actor collaborations in general, while the second concerns continued research into active consumer engagement.

Multi-actor collaborations for driving sustainable development seem to continue to be of academic interest, but little is known about the process of joining and co-creating rules of governance in practice. Critical issues of power and trust have been cited previously and are mainly ignored in this thesis. For example, from an institutional theory perspective, one could investigate the underlying dynamics of collaborations, ideally with a longitudinal approach. Why do actors join such initiatives, how are they affected by the process and how do these multi-actor collaborations work in practice? What is the role of power and how is it managed in such initiatives?

Future research on consumer engagement could be directed at identifying the internal narratives that businesses construct for their role and responsibility and that of the 'responsible' consumer. In other words, how do businesses make sense of their CSR activities in the first place? How do businesses construct their notion of a responsible consumer? I believe that by studying internal processes, we could learn more about the interests, motives and assumptions of businesses as reflected in their operationalisation and communication of CSR strategies. This can generate important insights into how the consumer as a major economic and political actor can be more actively engaged or whether this is actually a reasonable objective. Thus future research within FMCG could attempt to combine the role of choice-mechanisms, *e.g.* such as 'buycotts' and 'boycotts' tied to CSR practices. More specifically, this would involve exploring the link between political consumerism from political sciences (see *e.g.* Stolle & Micheletti, 2013) and political CSR (see *e.g.* Scherer & Palazzo, 2011) from a multidisciplinary approach in order to investigate how to create conditions for direct participation for a wide number of individuals through in their daily consumption choices.

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72

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Please accept my apologies if you are not mentioned by name. I am heavily indebted to all you of and I am very grateful for your love, friendship and support. Thank you!

And as for what happens next, I am excited to find out if those other things people say about finishing a PhD are also true.

Julia Rotter
Stockholm, October 2014.

Appendix 1: Interview Guides

1. Paper I

Dear X,

We found your contact details on the homepage of your organization and we hope that you are the right person to contact. If not, we would be very grateful if you could forward this email to the responsible person. The reason why we contact you is to ask for your valuable input concerning our master thesis. The thesis, which is for the master program "Environmental Economics and Management" at the Swedish University for Agricultural Sciences (SLU), is on the subject "Private-Public Partnerships" (PPP). PPP means partnerships of private (e.g. businesses such as food retailers) and public actors (e.g. non-governmental, international organizations, governmental actors, etc.).

We saw that your organization is collaborating with a wide range of other organizations and we would like to learn more about the business perspective on such PPP. It seems that diverse partnership are gaining more importance for businesses to work with other organizations for various reasons. We are therefore interested to learn about the challenges and motivations for your organization to collaborate with public organizations? For example, how do you select your partners? How do you deal with such collaboration from a managerial perspective? Have you noticed changes in the perceived image of your organization that are positively or negatively affected by collaborating with one or another organization?

Thus, we would very much appreciate it if we could arrange a personal interview with you. The interview will take approximately 30-40 minutes.

However, we can adjust the time and all conditions according to your availability.

We're looking forward to hearing from you. Thank you very much in advance for your kind support. Best Regards, Signature.

<u>Interview guide with leading interview questions:</u>

Initial and core questions
- What is your role in the organization?
- When did your organization first start to work with private-public partnerships (PPP) (e.g. collaboration with non-governmental organizations, NGOs)?
- What are the reasons why your organization collaborates with for example NGOs?
- What are the challenges that your organization considers in such partnerships?
- Who are your currently having partnerships with?
- Why has your organization decided to have partnerships with those organizations (e.g. organization names that the company collaborates)?
- If any, what are the selection criteria that your organization considers about partnering with NGOs?
- How do these partnerships fit into your organizational strategy (e.g. Sustainable Business Strategy, Corporate Social Responsibility)?
- With the private-public partnerships, which stakeholders does your organization aim to reach?
- How does your organization communicate these partnerships to your stakeholders?

How do partnerships work in practice?
- We have seen in your CSR report that your organization has already been working with a number of e.g. NGOs. How are the partnerships managed and at what level?
- How is this process organized internally? Which departments/persons within your organization are responsible for the PPP?
- Is the management of such partnerships centralized to the head office or are they managed regionally?
- Do the partner organizations equally participate in decision-making regarding the strategy and/or issue?

84

Success factors & future
- Has your organization measured or monitored the accomplishments of its partnerships? (for example what objectives have been accomplished so far, did you have any negative experiences?)
- Do you think that private-public partnerships affect the image of your organization? If yes in which ways?
- How important were these factors (public and consumer demand, need for credibility and legitimization, need for external challenge, exchange of thinking like "knowhow" from NGOs), improvement of image, stakeholder engagement, need for resource efficiency and competitive advantage) Where there any other factors?
- Where are you heading in a time perspective of ten years in regards to such partnerships? Do you think they will be become more or less important?

2. Paper II & III (translated from Swedish)

Dear X,

I am very grateful that you have shown interest in participating in this research. As mentioned in our initial contact, your organization emerged in relation to the tiger shrimp topic and I therefore would like to conduct an interview with you. The aim is to describe different perspectives and factors affecting the trade of a controversial product, such as tiger shrimp in the Swedish context. Tiger shrimp have been selected for illustration purposes, as it is a widely and topical debated product.

Although your views on the issue to some extent is known, the aim of this interview is to get a more comprehensive understanding on the different views and position of different actors. The interview will take approximately one hour and is preferably carried out in a personal meeting and place that suits you. An interview guide with the core themes and suggested questions will be sent out in advance. Core issues that will be addressed during the interview are related to the main problems you associate with the product as well as which actors you think have a prominent role and how you think the future sale and consumption of tropical shrimp will develop. I wish to record the interview as to be able to focus on our dialogue. Afterwards, a transcript of the interview will be provided which allows you for the inclusion of details as well as any corrections.

If you have any questions about the study or the interview guide, please feel free to contact me by phone or email. Sincerely, Signature.

<u>Leading interview questions:</u>

- What role do you have in your organization?
- Which actors do you think affect the trade and consumption of tiger shrimp?
- What role does your organization have in regards to the tiger shrimp?
- What other actors do you think are you influencing in this case?
- By which actors do you feel you are influenced by in this case?
- What factors influence your decision to stop the sale of tiger shrimp?
- In the debate on tiger shrimp, what do you see as the central problem?
- Do you see any opportunity to develop a standard for the cultivation of tiger shrimp?
- What is your "future vision" of tiger shrimp?

3. Paper III (Conflict Mineral Case)

<u>Interview guide with leading interview questions:</u>

1. Corporate Social Responsibility
- What does 'Corporate Social Responsibility' (CSR) mean for your organization?
- What are the key reasons of why your organization addresses CSR/sustainability issues in its global supply chain?
- What are the key challenges when addressing CSR/sustainability issues in your organization's global supply chain?

2. The 'conflict minerals' problem
- How is the challenge of 'conflict minerals' seen by your organization?
- What have been the key challenges in relation to that topic from your organization's point of view?
- How do you envision the ideal solution for the problem?

3. Motivations for collaborations
- When did your organization first start to work with (industry wide and multi-stakeholder) collaborations when addressing CSR/supply chain sustainability issues? And, when related to conflict minerals topic?

- What are the key motivational factors for entering (industry wide and multi-stakeholder) collaborations in CSR/supply chain sustainability issues? And, what are the motivations in relation to the conflict minerals topic?

4. Multi-stakeholder collaboration in practice
- How does multi-stakeholder collaboration in CSR/supply chain sustainability issues happen in practice?
- What is the role of dialogue in these collaborations?

5. Challenges of multi-stakeholder collaboration and dialogue
- What are the challenges when engaging in collaboration and dialogue with multiple stakeholders? And, how could they be overcome?

6. The Public-Private Alliance for Responsible Minerals Trade (PPA)
- What are the key reasons of why your organization is a participant of the PPA? Are any of the following factors important? And, are there any additional factors?
- Problem cannot be solved alone and at least industry wide collaboration is needed
- Holistic solution needed from many layers (private business,
- Civil society and governmental organizations)
- Generating innovative solutions that no single member of the collaboration could realize alone
- Earlier criticism from NGOs, customers and/or media and therefore now addressing brand reputation
- Safeguarding future supply of raw materials/operational efficiency
- Being a beacon (a good example) to others in the industry/ies and
- Hoping to influence/transform the industry/ies
- Taking a 'wider responsibility' of the issue while understanding
- The consequences of a *de facto* embargo
- Risk management aspects
- Collaborating (when it is needed) is seen as an efficient method to address CSR/sustainability issues
- Altruism and management values (wanting to be part of the 'solution')
- Gaining legitimacy of operations
- Importance of stakeholder engagement
- Aim of harmonizing activities with others
- How does your organization see its own role within the PPA collaboration context?

- What about the other stakeholders' role?
- And, the role and importance of the 'collective sum' of every stakeholder in the PPA?

7. Collaborating for CSR and sustainability
- How do multi-stakeholder collaborations in general fit into your organization's CSR/sustainability strategy?
- What are the benefits that your organization considers in multi-stakeholder collaborations and dialogue when addressing supply chain sustainability and CSR issues?
- For which kinds of issues multi-stakeholder collaboration could be an efficient method? And, for which kinds of issues it is perhaps not appropriate?

8. Would you like to add anything else that these questions did not cover?

Additional questions during interview with the Responsible Sourcing Network

- What was your organization's position on addressing the conflict minerals problem prior to the Dodd-Frank final rules?
- Would you like to comment on the role of multi-stakeholder collaboration in order to address the issue?

4. Paper IV

Dear X,

My name is Julia Rotter and I am a PhD student at the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, in Uppsala. I am currently in the last stages of my PhD, which looks at different Corporate Social Responsibility Practices in Swedish Food Retail. The reason why I am writing to you is because I need your input. I am working on a project, where I am trying to understand the role of food retailers when it comes to Public Health (Folkhälsa) from a business perspective. I have seen that this is part of your "Corporate Social Responsibility" (CSR) agenda. I found your contact details on the website of your organization where I learnt that you are working with issues of health and food within your organization. However, please let me know if you feel that this is outside your area of expertise.

Please apologize that I am contacting you in English, but my Swedish is not yet that good. However, please feel free to respond in Swedish or any language you are comfortable in as it is no problem to have your response translated. I would be very grateful, if you could respond to a couple of questions and describe to me what your organization or your department is currently doing in respect to food consumption and health.

More specifically,

- What is your role in your organization?
- Which initiatives are your organization/department currently working with that works towards improving health in regards to food consumption? For example, free fruits for children, educational efforts, private label assortment, sponsorships for sport clubs/exercise, etc.
- Do you have any collaboration with for example non-governmental or governmental institutions, universities etc in relation to working with health issues?
- Do you think that consumers are actively looking for healthier food options in-store? Why or why not.
- How you perceive your role and position in influencing consumer choices?
- Does your organization work with any guidelines on how many products of a category should be "healthier", as for example "keyhole labelled" (Nyckelhål), etc?
- Does your organization on a policy level try to influence for example, tax reduction for fruits and vegetables to make them more affordable?

I know that your time is very valuable! Therefore, thank you so much for taking your time to respond to these questions and/or point me in the direction of your corporate communication or other documents where I could get more insights into this topic. I would be also very happy to meet you in person for a short interview. This way I could also tell you more about the project and ideally you would find some relevance for your organization. Please let me know if you have any questions! The best way to contact me is through email or by phone.

Thank you very much for your time and effort in supporting this research! I am looking forward to hearing from you! Best wishes, Signature

Appendix 2: Interview Process

Table 6. *Interview process and informants.*

	Informant	Organization & Position	Language	Approach & Date
Paper I	Kerstin Lindvall	Senior Vice-President of Corporate Social Responsibility, ICA	English	Telephone 05/03/2010
	Steffan Eklund	Researcher/Coordinator of Sustainability Issues, Coop	English	Face-to-Face 16/03/2010
	Åsa Domeij	Head of Environmental and Social Responsibility, Axfood	English	Face-to-Face 19/03/2010
Paper II	Johan Walléen	Product Group Manager, Axfood	Swedish	Face-to-Face 11/02/2010; 16/072010
	Åsa Domeij	Head of Environmental and Social Responsibility, Axfood	Swedish	Face-to-Face 29/01/2010; 18/08/2010
	Louise Ungerth	Head of Consumers and Environment, The Stockholm Consumer Cooperative Society	Swedish	Face-to-Face 12/07/2010
	Peter Arvidson	CEO, Pandalus	Swedish	Face-to-Face 17/06/2010
	Kajsa Garpe	Manager for Marine Eco-Systems and Fish Industry, Swedish Society for Nature Conservation (SSNC)	Swedish	Face-to-Face 18/06/2010
	Inger Näslund	Expert on Marine and Fish Industry, Wold Wide Fund for Nature (WWF)	Swedish	Face-to-Face 28/07/2010
	Stefan Holler	Responsible for South-East Asian Aquaculture Certification, Naturland	German	Telephone 08/06/2011

Table 6. *Continued.*

	Informant	Organization & Position	Language	Approach & Date
Paper II	Lars Hällbom	Director of Regulatory Affairs, KRAV	Swedish	Face-to-Face 21/06/2010
	Per Baummann	Coordinator, Product Safety & Legislation, Swedish Food Retailer's Federation	Swedish	Telephone 14/07/2010
Paper III (Additional to Paper II)	Mika Kiiskinen	Director of Supply Chain Sustainability, Nokia	Finnish	Face-to-Face 05/06/2012
	Michael Loch	Director of Supply Chain Sustainability, Motorola Solutions	English	Telephone 03/07/2012
	Gary Niekerk	Director of Corporate Citizenship, Intel	English	Telephone 22/06/2012
	Patricia Jurewicz	Director, Responsible Sourcing Network	English	Telephone 20/01/2013
Paper IV	Christina Karlsson	Health Manager, ICA	English/ Swedish	Email 29/10/2013
	Helena Björk	Responsible for Food and Health issues, Axfood	English/ Swedish	Email 30/10/2013
	Anneli Bylund	Responsible for Sustainable Health Strategies, Coop	English/ Swedish	Email 26/11/2013