sciendo
ISSN 1392-1142 (Print), ISSN 2335-8750 (Online)
ORGANIZACIJŲ VADYBA:
SISTEMINIAI TYRIMAI 2020.83
https://doi.org/10.1515/mosr-2020-0006

Izolda SKRUIBYTĖ

The Problems of the Assessment of Corporate Social Responsibility in the International Context

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as a social phenomenon is very dynamic, multidimensional and complex. The content of CSR constantly expands and covers more aspects and, therefore, its evaluation becomes more complicated also. The comparative analysis of different CSR assessment methods has been conducted in this article seeking to reveal the main problems when assessing CSR in an international context.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility (CSR), assessment, CSR disclosure.

ĮSA kaip socialinis reiškinys yra labai dinamiškas, daugialypis ir sudėtingas. ĮSA turinys plečiasi ir apima vis daugiau aspektų, todėl ir jo vertinimas tampa vis sudėtingesnis. Straipsnyje atlikta skirtingų ĮSA vertinimo metodų lyginamoji analizė siekiant atskleisti pagrindines problemas vertinant ĮSA tarptautiniame kontekste.

Raktiniai žodžiai: įmonių socialinė atsakomybė (ĮSA), vertinimas, ĮSA atskleidimas.

Introduction

The relevance and dynamism of economic, social, environmental, and other processes lead to increasing researchers' attention to social responsibility because of its potential influence on maintaining countries' sustainable development. The European Commission, the United Nations Organization and other institutions all over the world are actively discussing the contribution of CSR to building a sustainable economy. As a social phenomenon, CSR is very dynamic, multidimensional and complex (Okoye, 2009; Nisim, Benjamin, 2008). Expectations for companies and their responsible behaviour are extremely high and constantly growing. According to A. B. Carrol and A. K. Buchholtz (2015), the actual social performance of business is still lower than society's expectations of business performance, and this gap increases every day. This may mean that the perception of CSR changes more rapidly in the consciousness of society than in that of entrepreneurs and, therefore, that the assessment of CSR becomes more confused and requires more academic discussion.

For a long-time, the traditional economic view was used in explaining CSR, and the socially responsible company was mostly associated with a philanthropic activity. The company's support for the community and non-profit projects was seen as the main sign of its

Izolda SKRUIBYTĖ – PhD, associate professor at the Economic Department of Lithuania Business University of Applied Sciences, Lithuania. Address: Turgaus str. 21, Klaipėda, Lithuania. E-mail: izolda.skruibyte@ltvk.lt

© 2020 Izolda SKRUIBYTĖ by Sciendo.
This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs 3.0 License.

responsibility. A. B. Carroll (1991) identifies philanthropy as the highest stage of a four-dimensional CSR pyramid. According to M. Jankalova (2016), this approach still exists in many countries with lower economic development. Even more, results of empirical research conducted by S. Uddin et al. (2018) revealed that philanthropic activity is politically motivated and associated with ruling party agendas in developing non-democratic countries rather than with a desire to increase the wellbeing of society. M. E. Porter and R. Kramer (2002) state that U.S. corporates use the philanthropic activity as a form of public relations or even advertising, promoting their image rather than being a purely charitable activity. Such philanthropic activity does not reflect CSR ideas as they are defined by the European Commission or by the United Nations. The context in which CSR occurs holds great importance because every country is unique in its social, cultural, political, economic, and institutional environment and, therefore, according to S. Ehsan et al. (2018), researchers should consider the contextual factors when developing the instrument for CSR measurement.

Simultaneously with the rapid economic growth of nations in the last decades, the limits of CSR perception have expanded considerably. Stakeholders, including employees, customers, communities, governments, and others expect companies to go way beyond the level of philanthropy. Companies should be accountable for the tools they apply in business activity to earn a profit. The expectations for companies are extremely high and, therefore, academic discussions should be focused not only on philanthropic giving but on all the companies' actions that have an impact on the environment in which companies operate. As business moves towards an expanded perception of CSR, new instruments and methods for evaluation of CSR are required (Searcy and Cory, 2014). Given that, despite the mandatory CSR disclosure in some European countries, CSR is still based on the principles of the companies' voluntariness and consciousness, the assessment of CSR is becoming even more complex and confusing.

The main problem is formulated as: it is still not clear what specific features are common for corporate social responsibility and what methods can help in the best way to assess corporate social responsibility in different countries.

The object of the research is the assessment methods of CSR.

The main purpose of the paper is based on the identified main features and specificity of CSR, to reveal the problems of assessment of CSR in countries with a different cultural, political, social environment.

The objectives of the paper are:

1. To identify the main features of CSR.
2. To analyse and compare different methods that are used for the assessment of CSR.
3. To reveal the main problems encountered in assessing CSR in an international context.

Research methods. Analysis, comparison and generalization of the EC official documents and research studies of the international bodies assessing corporate social responsibility, were used to fulfil the objectives of this paper in analysing the phenomenon of CSR as well as the main features of CSR. Comparative analysis of

the most popular methods of the assessment of CSR such as survey, document content analysis and index calculation, was carried out including the generalisation of the results. In order to distinguish the advantages from the limitations of these methods for assessing CSR, the main attention was given to their reliability, objectivity, consistency, and applicability in the international context.

The concept of CSR and its specificity

Many academic papers have been written during the last decade investigating and defining the concept of CSR (Ramirez, Tsangarides, 2007; Ezeala-Harrisson, 2014; Hamidu et al., 2015; Aiginger, Vogel, 2015) but, according to R. Schmidpeter et al. (2019) and N. D. Panta (2018), CSR remains an essentially contested concept and, according to S. Bogetic et al. (2019), it is not yet clearly defined. While analysing the reasons for such confusion it is worth noting that CSR is a dynamic, multidimensional phenomenon and, according to R. Schmidpeter et al. (2019), it is still a concept that is "different in scope and depth". L. N. Simionescu (2015) states that, to date, there is no consensus on CSR regulation and its implementation rules, especially in an international context. Although CSR has no universal definition, it typically covers economic, social and environmental dimensions (Jhawar, Gupta, 2017).

Since 2011 the European Commission has defined CSR as the responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society (EC, 2011). This modern holistic definition was proposed by the EC in 2011 and emphasises the point that a company's goal cannot be focused solely on economic results. The company's responsibility must be evaluated based on the methods it employs to achieve its goals as well as on how it can properly identify and integrate social, environmental, ethical, moral and other issues into the company's business strategy and prevent potential problems by looking for favourable and acceptable solutions for all stakeholders. This modern perception of CSR significantly changes the perception of CSR that existed at the end of the 20th century and was mostly associated with companies' philanthropic activities.

CSR is one aspect of the European social model and it reflects the essential values of the society in which people aspire to live. According to L. Dagilienė and J. Bruneckienė (2010), the main areas of CSR are associated with environment protection, human resources, society and innovations which are focused on the creation of better-quality products and services. S. Rahman (2011) investigated the history of the CSR concept and noticed that the modern concept and form of CSR have appeared through a transition that started during the early twentieth century. He distinguished 10 major CSR dimensions common for the period from the 1950s to 2000s: 1) obligation to society; 2) stakeholders' involvement; 3) improving the quality of life; 4) economic development; 5) ethical business practice; 6) law-abiding; 7) voluntariness; 8) human rights; 9) protection of the environment and 10) transparency and accountability. A. Dahlsrud (2008) analysed 37 CSR definitions originated from 27 authors during 1980–2003 and found that the authors were inclined to distinguish

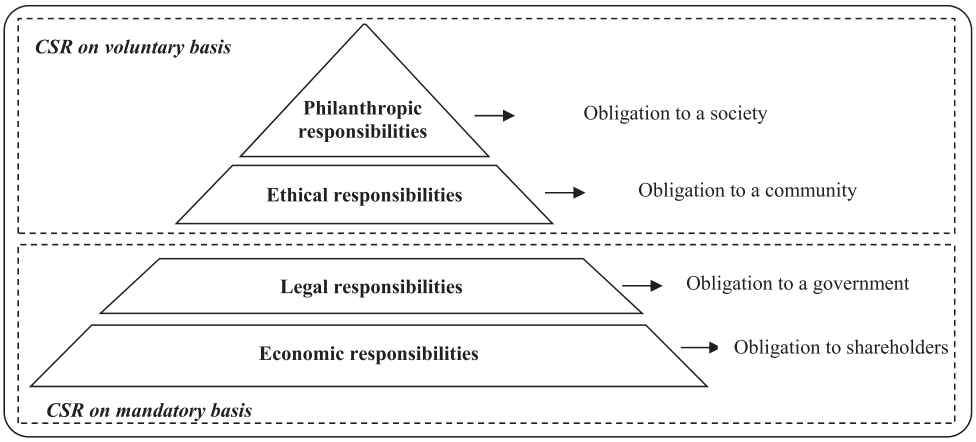


Fig. 1. **CSR pyramid**

Source: modified by the author based on A. B. Carroll (1991).

the following five dimensions of CSR: environmental, social, economic, concern for stakeholders and voluntariness.

Summarising the different theoretical approaches to CSR concept and its definitions, one can distinguish these three major features of CSR:

- *CSR is associated with sustainable economic development because companies include environmental and social as well as economic issues voluntarily in their activity* (Gruževskis et al., 2006; Scherer, Palazzo, 2009; Silvestre et al., 2018; Bernatonytė et al., 2009; Navickas, Kontautienė, 2011).

- *CSR is associated with a benefit for society because companies agree to work in a way that protects society and improves its wellbeing* (Murthy et al., 2016; Drūteikienė, Seiliūte, 2009; McWilliams et al., 2006).

- *CSR is associated with competitive advantages in the sense that, in the long run, investment in CSR creates a set of benefits for companies that include better reputation and visibility as well as, higher productivity* (Waldman et al., 2004; Porter, Kramer, 2006; Husted, Salazar, 2006; Navickas, Kontautienė, 2011; Jasinskas, Simanavičienė, 2009).

S. Gyves and E. O'Higgins (2008) noticed that CSR becomes a strong competitive advantage and helps a company to earn a profit and to contribute to the wellbeing of society if CSR is incorporated into the value system of a company, if it becomes a strategic part of a company, and if it is implemented on the voluntary basis. It is worth noting that the definition of CSR almost always emphasises the principle of voluntariness. Companies should consciously and voluntarily make a social commitment to society (EC, 2011). However, the principle of voluntariness is partly ignored in A. B. Carroll's (1991) pyramid of social responsibility. This pyramid was introduced in the last decade of the 20th century as the background for further CSR investigations and, despite some contradictions between CSR dimensions and the principle of

voluntariness, this pyramid is still widely used and frequently cited in the contemporary scientific literature.

All dimensions of Carroll's CSR pyramid are grouped in a clear hierarchical order. Economic responsibility is the main dimension of the pyramid and provides the basis on which the other three responsibilities rest. According to A. Geva (2008), a company is responsible if it earns a profit. Legal responsibility requires companies to adhere to the law. Ethical responsibility is associated with a company's commitment to behave honestly and morally. Philanthropic responsibility is manifested through the company's financial contribution to the community in which it operates, seeking to improve the quality of its life.

The last two dimensions of CSR – ethical and philanthropic – can be attributed to the principle of voluntariness. Nothing can force companies to support a society if companies are not willing to share their profit with it. Nothing can force companies to manage their business more morally unless acting otherwise is prohibited by law. Ethical and philanthropic responsibilities reflect the level of companies' awareness and public consciousness.

Shareholders require managers and executive directors to work efficiently and profitably and those who fail to do this can be replaced by other managers and executive directors. The national government also requires companies to adhere to the law. If companies violate the law, the activity of such companies can be suspended, and companies can be punished. It is clear, therefore, that economic and legal responsibilities cannot be attributed to the principle of voluntariness. One can state, therefore, that ethical and philanthropic responsibilities are implemented in a purely voluntary way, whereas economic and legal responsibilities are implemented on a mandatory basis. Can a company be called socially responsible if it meets only its economic and legal responsibilities? While U.S. companies recognize all four forms of CSR, they interpret the last two responsibilities much more freely than companies in Western Europe (Forte, 2013). Assumptions about CSR formation become problematic if, as F. Wettstein (2009) underlines, "legal voluntariness" is confused with "moral discretion". If CSR is a purely voluntary activity, it cannot be legally mandated.

The different cultural environments in which the phenomenon of CSR forms and occurs complicate the process of developing a deeper understanding and definition of CSR. According to R. Mullerat (2013), CSR varies from continent to continent, from country to country, from sector to sector and from corporation to corporation. China, for example, demonstrates a high degree of collectivism and companies' managers are convinced that efficiency and business performance take priority over ethical and socially responsible behaviour (Shafer et al., 2007). As a result, the interests of shareholders should take a priority over the interests of other stakeholders. The results of M. Gallen and C. Peraita (2018) empirical study revealed that CSR perception and manifestation are significantly influenced not only by the cultural environment but also by the country's level of economic development and the effectiveness of governance. Most of the previous studies show that the perception, as well as the manifestation of CSR, can be influenced by different social, economic, political and

other factors, and CSR must, therefore, be evaluated with care.

Comparative analysis of CSR assessment methods

The analysis of empirical studies and academic papers on CSR has revealed that different approaches can be used in assessing CSR scores. I. Maignan and O. C. Ferrel (2000) offer three methods for assessing CSR: 1) expert evaluations, 2) single-issue and multiple-issue indicators, and 3) surveys of managers. Also, K. Hino (2006) and D. Turker (2009) recognise the possibility of calculating the reputation index. J. Igalens and J. P. Gond (2005) divide all the various methods into five large categories: 1) Measurements based on analysis of the contents of annual reports; 2) Pollution indices; 3) Perceptual measurements derived from questionnaire-based surveys; 4) Corporate Reputation indicators; 5) Data produced by measurement organisations.

It is worth noting that some observed methods are very limited and that some are useful only when assessing CSR at a micro-level:

Firstly, pollution indices are relevant only for manufacturing companies and for companies operating in specific services sectors such as logistics. On the other hand, single-issue indices can reflect a very narrow area of CSR and can, therefore, be used as an additional tool when a particular aspect of CSR is being assessed.

Secondly, although CSR and the conception of reputation are very closely associated, they cannot be regarded as synonymous. CSR is an important feature of reputation and an appropriate CSR disclosure helps to increase a company's reputation (Arshad et al., 2012; Imran, Fatima, 2011). Nevertheless, due to a lack of data, researches sometimes choose the Reputation index to reflect CSR.

Thirdly, expert evaluations are relevant for assessing some specific aspects of CSR at a micro, sectorial or even macro level but this method cannot be used to assess an overall CSR score, especially in an international context, because CSR is a complex phenomenon and experts are generally focused only on particular CSR issues and can only assess CSR competently in particular and narrow areas. Such an assessment requires highly skilled experts and is both time-consuming, very expensive so that it is not an efficient method. Expert evaluations can be used only as an additional tool to assess CSR in some specific areas.

Surveys, content analysis of documents, multi-issue indicators or special indices can comprehensively reflect CSR at different levels and context, and it is useful, therefore, to discuss them in more detail. Some of the previous studies show that researchers combine several methods to assess CSR. According to S. Modell (2009), the results obtained by combining several methods are more reliable.

The survey method

The survey method in which researchers use a pre-designed standardized questionnaire as an instrument is one of the most popular methods for assessing CSR at a micro-level (Albinger, Freeman, 2000; Eberle et al., 2013; Turker, 2009; Tziner et al., 2011). Precisely designed questionnaires and qualitative selection

of participants allow researchers to assess the CSR of companies operating in a particular industry very comprehensively and, as a result, to reveal differences in CSR. This method is especially useful for assessing CSR issues that are difficult to define and measure using quantitative indicators. For example, the questionnaire is useful for evaluating employee job satisfaction and the affective commitment of employees to a company (Tziner et al., 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; James et al., 2011; Newman, Butler, 2014), and relations between employer and employee (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Tziner et al., 2011). It is worth noting, however, that, whereas CSR is characterized as a multidimensional phenomenon, the survey method is more suitable for assessing special issues of CSR.

One can distinguish some of the advantages and limitations of this method as follows:

Firstly, the survey method does not ensure a high level of feedback – for example, A. Midttun et al. (2013) (15.8 percent); P. C. Patel et al. (2012) (5 percent); C. M. Gomes et al. (2011) (48 percent); D. P. Lepak et al. (2002) (4 percent); V. F. Brock et al. (2013) (16.6 percent) – and raises the problem of the representativeness of the research sample. To ensure a higher level of feedback, researchers offer respondents prizes, lottery awards, etc. (James et al., 2011). A. Bryman (2001) notices that the response rate of a survey is relatively higher if the interviewer participates in doing the survey. In this case, however, costs increase significantly.

Secondly, both the construction of the study and the questionnaire, as well as conducting the survey and processing the information, require high-quality human resources and the process is time-consuming. According to C. Gratton and I. Jones (2004), improperly constructed questionnaires can cause undesirably large errors, distort results and lead the researcher to draw incorrect conclusions.

Thirdly, conducting surveys across countries with different cultural and political environments may reduce the reliability of the survey results. People living in different countries have a different level of optimism/pessimism and therefore have different understandings and interpretations of the same issues. Researchers have found that consumers in Japan and Brazil tend to be more critical in assessing the CSR of companies than consumers in China (GCRI, 2012). It is likely that the CSR score, calculated using the survey method and interviewing people, will be unjustifiably higher in China.

Fourthly, although the interviewing of respondents allows researchers to analyse relevant issues more deeply and, in more detail, this method is used less frequently in international studies. The methodology for analysing and processing qualitative research data is more complex than for quantitative research, and it requires highly skilled experts, with the result that it is relatively expensive.

Since the CSR phenomenon does not have clearly defined boundaries and it is implemented on a voluntary basis (Jankalova, 2016), the evaluation of CSR continues to be a problem. Not every approach or method is suitable to measure the state of CSR in all its aspects and a deeper analysis of all the methods is needed. G. Drūteikienė and J. Seiliute (2009) argue that only an approximate measurement of CSR is possible and that the level of CSR can only be stated subjectively.

The method of document content analysis

Seeking to attract new investment and high-quality workers or to increase a company's reputation, companies disclose information about CSR in their annual financial reports, in CSR reports or on their company's website. As CSR is still done on a voluntary basis in many countries, one of the ways to assess CSR is by collecting the data that companies disclose. D. Z. Basil and J. Erlandson (2008) have noticed that more and more companies use their website to disclose social responsibility: during the period 2003–2006 the number of companies doing so increased from 27 to 67 percent in Canada. In particular, a significant increase in the disclosure of internal CSR activities such as codes of ethics, health and workplace safety issues and environmental policies, is evident in many countries. These developments mean that the method of content analysis is more and more suitable for assessing CSR.

Although this method has many advantages and is widely used in quantitative and qualitative social research, it has many limitations as well. There are many major challenges when making CSR reporting effective because it is not clear what information companies should disclose, as well as the form and level of detail of the disclosure (O'Rourke, 2004). As G. A. Bowen (2005) has noticed, the content of the documents provided by companies varies considerably, the information is selective, and, in most cases, companies provide only positive information. S. M. Adnan et al. (2010) also note that the quality of the information provided on websites and in stand-alone CSR reports is higher than the information provided in annual reports. The quality of information and its reliability is very important for assessing CSR. In other research, the same authors (Adnan et al., 2018) revealed that the quality and information quantity of CSR reports also depend on the cultural environment in which companies operate. V. Sawhny (2008) suggests that five principles should be taken into account in the evaluation of social responsibility reports: relevance, reliability, clarity, comparability, and verifiability of the provided information. P. Habek and R. Wolniak (2016) provide 11 criteria for assessing the relevance of information in a CSR report and six criteria for assessing the credibility of the information. Their analysis of CSR reports from six European countries revealed some very controversial information: the quality level of CSR reports was much lower in countries where sustainability reports were published by a large number of organizations than in countries where such reporting was less common. They also noticed that the legal obligation regarding CSR data disclosure had a positive effect on the quality of CSR reports. Usually, CSR researchers advocate the contrary opinion, stating that the quality of reports and information disclosure is higher if CSR reports are made on a purely voluntary basis (Jain et al., 2015).

A. Bhatia and B. Makkar (2019) have found that companies operating in developed countries have higher CSR disclosure scores than in developing countries. This means that researchers working in developed countries may have to process significantly large quantities of information. The main objective of content analysis is the systematic transformation of a

large amount of text into a highly organized and concise summary of key results (Erlingsson, Brysiewicz, 2017). Although, according to S. Stemler (2001), clear coding of the text can help in managing very large amounts of data and eliminate over-information. At the same time, it is worth noting that J. Unerman (2000) argues that the content analysis method has a high degree of subjectivity.

For the coding of text, it is necessary to distinguish the main criteria (words, phrases, sentences, etc.). Distinguishing such criteria, according to J. Hooks and C. J. Staden (2011), is the core element in the research and often determines the research success. Another important and critical part of the content analysis process, according to (Ehsan et al., 2018), is the right selection and combination of the categories into which the selected context units are classified. Seeking to evaluate the CSR score, researchers often record the number of words, sentences, paragraphs or pages in CSR reports (Everaert et al., 2009; Mahadeo et al., 2011; Silberhorn, Warren, 2007). This means that the more information a company discloses in a report the more socially responsible it is. The research of W. Chaple and J. Moon (2005) revealed that every second company in India provides CSR reports of 3-10 pages, and every third company – more than 10 pages. The situation is different in Indonesia, where 72 percent of companies provide CSR reports of only 1-2 pages. Meanwhile, the CSR reports of the biggest listed companies in Africa consist of 14227 words on average (Mahadeo et al., 2011). Some authors (Adnan et al., 2010; Young, Marais, 2012; Haider, 2010) noticed that the level of CSR disclosure depends more on the level of countries' economic development and that the quality of information disclosure depends more on the cultural environment in which companies operate. D. Silberhorn and R. C. Warren (2007) have revealed that companies in the United Kingdom disclose more information related to the training of employees and human rights than companies in Germany. J. Singh et al. (2011) have revealed that companies in Sweden do not mention questions about gender equality at all while these issues are very important for companies operating in Canada. These differences show the importance of the cultural environment.

The increased attention that stakeholders give to multinational companies makes such companies operate more responsibly compared with small enterprises (Chapple, Moon, 2005) and such companies disclose more information about social issues (Schlierer et al., 2012). However, F. Dal-Ri Murcia and A. Santos (2012) reject the claim that large companies are willing to disclose more information about social responsibility than small ones. H. Jenkins (2009) suggests that relations between employers, employees and other stakeholders are more informal in small companies, with the result that formal analysis of such relationships is less reflected in CSR reports. According to the results of the empirical study done by A. Khattan et al. (2019), the understanding of CSR is broad enough in SMEs but the responsible activity of small companies is mostly limited to philanthropic activities, which are irregular, undocumented and manifested as a simple cash-giving activity. It is worth noting that these results were obtained from a study in Pakistan and may differ from other studies conducted in the countries of higher

economic development. M. Golinski and M. Szafranski (2019) state that CSR reports as part of a sustainable development policy are strategic rather than a real description of the company's activities. The assessment of CSR using the document analysis method should, therefore, be conducted accurately, taking into account the economic, social, political and cultural environments in which companies operate, and the results of such assessments should be interpreted with great care.

The Index calculation method

Researchers and institutions compute various indices to comprehensively analyse CSR in a given country. A correctly constructed index allows the multidimensional aspects of CSR to be reflected and it is one of the most widely used methods for assessing CSR. This method is particularly important for assessing and comparing the CSR of companies operating in different countries or regions of the world and for assessing CSR at a national level. Although each institution uses its own index calculation methodology, and the components of the index do not always have the same weight in the overall index, all the indices cover, more or less, the same three main areas of social responsibility: *economic, social and environmental*. Some international institutions, like Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini Research & Analysis Inc. (KLD) or the Jantzi Social Index (JSI), compute CSR only at the micro-level. The Institute of Social and Ethical Accountability, established in Copenhagen, computes CSR at the national level and some institutions, like Thomson Reuters ASSET4, computes CSR at three different levels: micro, sectoral and national. Both aggregate indices and their components are widely used in micro and macro-level research.

It is worth noting that the index calculating method has more advantages than the survey and document content analysis:

Firstly, indices can cover both qualitative and quantitative data and comprehensively reflect the CSR level. The more information an index covers the more comprehensively it reflects CSR.

Secondly, the information for CSR index calculation can be obtained from different primary and secondary data sources (surveys, content analysis, CSR reports, codes of ethics, annual financial reports, media, etc.). The CSR index is, therefore, more objective and reliable.

Thirdly, anything from several to several dozen researchers and CSR experts takes part in assessing CSR and the index, therefore, reflects a variety of different opinions and approaches.

Fourthly, this method usually maintains the same principles for assessing CSR in different countries and over time. These indices, therefore, can be compared in a long period among different countries.

Fifthly, although the index construction method requires highly skilled analysts, is time-consuming, and requires many analysts taking part in the index construction process, the constructed index can be successfully and efficiently used in many different sectors and countries.

Despite the advantages of index calculation, this method also has some limitations. The methodology of index construction is complex, and it requires researchers to have specific knowledge

and experience. To calculate the CSR index, institutions use from several dozen to several hundred criteria and indicators. Such indices, therefore, are usually calculated only for big listed companies. KLD index (now MSCI ESG Research) is one of the oldest and best-known indices used for assessing CSR but the criteria of this index, according to S. Ehsan et al. (2018), are specific to the US economy and this index is still focused only on US-listed companies. The Jantzi Social Index (JSI) assesses the social responsibility of 50 Canadian companies that pass a set of broadly-based environmental, social, and governance (ESG) rating criteria. This index does not assess the CSR of companies that have significant involvement in nuclear power, tobacco and weapons-related contracting.

FTSE4Good Global Index, according to A. Skouloudis (2014), is one of the world's premier indices and it is regarded as the index that most objectively reflects the CSR of companies around the world that meet globally recognised CSR standards.

The main advantages and limitations of recently used indices for CSR evaluation are presented in Table 1.

The KLD index is very comprehensive and reflects both the strengths and concerns of a company in relation to CSR and it is, therefore, a popular index for measuring CSR. J. E. Mattingly (2017) found at least 100 peer-reviewed empirical studies published in 34 academic journals, from 1994 to 2011. Most of these studies (71 studies) were published in the period 2006–2011 and all these studies used the KLD index as a measure of corporate social performance. Seven studies specifically examined the construct of the KLD index and its validity. The authors of these studies confirmed the reliability of the index and its correspondence to the theoretical construct of CSR.

Reputation and social responsibility are closely related concepts but, according to the RepTrak methodology, reputation is more widely understood than CSR. The reputation index covers not only the quality of produced products and services, human rights and safe workplace, citizenship and ethical behaviour issues but also the company's financial stability, profitability or even innovations. Usually, the last three aspects are not directly attributed to CSR. Accountability and governance transparency or high quality of products are very important in evaluating a company's CSR and can help to increase a company's reliability. At the same time, high reliability is directly related to the reputation of a company. CSR is a key aspect of a reputation, especially from the perspective of customers (Vitezic, 2011), and, therefore, proper CSR disclosure helps to increase the reputation of a company. But there are countries where companies are ranked high on CSR even though they do not have a high level of reputation.

The ASSET4 ESG Index is based on the Thomson Reuters index. Over seven thousand companies worldwide are rated according to over 400 key indicators of ESG performance. The companies are ranked comprehensively, according to their environmental, social and economic (governance) performance. This index is very similar to the Dow Jones sustainability index (DJSI), which reflects all aspects of sustainability common for CSR. A large number of analysts are involved in collecting and processing information for the calculation of these indices. Both "soft"

Table 1. **The advantages and limitations of indices**

Index	Index advantages	Index limitations
KLD (Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini) index	- index is regularly counted since 1991; - index rates CSR comprehensively in eight positions; - index evaluates both positive (strengths) and negative (concerns) practices in specific CSR categories; - index is counted by external CSR experts and therefore, is reliable and objective; - index uses the same criteria for different countries and is suitable for comparative international CSR analysis.	- index rates only the largest companies listed on the U.S. Stock Exchange; - index reflects only separate features of CSR; - ratings are not normalized across different industries;
Global RepTrak Reputation Index	- index is calculated regularly; - index is comprehensive and covers seven CSR aspects; - index consists of qualitative and quantitative data; - index covers companies from four continents; - data for reputation rating is provided from more than 55 thousand surveys.	- index only rates the reputation of the 100 best known and most successful companies worldwide; - index is focused to measure the reputation of corporates and only partly reflects CSR; - index reflects an opinion of consumers and may be subjective.
Dow Jones Sustainability index (DJSI)	- index is regularly calculated since 1999; - index is comprehensive and integrates economic, social and environmental issues; - index is calculated at three levels: country, region and global; - information provided by companies must be audited by external experts; - index is focused on long-term perspectives.	- index is focused on sustainability issues; - structure and criteria of the index are annually adjusted and therefore, it is complicated to compare index and its separate dimensions during the time; - index reflects the sustainability only of the world's leading companies.
ASSET4 ESG Index	- index integrates economic, governance, social and environmental issues; - index is very comprehensive and consists of more than 250 criteria and 400 indicators; - index is calculated regularly and data is updated regularly; - index is suitable for comparative analysis; - index provides CSR rating for companies and countries; - data for index calculation is provided from approximately 780 sources and ensures high index reliability; - more than 100 analysts take part in the index calculation process and ensure high index objectivity.	- data is available only from 2007; - index rates mostly CSR of companies from developed countries;
National Corporate Responsibility Index	- index covers many countries; - index is very comprehensive and covers many aspects of CSR; - data for index counting is provided from surveys and statistical databases and that ensures high index reliability; - index covers the responsibility of companies and national governance;	- index was calculated for three periods (2003, 2005, 2007); - the structure and methodology of the index is not consistent; - index rates CSR only at the national level.

indicators from surveys and "hard" indicators are included in the indices and all these tools ensure the objectivity and high reliability of the indices. The limitations of these indices are that DJSI ranks only the world's leading companies, the KLD index

ranks only the U.S. listed companies, and the ASSET4 ESG index ranks companies all over the world. Differently from the KLD index, the ASSET4 ESG Index gives a score for a particular dimension (environmental, social or governance) as well as an overall CSR score.

The structure of NCRI is completely different from the other indices. This index was calculated only for three periods in 2003, 2005 and 2007, and was designed to reflect the CSR at the national rather than at the company level. S. Zadek et al. (2005), who are the authors of this index, state that CSR is fundamentally a structural macro-level phenomenon, although it is defined and analysed most clearly at a micro-level. This index reflected the CSR according to seven broad aspects of a responsible environment but did not include indicators of philanthropic activity at all.

Summarizing the possibilities of using different methods to assess CSR, one can state that each method has advantages and limitations. Each method should, therefore, be used with care, according to its advantages and limitations. The results of the research done by M. Rodriguez-Fernanadez (2016) confirm this conclusion. The author conducted the study to reveal the influence of CSR on financial performance in Spanish listed companies. The results confirmed the author's hypothesis that there would be a positive influence of CSR on companies' financial performances if CSR was measured using the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) index and it did not confirm the positive influence of CSR if the CSR was measured using the DJSI index or using the companies' participation in Global Compact. The findings demonstrate once again that the CSR phenomenon is multifaced and that the researcher's choice to use one or another method of measuring the CSR determined the results of the research. According to L. Bouten et al. (2017), the complexity of CSR generates substantive concerns regarding the validity of the construct and the reliability of common empirical proxies of CSR performance. As the perception of the CSR phenomenon evolves, new methods need to be explored and existing methods need to be refined to provide a more accurate assessment of CSR.

Conclusions

A lot of academic papers and empirical studies have been done over recent decades seeking to understand the phenomenon of CSR more deeply, but one can state that the perception and definition of CSR are still at the development stage. As the stakeholders' expectations concerning a business increase, the perception of CSR is constantly expanding also. For a long time, CSR was mostly associated with a philanthropic activity, but more recent studies emphasize that CSR must also be concerned about environmental protection, ethical business practice, human rights and the transparency of companies' activities. Companies must be accountable to society for the tools they apply in their business activity to earn a profit. A business must be responsible for all the methods it employs to achieve its goals as well as how it can properly identify and integrate the relevant social, environmental, ethical, moral and other issues into its business strategy and how it can prevent potential problems by looking for solutions that are favourable and acceptable for all its stakeholders. The expanded

meaning of CSR makes the assessment of CSR more complicated and requires the application of new instruments and methods for assessing CSR.

Researchers distinguish many indicators and methods for assessing CSR. Summarizing the methods for the assessment of CSR in different countries, it is worth noting that survey and document analysis methods are useful when assessing CSR at a micro level within a country. The survey method, especially, can comprehensively reflect those CSR issues that are difficult to define and measure using quantitative indicators. Companies operate in different economic, political, social and cultural environments, and all these factors influence both the perception of CSR and the behaviour of companies. People living in different countries have a different level of optimism/pessimism, which can give rise to different understandings and interpretations of the same issues. The companies' attitudes towards CSR disclosure also depends on many factors. The survey or document analysis methods can cause undesirably large errors, distorting results and misleading researchers in providing conclusions when the research is conducted in different countries or when the results obtained in one country are compared with results obtained in another country.

The most suitable method for assessing CSR is the CSR index calculation, particularly if the research is being conducted in different sectors and countries. The index calculation method applies the same requirements for all companies operating in different countries. Given this, CSR score is not subject to attitudes of individual researchers nor the information provided by companies. Therefore, CSR index calculation is a more objective and reliable method for conducting assessments in the international context. CSR index can cover quantitative and qualitative data from different data sources, including results from surveys and document analyses, and it can, therefore, comprehensively reflect a company's CSR. As the attitude of analysts varies in relation to different CSR issues, the construct of CSR in the different indices can vary significantly and this can influence CSR scores. One can state that all methods for the assessment of CSR should be used with appropriate care, taking the advantages and limitations of each method into account.

References

1. Adnan, S. M., Staden, C., Hay, D. (2010). Do Culture and Governance Structure Influence CSR Reporting Quality: Evidence from China, India, Malaysia and the United Kingdom. – Paper presented at sixth Asia Pacific Interdisciplinary Research in Accounting Conference, Sydney.
2. Adnan, S. M., Hay, D., Staden, Ch. (2018). The Influence of Culture and Corporate Governance on Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure: A Cross Country Analysis // Journal of Cleaner Production. Vol. 198, pp. 820–832. doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.07.057
3. Aiginger, K., Vogel, J. (2015). Competitiveness: From a Misleading Concept to a Strategy Supporting Beyond GDP Goals // Competitiveness Review. Vol. 25, No. 5, pp. 497–523. doi.org/10.1108/CR-06-2015-0052
4. Albinger, H., Freeman, S. (2000). Corporate Social Performance and Attractiveness as an Employer to Different Job Seeking Populations // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 28, No. 3, pp. 243–253. doi: 10.1023/A:1006289817941
5. Arshad, R., Othman, S., Othman, R. (2012). Islamic Corporate Social Responsibility,

Corporate Reputation and Performance // International Journal of Social, Behavioral, Educational, Economic, Business and Industrial Engineering. Vol. 64, No. 4, pp. 643–647. scholar.waset.org/1999.10/10239

6. Basil, D. Z., Erlandson, J. (2008). Corporate Social Responsibility Website Representations: A Longitudinal Study of Internal and External Self-Presentations // Journal of Marketing Communications. Vol. 14, No. 2, pp. 125–137. doi: 10.1080/13527260701858497
7. Bernatonyte, D., Vilke, R., Keizeriene, E. (2009). Ekonominės krizės poveikio Lietuvos smulkių ir vidutinių įmonių socialinei atsakomybei kryptys // Ekonomika ir vadyba. Vol. 14, pp. 229–236. ISSN 1822-6515
8. Bhatia, A., Makkar, B. (2019). CSR Disclosure in Developing and Developed Countries: A Comparative Study // Journal of Global Responsibility. Vol. 11 No. 1, pp. 1–26. doi. org/10.1108/JGR-04-2019-0043
9. Bogetic, S., Dordevic, D., Cockalo, D., Vorkapic, M. (2019). Corporate Social Responsibility as a Factor of Global Competitiveness // Journal of Engineering Management and Competitiveness. Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 11–19. UDC: 005.35:339.137.2
10. Bouten, L., Cho, C. H., Michelon G., Roberts R. W. (2017). CSR Performance Proxies in Large-Sample Studies: "Umbrella Advocates", Construct Clarity, and the "Validity Police". Internet access: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3107182. doi: 10.2139/ssrn.3107182
11. Bowen, G. A. (2005). Preparing a Qualitative Research-Based Dissertation: Lessons Learned // The Qualitative Report. Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 208–222. Internet access: http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR10-2/bowen.pdf
12. Bryman, A. (2001). Social Research Methods. – Oxford: Oxford university press. 540 p.
13. Brock, V. F., Gavronski, I. (2013). Does the Institutional Context Shape International Operations Strategy? Country-Level Analysis // Journal of Operations and Supply Chain Management. Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 106–121.
14. Carrol, A. B., Buchholtz, A. K. (2015). Business & Society: Ethics and Stakeholder Management. – 7th ed. South-Western Cengage Learning, p. 768.
15. Carroll, A. B. (1991). The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders // Business Horizons. Vol. 34, No. 4, p. 39–48. doi: 10.1016/0007-6813(91)90005-G
16. Chaple, W., Moon, J. (2005). Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Asia: A Seven-Country Study of CSR Web Site Reporting // Business & Societies. Vol. 44, No. 4, pp. 415–441, doi: 10.1177/0007650305281658
17. Dahlsrud, A. (2006). How Corporate Social Responsibility is Defined: An Analysis of 37 Definitions // Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management. p. 1–14, doi: 10.1002/csr.132
18. Dagilienė, L., Bruneckienė, J. (2010). Savanoriškai atskleidžiamos informacijos vaidmuo įmonių socialinės atsakomybės aspektu // Ekonomika ir vadyba. Vol. 15, pp. 451–456.
19. Drūteikenė, G. Seiliūtė, J. (2009). The Stand of Social Responsibility within the Strategy of Business Organization // Ekonomika. Vol. 88, pp. 130–143.
20. Eberle, D., Berens, G., Li, T. (2013). The Impact of Interactive Corporate Social Responsibility Communication on Corporate Reputation // Journal of Business Ethics, Vol. 118, pp. 731–746. doi: 10.1007/s10551-013-1957-y
21. Ehsan, S., Nazir, M. S., Nurunnabi, M., Khan, Q. R., Tahir, S., Ahmed, I. (2018). A Multimethod Approach to Assess and Measure Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure and Practices in a Developing Economy // Sustainability. Vol. 10, pp. 1–18. doi:10.3390/su10082955
22. Erlingsson, Ch., Brysiewicz, P. (2017). A Hands-On Guide to Doing Content Analysis // African Journal of Emergency Medicine. Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 93–99. doi: 10.1016/j.afjem.2017.08.001
23. European Commission. (2011). A Renewed EU Strategy 2011–14 for Corporate Social Responsibility. – Brussels: European Commission. COM (2011) 681.
24. Everaert, P., Bouten, L., Liedekerke, L., De Moor, L., Christiaens, J. (2009). Discovering Patterns in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Reporting: A Transparent Framework Based on the Global Reporting Initiative's (GRI) Sustainability Reporting Guidelines. – Working Papers of Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Ghent University, Belgium 09/557.
25. Ezeala-Harrison, F. (2014). Relative Impacts of Quantitative and Qualitative Indicators of International Competitiveness // Journal of International Business and Economics. Vol. 2, No. 4, pp. 1–16. doi: 10.15640/jibe.v2n4a1

26. Forte, A. (2013). Corporate Social Responsibility in The United States and Europe: How Important Is It? The Future of Corporate Social Responsibility // International Business & Economics Research Journal. Vol. 12, No. 7, pp. 815–824. doi: 10.19030/iber.v12i7.7970
27. Gallen, M., Peraita, C. (2018). The Effects of National Culture on Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure: A Cross-Country Comparison // Applied Economics. Vol. 50, No. 27, pp. 2967–2979. doi: 10.1080/00036846.2017.1412082
28. Geva, A. (2008). Three Models of Corporate Social Responsibility: Interrelationships between Theory, Research, and Practice // Business and Society. Vol. 113, No. 1, pp. 1–41. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8594.2008.00311.x
29. Gyves, S., O'Higgins, E. (2008). Corporate Social Responsibility: An Avenue for Sustainable Benefit for Society and the Firm? // Society and Business Review. Vol. 3, No. 3, pp. 207–223. doi: 10.1108/17465680810907297
30. Golinski M., Szafranski, M. (2019). Application of Corporate Social Responsibility for Competency Management. Case Study, pp. 3–18. / In Corporate Social Responsibility in the Manufacturing and Services Sectors. (2019). Ed. P. Golinska-Dawson, M. Spychala – Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, p. 279. doi: 10.1007/978-3-642-33851-9_1
31. Gomes, C. M., Kruglianskas, I., Scherer, F., Luz Neto, R., Menezes, U. G. (2011). Management Practices Committed to Sustainability and Its Relationship with Business Performance. – POMS 22nd Annual Conference Reno, Nevada, EUA April 29 to May 2, 2011.
32. Gratton, C., Jones, I. (2004.) Research Methods for Sports Studies. – Routledge, London and New York, p. 288.
33. Gruževskis, B., Vasiljevienė, N., Moskvina, J., Kleinaitė, I. (2006). Aktualūs socialinės politikos klausimai. – 2006/7. Darbo ir socialinių tyrimų institutas, Socialinės apsaugos ir darbo ministerija, LR trišalė taryba, p. 40.
34. Habek, P., Wolniak, R. (2016). Assessing the Quality of Corporate Social Responsibility Reports: The Case of Reporting Practices in Selected European Union Member States // Quality and Quantity. Vol. 50, No. 1, pp. 399–420. doi: 10.1007/s11135-014-0155-z
35. Haider, M. B. (2010). An Overview of Corporate Social and Environmental Reporting (CSER) in Developing Countries // Issues in Social and Environmental Accounting. Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 3–17. doi: 10.22164/isea.v4i1.44
36. Hamidu, A. A., Haron, H., Amran, A. (2015). Corporate Social Responsibility: A Review on Definitions, Core Characteristics and Theoretical Perspectives // Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences. Vol. 6, No. 4, pp. 83–95. doi: 10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n4p83
37. Hino, K. (2006). Corporate Social and Financial Performance: An Empirical Study on a Japanese Company. – IFSAM VIIIth World Congress, September 28–30 Berlin, Germany.
38. Hooks, J., Staden, C. J. (2011). Evaluating Environmental Disclosures: The Relationship between Quality and Extent Measures // British Accounting Review. Vol. 43, No. 3, pp. 200–213. doi: 10.1016/j.bar.2011.06.005
39. Husted, B. W., Salazar, J. J. (2006). Taking Friedman Seriously: Maximising Profits and Social Performance // Journal of Management Studies. Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 75–91. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.00583.x
40. Igalens, J., Gond, J. P. (2005). Measuring Corporate Social Performance in France: A Critical and Empirical Analysis of ARESE data // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 56, No. 2, pp. 131–148. doi: 10.1007/s10551-004-3529-7
41. Imran, A., Fatima, A. J. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Reputation and Employee Engagement. – Munich Personal RePEc Archive. University Library of Munich, Germany, p. 17.
42. Young, S., Marais, M. (2012). A Multi-level Perspective of CSR Reporting: The Implications of National Institutions and Industry Risk Characteristics // Corporate Governance: An International Review. Vol. 20. No. 5, pp. 432–450. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8683.2012.00926.x
43. Jain, A., Keneley, M., Thomson, D. (2015). Voluntary CSR disclosure works! Evidence from Asia-Pacific banks // Social Responsibility Journal. Vol. 11, No. 1, pp. 2–18. doi: 10.1108/SRJ-10-2012-0136
44. James, J. B., Mckechine, S., Swanberg, J. (2011). Predicting Employee Engagement in an Age-Diverse Retail Workforce // Journal of Organizational Behavior. Vol. 32, No. 2, pp. 173–196. doi: 10.1002/job.681
45. Jankalova, M. (2015). Approaches to the Evaluation of Corporate Social Responsibility // Procedia Economics and Finance. Vol. 39, pp. 580–587. doi: 10.1016/S2212-5671(16)30302-1

46. Jasinskas, E., Simanavičienė, Ž. (2009). Valstybės paramos įtaka ūkininkų ūkių socialinei atsakomybei // Economics & Management. Vol. 14, pp. 257–263.
47. Jenkins, H. (2009). A 'Business Opportunity' Model of Corporate Social Responsibility for Small- and Medium-Sized Enterprises // Business Ethics: A European Review. Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 21–36. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8608.2009.01546.x
48. Jhawar, N., Gupta, S. (2017). Understanding CSR- Its History and the Recent Developments // Journal of Business and Management. Vol. 19, No. 5, pp. 105–109, pp. 2319–7668.
49. Khattak, A., Awwan, U., Kraslawski, A. (2019). Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Priorities in the Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) of the Industrial Sector of Sialkot, Pakistan, pp. 267–278. / In Corporate Social Responsibility in the Manufacturing and Services Sectors (2019). Ed. P. Golinska-Dawson, and M. Spychala – Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, p. 279, doi: org/10.1007/978-3-642-33851-9_15
50. Lepak, D. P., Snell, S. A. (2002). Examining the Human Resource Architecture: The Relationships Among Human Capital, Employment, and Human Resource Configurations // Journal of Management. Vol. 28, No. 4, pp. 517–543. doi: org/10.1177/014920630202800403
51. Mahadeo, J. D., Oogarah-Hanuman, V., Soobaroyen, T. (2011). A Longitudinal Study of Corporate Social Disclosures in a Developing Economy // Journal of Business and Ethics. Vol. 104, No. 4, pp. 545–558. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0929-3
52. Maignan, I., Ferrell, O. C. (2000). Measuring Corporate Citizenship in Two Countries: The Case of the United States and France // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 283–297. doi: 10.1023/A:1006262325211
53. Mattingly, J. A. (2017). Corporate Social Performance: A Review of Empirical Research Examining the Corporation-Society Relationship Using Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini Social Ratings Data // Business & Society. Vol. 56, No. 6, pp. 796–839. doi: 10.1177/0007650315585761
54. McWilliams, A., Siegel, D. S., Wright, P. M. (2006). Corporate Social Responsibility: Strategic Implications // Journal of Management Studies. Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 1–18. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.00580.x
55. Midttun, A., Blomgren, A., Magerholm, F., Jakovleva, T., Wenstop, F. (2013). CSR, Innovation and Value Creation in Rapidly Growing Norwegian SMEs. – Research Report, Centre for Corporate Responsibility, Norwegian Business School, p. 36.
56. Modell, S. (2009). In Defense of Triangulation: A Critical Realist Approach to Mixed Methods Research in Management Accounting // Management Accounting Research. Vol. 20, No. 3, pp. 208–221. doi: 10.1016/j.mar.2009.04.001
57. Mullerat, R. (2013). Corporate Social Responsibility: A European Perspective // Miami-Florida European Union Center of Excellence. Vol. 13, No. 6, pp. 1–22.
58. Dal-Ri Murcia, F., Santos, A., (2012). Discretionary-Based Disclosure: Evidence from the Brazilian Market // BAR – Brazilian Administration Review. Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 88–109. doi: 10.1590/S1807-76922012000100006
59. Murthy, S. S., Rao, S., Mohan, A. (2016). Developing Communities around Factories through Strategic CSR: A Critical Step towards Shared Value in India // Field Actions Science Reports [Online], Special Issue 14. Internet access: http://journals.openedition.org/factsreports/4075
60. Navickas, V., Kontautienė, R. (2011). Įmonių filantropijos poveikis jų ekonominės veiklos rezultatams // Business: Theory and Practice. Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 15–23. doi: 10.3846/btp.2011.02
61. Newman, A., Butler, Ch. (2014). The influence of follower cultural orientation on attitudinal responses towards transformational leadership: evidence from the Chinese hospitality industry // The International Journal of Human Resource Management. Vol. 25, No. 7, pp. 1024–1045. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2013.815250
62. Nisim, S., Benjamin, O. (2008). Power and Size of Firms as Reflected in Cleaning Subcontractors' Practices of Social Responsibility // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 83, No. 4, pp. 673–683. doi: 10.1007/s10551-007-9647-2
63. Okoye, A. (2009). Theorising Corporate Social Responsibility as an Essentially Contested Concept: Is a Definition Necessary? // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 89, No. 4, pp. 613–627. doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-0021-9
64. O'Rourke, D. (2004). Opportunities and Obstacles for Corporate Social Responsibility Reporting in Developing countries. – For the

Corporate Social Responsibility Practice of the World Bank Group, March 2004.

65. Panta, N. D. (2018). Where does Corporate Social Responsibility Stand in Relation to Sustainability? // Oradea Journal of Business and Economics. Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 84–93.
66. Patel, P. C., Conklin, B. (2012). Perceived Labor Productivity in Small Firms—The Effects of High-Performance Work Systems and Group Culture Through Employee Retention // Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice. Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 205–235. doi. org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.00404.x
67. Porter, M. E., Kramer, R. (2002). The Competitive Advantage of Corporate Philanthropy // Harvard Business Review. Vol. 80, No. 12, (December 2002), pp. 56–69.
68. Porter, M. E., Kramer, M. R. (2006). Strategy and Society: The Link between Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility // Harvard Business Review. Vol. 84, No. 12, pp. 78–92.
69. Rahman, S. (2011). Evaluation of Definitions: Ten Dimensions of Corporate Social Responsibility // World Review of Business Research. Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 166–176.
70. Ramirez, G., Tsangarides, Ch. G. (2007). Competitiveness in the CFA Franc Zone. – International Monetary Fund WP/07/212.
71. Rodriguez-Fernandez, M. (2016). Social Responsibility and Financial Performance: The Role of Good Corporate Governance // Business Research Quarterly. Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 137–151. doi: org/10.1016/j.brq.2015.08.001
72. Sawhny, V. (2008). Analyzing Corporate Social Responsibility Measurement Parameters: Comparing the Global Reporting Initiative to Environmental Reporting Guidelines, Government of Japan and the Public Environmental Reporting, Australia. – Institute for Public Relations, p. 43. Internet access: www.instituteforpr.org
73. Scherer, A. G., Palazzo, G. (2008). Globalization and Corporate Social Responsibility. – The Oxford Hadbook of Corporate Social Responsibility. Edited by A. Crane, A. McWilliams, D. Matten, J. Moon, D. Siegel, Business and Management, Business Policy and Strategy, International Business (2009), pp. 413–431. doi: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199211593.003.0018
74. Schlierer, H.-J., Werner, A., Signori, S., Garriga, E., Weltzien Hoivik, H., Rossem, A., Fassin, Y. (2012). How Do European SME Owner–Managers Make Sense of "Stakeholder Management"? Insights from a Cross-National Study // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 109, No. 1, pp. 39–51. doi: 10.1007/s10551-012-1378-3
75. Schmidpeter, R., Capaldi, N., Idow, S. O., Sturenberg Herrera, A. (2019). International Dimensions of Sustainable Management: Latest Perspectives from Corporate Governance, Responsible Finance and CSR. – Springer Nature Switzerland AG. p. 341.
76. Searcy, C. (2014). Measuring Enterprise Sustainability // Business Strategy and the Environment. Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 120–133. doi: 10.1002/bse.1861
77. Shafer, E. W., Fukukawa, K., Lee, G. M. (2007). Values and the Perceived Importance of Ethics and Social Responsibility: The U.S. versus China // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 70, pp. 265–284. doi: 10.1007/s10551-006-9110-9
78. Silberhorn, D., Warren, R. C. (2007). Defining Corporate Social Responsibility: A View from Big Companies in Germany and the UK // European Business Review. Vol. 19, No. 5, pp. 352–372. doi: 10.1108/09555340710818950
79. Silvestre, W. J., Antunes, P., Leal Filho, W. (2018). The Corporate Sustainability Typology: Analysing Sustainability Drivers and Fostering Sustainability at Enterprises // Technological and Economic Development of Economy. Vol. 24, No. 2, pp. 513–533. doi: 10.3846/20294913.2016.1213199
80. Simionescu, L. N. (2015). The Relationship Between Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Sustainable Development (SD) // Internal Auditing & Risk Management. Vol. 38, No. 2, pp. 179–190.
81. Singh, J., Svensson, G., Wood, G., Callaghan, M. (2011). A longitudinal and Cross-Cultural Study of the Contents of Codes of Ethics of Australian, Canadian and Swedish Corporations // Business Ethics: A European Review. Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 103–119. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8608.2010.01612.x
82. Skouloudis, A. (2014). Revisiting the National Corporate Social Responsibility Index. – Munich Personal RePEc Archive. Internet access: https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/id/eprint/64864
83. Stemler, S. (2001). An Overview of Content Analysis // Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation. Vol. 7, No. 17. Internet access: http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=17

84. Turker, D. (2009). Measuring Corporate Social Responsibility: A Scale Development Study // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 85, No. 4, pp. 411–427. doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-9780-6
85. Tziner, A., Bar, Y., Oren, L., Kadosh, G. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility, Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction: How do They Interrelate, If at All? // Revista de Psichologia del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones. Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 67–72. doi: 10.5093/tr2011v27n1a7
86. Uddin, S., Siddiqui, J., Islam, M. A. (2018). Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosures, Traditionalism and Politics: A Story from a Traditional Setting // Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 151, No. 2, pp. 409–428. doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3214-7
87. Unerman J. (2000). Methodological Issues: Reflections on Quantification in Corporate Social Reporting Content Analysis // Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal. No. 13, No. 5, pp. 667–681. doi: 10.1108/09513570010353756
88. Vitezic, N. (2011). Corporate Reputation and Social Responsibility: An Analysis of Large Companies in Croatia // International Journal of Economics and Business Research. Vol. 10, No. 8, pp. 85–96. doi: 10.19030/iber.v10i8.5380
89. Waldman, D. A., Siegel, D. S., Javidan, M. (2004). CEO Transformational Leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility. – Rensselaer Working Papers in Economics, pp. 1–40. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.00642.x
90. Wettstein, F. (2009). Beyond Voluntariness, Beyond CSR: Making a Case for Human Rights and Justice // Business and Society Review. Vol. 114, No. 1, pp. 125–152. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8594.2009.00338.x
91. Zadek, S., Raynard, P., Oliveria, C. (2005). Responsible Competitiveness. Reshaping Global Markets Through Responsible Business Practices. – AccountAbility: FDC, p. 130.
92. Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Reciprocal Relationships between Job Resources, Personal Resources, and Work Engagement // Journal of Vocational Behavior. Vol. 74, No. 3, pp. 235–244. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2008.11.003

The paper submitted: April 20, 2020
Prepared for publication: July 15, 2020

Izolda SKRUIBYTĖ

ĮMONIŲ SOCIALINĖS ATSAKOMYBĖS VERTINIMO TARPTAUTINIAME KONTEKSTE PROBLEMOS

Santrauka

Dėmesys įmonių socialinei atsakomybei (ĮSA) nemažėja keletą pastarųjų dešimtmečių dėl galimos jos teigiamos įtakos stiprinant įmonių konkurencingumą ir prisidedant prie tvaraus ekonomikos augimo. ES komisija, JT organizacijos, kitos tarptautinės institucijos bei pavieniai ekonomistai atkreipia dėmesį, kad, siekiant paskatinti įmones prisiimti daugiau atsakomybės už vykdomą veiklą, labai svarbu kuo tiksliau įvertinti įmonių socialinę atsakomybę ir galimą jos įtaką ekonominiams bei socialiniams procesams. Suinteresuotųjų šalių reikalavimai įmonėms ir lūkesčiai iš įmonių veiklos nuolat didėja. Ilgą laiką vyraves tradicinis požiūris, kai ĮSA išskirtinai buvo siejama su filantropine veikla, užleidžia vietą holistiniam požiūriui. Šiuo metu ne taip svarbu, kaip įmonės panaudoja uždirbtą pelną, kiek jo skiria visuomenės socialinėms ar ekonominėms problemoms spręsti, bet svarbu, ar sąžiningai ir kokiomis priemonėmis pelnas uždirbamas. ĮSA kaip socialinis reiškinys yra labai dinamiškas, daugialypis ir sudėtingas procesas, o jo turinys nuolat plečiasi ir apima vis daugiau aspektų. ĮSA samprata reikšmingai skiriasi priklausomai nuo šalies kultūrinės aplinkos, dominuojančios politinės sistemos bei ekonominio šalies išsivystymo, todėl jo vertinimas tampa vis sudėtingesnis ir kompleksiškesnis.

Straipsnio tikslas yra atskleisti pagrindines problemas, kurios kyla tyrėjams vertinant ĮSA tarptautiniame kontekste. Straipsnyje atskleidžiami ĮSA būdingi svarbiausi bruožai, pateikiami, analizuojami ir lyginami skirtingi ĮSA vertinimo metodai atskleidžiant jų pranašumus bei trūkumus.

ĮSA įvertinti neretai pasirenkamas apklausos metodas. Nors dėl klausimynų sudarymo metodikos, klausimų formulavimo, respondentų imties reprezentatyvumo, prasto grįžtamojo ryšio,

kultūrinių skirtumų bei kitų priežasčių gali kilti netikslumų matuojant ĮSA, apklausos instrumentas leidžia išsamiai įvertinti socialinę atsakomybę mikrolygiu ir yra ypač naudingas siekiant įvertinti ĮSA sritis, kurias sunku išmatuoti standartiniais kiekybiniais rodikliais.

Socialinė atsakomybė vis plačiau siejama su ilgalaikiais įmonės konkurenciniais pranašumais, kuriuos įmonė gali įgyti įsipareigodama darbuotojams, pirkėjams, bendruomenei ir kitoms suinteresuotoms grupėms. Įmonės vis dažniau naudoja ir viešai skelbia verslo etikos kodeksus, teikia ir viešina socialinės atsakomybės bei metines finansines ataskaitas, Taip pat apie dalyvavimą atsakingo verslo tinkluose. Nors skelbiamų dokumentų turinys yra labai skirtingas, informacija pateikiama selektyviai, dažniausiai akcentuojant tik teigiamą informaciją apie įmonę, vis tik profesionaliai pasirinkti raktiniai elementai informacijai koduoti leidžia tyrėjams vis sėkmingiau naudoti dokumento analizės metodą ĮSA išmatuoti.

Siekiant atspindėti ĮSA kompleksiškumą, makrolygio tyrimuose labiausiai paplitęs indekso skaičiavimas. Nors kiekviena organizacija paprastai naudoja savo sukurtą indekso skaičiavimo metodiką, o indekso dedamosios ne visada turi vienodą svorį bendrame indekse, visi indeksai daugiau ar mažiau atspindi ekonominę, socialinę ir aplinkosauginę sritis. Indekso skaičiavimo metodas, lyginant su apklausos bei turinio analizės metodais, yra pranašesnis, nes vadovaujamasi tais pačiais vertinimo principais, jungia tiek kiekybinius, tiek kokybinius ĮSA aspektus ir gali kompleksiškai įvertinti ĮSA. Informacijai gauti naudojami skirtingi duomenų šaltiniai, paprastai dalyvauja didesnė ar mažesnė tyrėjų grupė, todėl vertinimas yra objektyvus ir patikimas.