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Article:

Corporate Social Responsibility in International Marketing:

Review, assessment, and future research

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Abstract

Purpose:

Although Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has been an issue of major concern for marketers for more than half a century, only recently has it attracted the attention of international marketing researchers. During the last two decades, this body of research has experienced an increasing trend, which, however, is very fragmented and diverse. In response, this article aims to review, assess, and synthesize extant research on the role of CSR activities in international marketing.

Design/methodology/approach:

Our review and assessment covered the period from 1993 to 2013 and all relevant articles were traced, using both electronic and manual search methods. Altogether, we identified 132 studies published in 106 articles that appeared in 63 journals. Each article was content analyzed by two coders who worked independently from each other, using a structured coding protocol. Due to the nominal nature of the finalized codes, these were statistically analyzed taking the form of percentage frequencies.

Findings:

The results were organized in terms of theoretical, methodological, and empirical considerations. Theoretically, a third of the articles were not anchored on any theory, while the remainder employed various theoretical platforms, with stakeholder theory having a predominant role. Methodologically, this specific body of research is characterized by growing sophistication and rigor, with some room for improvement, especially as regards the use of longitudinal research, better sampling methods, wider geographic scope, and advanced statistical analysis. Empirically, a broad range of issues was covered, with the most widely studied being those focusing on the elements of international marketing strategy, external environmental influences, and CSR practices.

Originality/Value:

We review and assess 21 years of research conducted on a crucial and contemporary dimension of international marketing, namely CSR. Our findings provide useful insights for public policymakers, business managers, academic scholars, and marketing educators. We also provide detailed directions for future research, extracted from the articles reviewed.

Paper type: Literature review

Corporate Social Responsibility in International Marketing:

Review, assessment, and future research

Introduction

Although Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has been an issue of major concern for marketers for more than half a century, less attention has been paid to its international dimensions (Zeriti et al., 2014).[1] However, this is surprising, because: (a) the relative freedom that many firms enjoy when operating beyond their national borders makes them more vulnerable to social-related issues like human rights abuses, unhealthy working conditions, and 'anti-social' behavior (Vogel, 2005);[2] (b) the dramatic growth of both mass and social media has put the international operations of many firms under greater scrutiny by consumers and other stakeholders, who have lately demonstrated a greater tendency to punish irresponsible business behavior (Auger et al., 2010; Williams and Zinkin, 2008); and (c) competing on societal rather than economic grounds has been gaining momentum recently, particularly among multinational corporations (MNCs), which, due to their financial, technological, and allied strengths, are expected to take a more active role in accommodating global environmental, ethical, and other challenges (Kolk and van Tulder, 2010; Matten and Crane, 2005).

The link between marketing and CSR dates back to the late 1960s, when there was a call for marketers to harmonize their economic motives with socially responsible goals and ethical standards, as is the case with marketing's role in addressing poverty problems in low-income countries (Patterson, 1966; Holloway, 1969; Kotler and Levy, 1969). However, these early conceptualizations focused on perceptions of managerial social duties and not on how marketing

can be involved and contribute to the social development of the firm (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). It was not until the 1980s, that fresh theoretical contributions acknowledging the role of marketing within CSR emerged, with the works of Robin and Reidenbach's (1987) on the integration of social responsibility into strategic marketing planning and Varadarajan and Menon's (1988) on cause-related marketing (CRM).

These developments in the marketing field have inspired international marketing scholars to incorporate CSR issues in their research agendas.[3] For example, Collins (1993) was among the first to focus on how international marketing practices should accommodate the long-term interests of foreign societies and on how corporate philanthropy could be part of the agenda of societal marketing. Moreover, the concentration of excessive power in the hands of MNCs and their engagement in a number of social transgressions, have been the reasons for attracting a great deal of criticism that disputes their legitimacy to operate beyond borders (Scherer and Palazzo, 2011). Furthermore, "socially responsible behavior may mean different things in different places to different people and at different times" (Campbell, 2007: 950), which creates difficulties in applying the CSR concept when transcending national boundaries (Bondy and Starkey, 2014). Finally, international firms interact with different sets of stakeholders in each country and, therefore, they need to undertake different sets of responsibilities in each case and at multiple levels (Valor, 2007).

Although the growth of articles written on the link between CSR and international marketing has been relatively slow, a sufficient volume of articles has accumulated over time to warrant a critical review and synthesis. As opposed to several studies reviewing the link between CSR and domestic marketing (e.g., Chabowksi et al. 2011; Vaaland et al. 2008), no such attempt has yet been made in an international marketing context. However, this is particularly important

in light of the great fragmentation, diversity, and, sometimes, incongruity of studies in the field, which constitute a serious barrier for practice development and theory advancement (Rousseau et al., 2008; Kolk and van Tulder, 2010). Indeed, the extant literature has been criticized for neither providing a clear guiding framework for managers on how to implement CSR in international markets (Maignan et al., 2005; Zeriti et al., 2014) nor "really" addressing crucial CSR issues within the overall international business field that could help to improve theoretical knowledge on the subject (Bondy and Starkey, 2014; Campbell, 2012).

Compiling a holistic picture of how international marketing researchers have approached CSR issues over time will help to provide useful insights for four major recipients: (a) public policymakers, who will be better able to acknowledge the needs and wants of various stakeholder groups regarding CSR issues, formulate appropriate CSR policies, and provide incentives that will encourage socially responsible behavior on the part of indigenous firms when operating in international markets (Amato and Amato, 2011; Becker-Olsen et al., 2011); (b) business managers, who will receive input in identifying, understanding, and effectively responding to social problems in foreign markets, as well as avoiding any misconduct in their international marketing behavior (Husted and Allen, 2007); (c) academic scholars, who will have access to an inventory of knowledge that will help to provide the basis for further research on the link between international marketing and CSR (Bondy and Starkey, 2014); and (d) marketing educators, who will gain an all-round understanding of some of the key socially responsible issues in international marketing, which can be incorporated in their curricula in order to shape the code of conduct of tomorrow's international marketing managers (Singhapakdi et al., 2001).

In light of the above, the aim of this study is to review, assess, and synthesize extant research on the role of CSR activities in international marketing during the period 1993-

2013. Specifically, we have four major objectives: (a) to identify and analyze those paradigms that provided the theoretical background of articles on the subject; (b) to assess the research methodologies employed by these articles, with regard to problem crystallization, scope of research, sampling design, fieldwork procedures, and analytical methods; (c) to identify, assimilate, and discuss the key thematic issues addressed in the articles reviewed; and (d) to develop a comprehensive research agenda for future enquiries on the subject, based on input extracted from the studies reviewed, but also from the wider field of CSR.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: First, the evolution and application of the CSR concept within the sphere of marketing and international marketing is discussed. The investigation method used to identify and analyze the articles that comprise this review is subsequently explained. We then present the different theoretical platforms used by studies in the field. The methodological aspects of empirical articles on the subject are subsequently evaluated. The next section focuses on the analysis of the key thematic areas and discusses findings relating to each of them. This is followed by a summary and conclusions of the study. The final section presents suggestions for future thematic areas on the subject.

Historical evolution of CSR and its link to marketing

This section provides a chronological evolution of CSR and how this has ultimately been applied to marketing and international marketing (see **Table 1**). The CSR concept was first introduced in the early **1950s** by Bowen (1953), who defined it as "the obligation to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society". This new term initiated a long-lasting debate on the role of business in society (Margolis and Walsh, 2003), and has increasingly become an important

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concept within management (de Bakker et al., 2005), as well as in other functional enterprise areas, such as marketing (Kemper et al., 2013). During this early phase, CSR was regarded with some skepticism by practitioners and academics alike, with Levitt (1958) warning corporations that CSR may detract them from their profit maximization goal and endanger their mere survival. In his view, general welfare and social concerns were the sole responsibility of governments, while the firm's role was to fulfill the "material aspects" of welfare.

…insert Table 1 about here…

In the **1960s**, the academic and intellectual debate was extended to focus on identifying the underlying reasons for firms to engage in social responsibilities (Lee, 2008; Carroll and Shabana, 2010). In this period, the US witnessed the emergence of an increasing activism which had its roots in the growing role of social groups like the feminist movement, and the movements in support of the mentally and physically challenged, native people, and minorities (Cochran, 2007). A number of NGOs also emerged and, along with social activists, were supported by the public, who objected to the irresponsible use of power by corporations, which gave rise to unacceptable practices in various parts of the world. These included the abusive treatment of labor, unethical behavior, and bribery (Lantos, 2001). For the first time, corporations received such a degree of unwanted media attention, that a number of US corporations began to publish social reports demonstrating that they behaved in a responsible manner (Lantos, 2001; Secchi, 2007). As a result, the subject began to attract academic interest, with the attention focusing primarily on the role of macro-social institutions. In fact, CSR was perceived as a "corrective" mechanism in the face of governmental social ills and its importance was attributed to the collapse of laissez faire as the prevailing economic order (Lee, 2008). The limited marketing literature on the subject at that time stressed the necessity to develop practical answers to

questions relating to the social responsibility of marketers (Patterson, 1966) and to broaden the concept of marketing to include CSR-related issues, such as fundraising (Kotler and Levy, 1969).

The focus in the **1970s** changed from CSR to corporate social responsiveness, in the sense that firms were gradually moving toward actually taking action and responding to various social pressures by the changing of products, policies, and other business dimensions (Frederick, 1978). The new rationale of "enlightened self-interest" was also invented and embraced the notion that flourishing societies to which businesses belong are a precondition for organizations to thrive (Lee, 2008). This concept was in direct contrast to Friedman's (1970) argument that the sole purpose of business was to make profits and that corporate managers were unable to deal with both social and financial issues simultaneously. The term Corporate Social Performance (CSP) was born in this decade, which recognizes that firms must respond to social demands (Sethi, 1975). This term was later refined by Carroll (1979) who differentiated four types of social pressures, namely: economic (e.g., jobs, wages, services), legal (e.g., legal compliance and playing by the rules of the game), ethical (e.g., being moral and doing what is just, right and fair), and discretionary (optional philanthropic contributions to alleviate poverty or illiteracy and improve social welfare and quality of life). The degree of managerial emphasis in each of the four responsibilities of business (economic, legal, ethical and discretionary) determines the nature of the strategy implemented, ranging from proactive to reactive. During this decade, marketing scholars gradually entered the CSR debate, but continued to ignore the question of how marketing could affect the social role of the firm. Rather, their analysis was restricted examining the social duties of the marketing function (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). The need for marketing to exhibit social behavior was gradually gaining ground (Bartels, 1974; Takas, 1974) and some of the identified responsibilities of marketers included the misuse of society's resources, environmental pollution, and caring for the poor (Lavidge, 1970).

The **1980s** witnessed the proliferation of key CSR concepts, such as corporate business ethics, stakeholder analysis, public policy, and the debate on CSP (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). In this period, Freeman (1984) introduced the widely accepted stakeholder management model in an attempt to equip firms with a systematic approach to deal with changes in their environment. The first steps for operationalizing CSR were also evident in testing the relationship between CSR and financial performance (Cochran and Wood, 1984; Aupperle et al., 1985). Sustainability was also first introduced in the report Our Common Future by the World Commission on Environment and Development (Brundtland Commission Report, 1987). During this period, fresh perspectives from marketing scholars initiated a new era of CSR within the marketing field, such as aligning social responsibility with strategic marketing planning (Robin and Reidenbach 1987) and cause-related marketing with marketing strategy (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988).

The **1990s** was the decade of CSR seen from a strategic management perspective, where social responsibility is considered to be in line with profit-maximization, thus making business and society better off. This rationalization of the CSR concept on financial grounds made it more attractive to managers, but also provided a pragmatic argument for the vast majority of academic literature to focus on (Windsor, 2006). In fact, many researchers found it more practical to explain CSR by using the stakeholder model employed in a number of pivotal publications (e.g. Clarkson, 1995; Jones, 1995). This stakeholder perspective was responsible for expanding the CSR concept to include additional dimensions, such as diversity, the environment, and transparent accounting practices (Lee, 2008). During this decade, marketing scholars approached CSR mainly as a stand-alone issue or employed limited aspects of the concept, such as: charitable contributions (e.g., File and Prince, 1998), consumer responses to CSR initiatives (e.g., Brown and Dacin 1997), the perceived importance of ethics and social responsibility among marketing practitioners (e.g., Singhapakdi et al., 1996), socially responsible buying (e.g., Drumwright,

1994), and CSR beneficial outcomes for marketing (e.g., Maignan et al., 1999). This decade also witnessed the initial signs of 'internationalizing' the CSR concept, such as the first auditable certification standard (dealing with labor issues across industries) issued by Social Accountability International and the initiation of the development of the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI).

CSR has gained tremendous attention during the **2000s**, which is reflected in the numerous articles published on the subject. Initially, the decade was marked by many social scandals (beginning with the Enron and ending with the Wall Street Financial scandals), which led to the emergence of the term "corporate social irresponsibility" (Murphy and Schlegelmich, 2013). Sustainability began to arouse the interest of a wide part of the business community and became an essential part of the CSR concept (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). This decade also witnessed the development of various non-profit organizations (e.g., Ethical Corporation), as well as supra-national institutions (e.g., the European Commission) trying to promote CSR (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). During this decade, CSR attracted a new line of criticism, centering on the way it was developed and elaborated to strengthen the position of large corporations by overemphasizing its instrumental aspects (Prasad and Holzinger, 2013). As a consequence, external stakeholders have received minimal attention within the overall CSR debate, and the obsession to prove the business case of CSR has exacerbated the arguments against CSR as a narrowly defined concept (Barnerjee, 2008; Lee, 2008). This criticism is in line with the accusation of marketing as suffering from a "new myopia", because marketers ignore both the multi-task role of the customer in today's society (e.g. employee, consumer, parent) and the value that marketing can create for other stakeholders (Öberseder et al., 2013). Marketing is acknowledged to have the capacity to develop the social and economic processes to create skills and knowledge in all stakeholders. This new emerging logic is based on marketing's expertise to build and maintain a network of relationships with various stakeholder groups (Vargo and Lusch,

2004). This logic has also been extended to international business requiring marketers to extend their communication efforts and dialogue beyond their customers, to include more distant and marginalized stakeholders, who are the most negatively affected by their actions (Prasad and Holzinger, 2013).

Investigation method

Our review covers all articles that have an explicit focus on the link between CSR and international marketing, since the inception of this body of research in 1993. For an article to be included in our review, it had to fulfill the following criteria: (a) to appear in an article published in a referred academic journal, rather than a book, book chapter, conference proceedings, or practitioners' magazine, where knowledge validation is ambiguous; (b) to be of a conceptual, methodological, or empirical nature, while editorial comments, research notes, replies, and reviews/meta-analyses were excluded; (c) to have a purely international flavor, in the form of either selling goods to foreign markets or comparing CSR issues in multiple countries; (d) to focus on CSR issues relating to marketing, rather than other business functional areas (e.g., finance, human resources, production, research and development); (e) to focus on CSR as a holistic concept, rather than tackling single dimensions of it, such as environmental marketing and marketing ethics; (f) to cover the CSR activities of firms in the private sector, rather than the public sector, which has a unique approach to handling these activities; and (g) to approach CSR matters from a supply (i.e., firm) and/or demand (i.e., consumer) perspective.

Relevant articles were identified from a variety of electronic databases, such as EBSCO, ABI/Proquest, and Science Direct, using the keywords: 'multinational firms', 'transnational firms', 'global corporations', 'foreign/global consumers', 'international marketing', 'cross-cultural marketing', and 'cross-national marketing'.[4] These were seen in conjunction with such

CSR terms as 'responsible marketing', 'sustainability', 'social responsibility/performance', 'cause-related marketing', 'stakeholder(s)', 'irresponsibility', and 'corporate citizenship'. To make sure that all relevant articles were incorporated, we also employed a manual search process, by examining, for example, the table of contents of journals and the reference lists of the articles selected. We also thoroughly examined previous reviews of the CSR literature, such as those by Vaaland et al. (2008), Chabowksi et al. (2011), Peloza and Shang (2011), and Aguinis and Glavas (2012), to identify articles relevant to our study.

The outcome of this process was to identify 132 studies published in 106 articles that appeared in 63 journals (see **Appendix II**). Notably, twelve journals accounted for more than half (51.9%) of the articles, while the remaining journals (i.e., 48.1%) contributed only one article each. The top three journals that contributed most of the articles were: Journal of Business Ethics (18.8%), Journal of Business Research (6.6%), and Journal of International Marketing (4.7%). Most of the articles (62.6%) were of an empirical nature, another 36.5% were conceptual, while only one article (0.9%) was of a purely methodological nature (see **Figure 1**). Approximately half (50.5%) of the articles were published after 2010, indicating a growing interest in the subject in recent years. Further, 71.7% of the articles were of an international nature, while the remainder (28.3%) provided cross-country comparisons.[5]

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Following other assessments of the international marketing literature (e.g., Leonidou et al., 1998; Leonidou and Katsikeas, 2010, Aykol et al. 2013), the method of content analysis was used to extract information from the articles selected. The appropriateness of this method lies in the fact that it is: (a) objective, following a set of rules that define categories in a precise manner, giving a better footing for scientific analysis than the purely narrative approach and minimizing

researcher bias; (b) systematic, observing and treating the content of each study based on a planned approach (e.g., set of rules for methodological treatment) that is consistently applied; (c) quantitative, providing the extent of "emphasis or omission" of a given category set by the coding protocol, which can further be used for statistical purposes (Kassarjian, 1997).

Articles were content-analyzed based on a coding protocol, which comprised four sections: (a) theoretical, focusing on the specific theories employed, such as stakeholder theory, institutional theory, resource-based view, and resource-dependence theory; (b) methodological, dealing with methodological issues, such as problem crystallization, time dimension, variable association, geographic focus and focus region, unit of analysis, firm size, variable association, sampling design, sample size, data collection, response rate, and statistical method; (c) empirical, focusing on the specific thematic areas tackled, categorized in nine broad categories, namely, external influences on CSR, internal influences on CSR, stimuli/barriers to CSR, consumer CSR aspects, CSR practices, CSR strategic aspects and the marketing mix, CSR company communications, performance implications, and miscellaneous issues;[6] and (d) future directions, seeking ideas for new areas of research within each of the previous nine thematic areas.

The coding of the articles was undertaken by two coders, with sufficient experience and knowledge of the subject. Both underwent rigorous training, focusing on understanding the research objectives, the key areas and items used in the assessment, and the coding procedure. Each coder was also supplied with a coding manual, incorporating definitions and explanations of the theoretical, methodological, and empirical issues under investigation (see **Appendix III**). Before initiating the full-scale coding process, coders tested the workability of the coding protocol on a few randomly selected articles, and further improvements were

made. Subsequently, the two coders were given the full set of articles that were found eligible for the purposes of the study and were asked to transfer all relevant information onto the coding protocol, working independently of each other. All information was coded on categorical scales, indicating whether or not the specific item was applicable.

The information contained in the coding protocols completed by the two coders was subsequently compared and contrasted to identify any discrepancies. An inter-coder reliability analysis revealed a high degree of agreement between the two coders (ranging from 87% to 100%), which is well within acceptable levels (Kassarjian, 1977). For those items given a different coding by the two coders, the following actions were taken: first, each coder was separately asked by the principal investigator to justify the specific choice made, as well as to show the raw data leading to the inference. Then, both coders participated in a meeting with the principal investigator, in which the most suitable alternative was selected. Following the resolution stage, the information contained in the coded sheets was edited and checked for completeness. All finalized codes were subsequently entered in a software program (MsExcel) for statistical analysis. Because the information gathered was of a nominal nature, the statistical analysis took the form of percentage frequencies. In addition, we performed a chronological analysis to establish trends, and, for this purpose, the articles collected were categorized into three time periods: 1993-2004 (25 articles), 2005-2009 (27 articles), and 2010-2013 (54 articles).

Theoretical Assessment

This section assesses the theoretical underpinnings of the articles reviewed (see **Table 2**). Notably, slightly more than one third of them were not anchored on a specific theory, and this was particularly true during the early stages of this research. The remainder employed specific theories, such as stakeholder theory (21.7%), institutional theory (8.5%), resource-based view

(5.7%), resource-dependence theory (3.8%), legitimacy theory (3.8%), and information processing theory (2.8%).

…insert Table 2 about here…

Stakeholder theory, the most widely employed theory, states that organizations need to address the needs and wants of a number of stakeholders (e.g., employees, shareholders, consumers, government), which may directly or indirectly affect or be affected by the firm's activities (Freeman, 1984). This theory was mainly used to examine which stakeholders draw the attention of companies to social reporting (Waller and Lanis, 2009) and company's websites (Maignan and Ralston, 2002). Further applications include the role of CSR–attributions of the firm's internal stakeholders (e.g., employees) (Vlachos et al., 2010), the importance of institutionalization of a multi-stakeholder perspective during decision-making, creating a brand insurance effect (Werther and Chandler, 2005), and the impact of CSR practices toward certain groups of stakeholders on global brand equity (Torres et al., 2012).

Drawing on institutional theory, which is based on the premise that "institutions are the structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behavior" (Bansal and Bogner, 2002: 276), the institutional environment of developing countries (as opposed to that of developed nations) has been considered as determining legitimacy of societal marketing programs (Zeng et al., 2013); prescribing the differentiation strategies in foreign markets, one of which is CSR-differentiation strategy (Boehe and Cruz, 2010); acting as a driver for the adoption of CSR disclosure practices (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2011); and focusing on the role of institutions in shaping the CSR communications of local and global companies (Tang and Li, 2009). Overall, the institutional approach to CSR development and implementation emphasizes the benefits

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accrued when social legitimacy is obtained in a given institutional environment (Campbell et al., 2012).

The resource-based view (RBV) suggests that strategic resources and capabilities, which are characterized by uniqueness, inimitability, value, and non-substitutability, are conducive to gaining and sustaining a competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). This theory was particularly used to examine the potential of CSR as a resource, exhibiting inimitability characteristics in foreign markets in terms of enhancing reputation and brand image for the firm (Boehe and Cruz, 2010), the effect of continuous innovation and stakeholder integration resources on the development of social strategy in foreign markets (Husted and Allen, 2007), the impact of CSR (as a moderator) on the strength of marketing capabilities on financial performance (Kemper et al., 2013), and the role of CSR in building brand image (Popoli, 2011).

Resource-dependence theory was applied to investigate several issues, such as: the role of external power influences on sustainability reporting (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2011), the success of "powerful" stakeholder communities on influencing organizational buying practices (Maignan and McAlister, 2003), the control of the firm over its subsidiaries' resources in terms of authority in centralizing decision-making that can lead to more CSR standardization (Merz and Peloza, 2010), and the overall role of political imperatives in the headquarters-subsidiaries relationship (Jamali, 2010). This theory was particularly useful in explaining why specific stakeholder groups can exert greater power than others in satisfying their "demands" over an organization (Pfeffer, 2003).

Closely related to institutional theory is legitimacy theory, which was used especially within the context of CSR communications. For instance, reporting and annual disclosure practices were used to build relationships with 'relevant publics,' becoming in this way a tool to

build legitimacy and reputation, with the emphasis placed on adjusting CSR dimensions to different cultural contexts' values and norms (Golob and Bartlett, 2007; Waller and Lanis, 2009). Combined with impression management theory, legitimacy theory was also applied in the context of CSR advertisements of well-known international companies attempting to legitimize their activities in foreign markets. The content of the advertisements was either informative or attempting to 'divert attention' from socially condemned activities (Perks et al., 2013). CSR was also identified in the context of reducing liability-of-foreignness and obtaining legitimacy "earlier" than usual, when "good faith" in the host country publics was evident (Campbell et al., 2012).

Information processing theory was applied to test consumers' decision-making with regard to evaluating different cues. For example, in terms of new product attributes, as in the case of socially responsible issues that are perceived as intangible product attributes, consumers tend to use extrinsic cues to evaluate price and product quality (Ha-Brookshire and Yoon, 2012). In fact, their motivation to process such information is highly dependent on novelty (La Ferle et al., 2013). Moreover, in a multi-cue context, combining tangible and intangible attributes, consumers were found to place more value on social attributes (Auger et al., 2010).

Finally, other theories, such as agency theory (1.9%), political economy (1.9%) and signaling theory (1.9%), were used to a very limited extent. Agency theory was employed to understand how the codes of conduct and CSR standards impose costs and time burdens in global supply chains, how benefits from social behavior are unequally distributed across the supply chain (Pedersen and Andersen, 2006), and how the composition of the board of directors affected CSR communications (Lattemann, 2009). Political economy, being part of systems theories, along with legitimacy and stakeholder theories, was used to show how social institutions dictate

CSR practices (Waller and Lanis, 2009). Signaling theory served as the theoretical background to support how local donations (e.g., cause-related marketing) were perceived by consumers as a more tangible cue than general donations (La Ferle et al., 2013), as well as how the perceived credibility of global brands positively affects consumer perceptions on CSR (Özsomer and Altaras, 2008). Other theories that were rarely used included fairness theory (Vlachos et al., 2010), social exchange theory (Eisingerich and Rubera, 2010), slack resources theory (Amato and Amato, 2011), inequity aversion and social preference theories (Becchetti and Rosati, 2007).

A number of observations can be made with regard to the theoretical background of CSR studies in international marketing: first, the fact that there was a significant decrease over time in the percentage of studies that did not use any specific theory indicates a conscious effort by scholars in the field to provide theoretical reasoning for their research questions (in parallel to theoretical developments when examining CSR in a domestic context); second, there was a tendency to broaden the range of theoretical perspectives, which is healthy for better understanding, for example, complex and controversial topics, as is the use of the CSR concept in the international marketing field; third, although some theories (e.g., stakeholder theory) were extensively used, other theories (e.g., signaling theory), with a potential role in gaining insights into international CSR phenomena, were virtually neglected; fourth, it is an encouraging finding that one in six studies adopted multiple theoretical lenses, since this will help to see the role of CSR from complementary (and sometimes conflicting) perspectives, broadening and enriching in this way our conceptualizations on the subject (Carter and Easton, 2011).

Methodological Assessment

Table 3 presents the results of the methodological assessment of the 106 articles under investigation.[7] With regard to problem crystallization, there appears to be a tendency to adopt

more formalized as opposed to exploratory approaches, largely attributed to the transferring of well-established hypotheses and models from the most advanced field of domestic marketing to international marketing. For example, some formalized studies tested the effect of CSR on global brand equity (Torres et al., 2012), the role of CSR in obtaining legitimacy (Zeng et al., 2012), and the impact of stimulating factors in adopting CSR (Lattemann et al., 2008). Most of the studies during the initial stages of this line of research were of a descriptive nature (e.g., measuring managerial perceptions of the role of social responsibility), although causal studies (e.g., the effect of CSR capabilities and strategy on business performance) have gradually increased proportionately, especially in the last few years.

…insert Table 3 about here…

The overwhelming majority of empirical articles included studies of a cross-sectional nature, mainly because they are less time-consuming, costly, and administratively difficult as compared to longitudinal studies. Despite the dynamic nature of both CSR and the international marketing environment, longitudinal studies were evident in a limited number of studies (reported in 5.7% of the articles). This type of research was used, for example, to test the effect of CSR on brand equity across a long period of time (Torres et al., 2012), to analyze trends through reporting (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2012), and to observe performance implications of global retailers' social reports (Xun, 2013). Notably, most of these studies were characterized by the use of secondary data.

Empirical articles focused increasingly on a single country context (27.4%), focusing, for example, on the role of MNCs in a host environment (Husted and Allen, 2007) or a comparison of the CSR practices of local versus international firms (Narwal and Singh, 2013). Slightly more than a third (i.e., 34.9%) of the articles focused on two countries or more. The most widely

researched regions were North America, which is the birthplace of CSR, and Europe, which has experienced a transfer of power from governments to corporations as a result of growing liberalization trends. Moreover, the fact that most of the scholars in the field are affiliated to universities/institutions based in these regions contributed to the excessive research emphasis. Although Asia was researched on a much smaller basis, it has attracted greater attention in recent years, as a result of increasing concerns about the socially irresponsible behavior of some MNCs operating in this region (Xun, 2013).

Empirical studies were more or less equally divided between those focusing on a single industry (23.6%) and those adopting a multi-industry perspective (28.3%) (with studies covering three or more industries being the norm). In most articles, the emphasis was on foodstuffs and textiles, while chemicals, retailing, and financial services were the focus of a handful of studies. Notably, despite efforts regarding multi-industry investigations, recent years have witnessed the growing use of single industries, in order to better control for confounding effects on CSR activities caused by industry-related factors.

The unit of analysis was in the majority of cases the firm (i.e., 26.4%), as opposed to consumers, which was the focus of 15.1% of the studies. Websites (Waller and Lanis, 2009), advertisements (Perks et al., 2013) and reports (Delai and Takashi, 2013) were the focus of 9.4% of the studies, and these were examined using content analytic methods (e.g., Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Wanderley et al., 2008). Other units of analysis employed were managers (e.g., Slater and Dixon-Fowler, 2009), external stakeholders (e.g. Xun, 2013), and employees (e.g., Vlachos et al., 2010).

Regarding sampling methods, 14.2% of the articles covered the whole population, this being particularly true in the case of those focusing on industries comprising a small number of

firms. Another 15.1% of articles used probabilistic methods, usually associated with small sample sizes, while 20.8% employed non-probability procedures, most frequently taking the form of convenience samples. In the majority of studies (i.e., 28.3%), the sample size was below 99 units, which reflects the case-study and in-depth interview approach adopted by many researchers in the field. In 21.7% of articles, the sample ranged from 100 to 249 units, whereas only 9.4% of the studies used samples exceeding 500 units. A tenth of the studies did not disclose their response rate, but of the remainder this averaged 35.7%. Surprisingly, the overwhelming majority of empirical studies did not use a non-response bias test, which questions the representativeness of their results.

The most popular primary data collection method was the personal interview (reported by 17.0% of the studies), followed by drop-in questionnaires (12.3%) and mail surveys (5.6%). Although electronic means of collecting data were in general rarely employed, in the last few years these have recorded a sharp increase, possibly due to their less expensive and more convenient administration. Secondary data were rarely used, and these were mainly derived from external databases and/or company reports (including CSR disclosures). In the majority of cases, the key informant was the manager or the consumer, while in a handful of cases (e.g. Boehe and Cruz, 2008; Zalka et al., 1997) students served as informants. Only a few studies (e.g., Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2011; Kemper et al., 2013) combined both primary and secondary sources of information, while in rare cases (e.g., Drumright, 1994; Xun, 2013) there was a combination of different types of secondary data.

Only a fifth of studies embarked on data reliability and, to a slightly lesser extent, validity tests, while testing for social desirability bias (which is highly relevant for the CSR type of research) was virtually non-existent. However, problems with data purification, often described

as the "sine qua non" of research, questions the quality of findings, and seems to be endemic in the general CSR literature (Carter and Eastor, 2011; Lee, 2008; Vaaland et al., 2008). Data analysis was mainly conducted using multivariate statistical methods during the first two periods, while modeling techniques (such as SEM) became more popular in relatively more recent articles. This is in line with developments taking place in research on domestic CSR phenomenon.

The previous methodological assessment gives rise to a number of issues: first, although the survey method (using either personal interviews or mail questionnaires) was the most widely used for data collection, a notable number of studies adopted a content analysis of reports and websites, which were widely used by firms to communicate their commitment to CSR (Perks et al., 2013); second, the fact that cross-sectional designs (which provide only a snapshot of the evidence) were by far mostly employed in this line of research, is inconsistent with the dynamic nature of CSR, which requires more longitudinal investigations; third, research in international marketing mainly covered the developed parts of the world (especially large and powerful economies), but neglected emerging economies and less-developed countries; fourth, despite the fact that CSR interacts with a wide range of stakeholders (e.g., governments, competitors, internal publics, etc), the unit of analysis was confined to 'traditional' informants, namely company managers, consumers, and business students, thus resulting in a partial view of this complex subject (Vaaland et al., 2008); finally, the conceptual chaos that exists within the overall CSR field was responsible for the diversity of operationalizations of the CSR construct, which in many cases did not capture socio-cultural differences across countries (Arthaud-Day, 2005).

Empirical Assessment

Key issues that address the link between CSR and international marketing can be classified in nine broad categories (see **Table 4**). The first category refers to the external environmental

influences, with the most frequently examined element being culture, particularly focusing on determining perceptions, expectations, and the structure of socially responsible strategies. Many studies have stressed the role of cultural factors in explaining variations of CSR practices and programs across countries (Bouvain et al., 2013; Merz and Peloza, 2010; Torres et al., 2013). Competitive pressures (even in the form of negative media attention) (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2011) and media visibility and publicity efforts (Islam and Deegan, 2010) were also found to determine social responsibility disclosure by international firms. Industry-level factors affected CSR brand leadership (Lotila, 2010) and the extent to which CSR issues were addressed (Lattemann et al., 2009; Wanderley et al., 2008). For example, compared to service firms, the manufacturing sector tends to be involved more in CSR issues, due to the fact that it faces more environmental, labor, and social challenges (Lattemann et al., 2009). This is particularly true of industries with a high impact on socially responsible issues, such as oil and gas, chemicals, and forestry (Amato and Amato, 2011). The economic and regulatory environment was found to play a crucial role in providing a minimum of responsibilities (mainly of a legal nature) as a starting point for the firm to base its strategy and achieve legitimacy (Chahal and Sharma, 2006; Singhapakdi et al., 2001). Finally, the role of certification bodies was another important element guiding acceptable socially responsible practices (Golob and Bartlett, 2007), with the focus on the facilitating role of both international certification standards (e.g., SA 8000) (Miles and Munilla, 2004) and reporting initiatives (e.g., the Global Reporting Initiative) (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2011) on implementing socially responsible strategies by improving organizational competences.

…insert Table 4 about here…

The second category concerned internal company influences (organizational or managerial) on CSR. With regard to organizational influences, the existence of an ethical climate

(Singhapakdi et al. 2001), the development of socially responsible values (Karna et al., 2003), and the potential of an organizational context to strategize socially responsible practices (Drumright, 1994), were all found to be conducive to building a socially responsible strategy. CSR was also found to enhance the impact of the four elements of the marketing mix on financial performance in a competitive marketplace (Kemper et al., 2013). Corporate governance, including the board of directors and CEO duality, was associated with greater CSR disclosure, whereas large firms (e.g., multinationals) were more inclined to report their CSR activities (Lattemann et al., 2009). The emphasis of managerial factors was mainly on the demographic characteristics of managers (where women showed a greater belief in the positive impact of CSR on organizational effectiveness) (Singhapakdi et al., 2001), policy entrepreneur commitment (Drumright, 1994), entrepreneurial orientation of the owner or CEO (Lindgreen et al., 2012), and CEOs' international assignment experience. These were shown to enhance awareness of societal stakeholders, to positively influence personal values, and favorably impact on organizations' social performance (Slater and Dixon-Fowler, 2009). The need to obtain legitimization and credibility of the international firm's subsidiaries in host countries was a key motivational factor for managers to engage in CSR. Country size and budgetary allocation of profits also affected the degree of managerial commitment to CSR activities in international markets (Jamali, 2010).

The third category included stimuli and barriers to CSR adoption. With regard to stimuli, the emergence of global social preferences and the growth of global sustainability segments (Holt et al., 2004) were found to attract firms to both developing social products (e.g., fair trade-labeled products) and building socially responsible global brands (Becchetti and Rosati, 2007). Other stimulating factors were: effectiveness of CSR in building relationships with various publics (Kim and Choi, 2013), the potential positive contribution of CSR to brand enhancement, image building, and corporate reputation elements (Husted and Whitehouse, 2002; Nikolaeva and Bicho,

2011; Werther and Chandler, 2005, Torres et al., 2013). A desire to change and improve people's lives in base of the pyramid (BoP) markets (e.g., raising income through collaborative partnerships) was also found to stimulate CSR activity in the international firm (Chikweche, 2013). With regard to barriers to CSR adoption in international marketing, these included: (a) unfavorable attributions and low awareness of CSR activities, which prevent firms from enjoying high business returns (Du et al., 2010); (b) the non-transferability of already existing firm/marketing capabilities to BoP markets and the requirement to build new ones (Van de Waeyenberg and Hens, 2012); (c) consumers paying more attention to product quality of a global brand than attributions pertaining to socially responsible issues (Madden et al., 2012); (d) the ill-integration of marketing planning with the firm's overall sustainable development policy (Tinsley and Melton, 1997), and (e) macro- environmental problems in host countries, especially those with developing economies, such as inadequate public infrastructures, corruption and political instability, hyperinflation, foreign currency restrictions, poor distribution, and raw material shortages (Chikweche, 2013).

Consumer-related aspects comprised a category on its own, due to the existence of many studies examining CSR issues from the standpoint of consumer buyers. Here, the focus was on consumer perceptions that were compared to those of managers of multinational firms, indicating a high congruence as to whom and for what corporations are and must be held responsible (Öberseder et al., 2013). Moreover, buyer loyalty toward socially-responsible brands was found to be stronger in cultures that are collectivistic, long-term oriented, and having a high power distance (Eisingerich and Rubera, 2010). The effect of consumer nationality on conceiving CSR dimensions was found to be more or less the same in France and Germany, when these were measured on each of the four responsibilities identified by Carroll (Maignan, 2001). With regard to consumers paying a price premium for CSR claims, this was confirmed when the claims were

of an environmental nature (especially in US and Europe), but in the case of socially responsible claims, consumers requested some discount (Loose and Remaud, 2013). In addition, consumer demographics (e.g., gender, age, tenure) or consumer-sought benefits (e.g., price, quality, recreation) were found to affect consumer sensitivity to social responsible issues on a global scale. For example, women and persons who are politically left-oriented exhibited more interest in CSR issues (Zalka et al., 1997). Consumer retaliation, especially in cases where companies acted irresponsibly, was greatly affected by cultural characteristics (Williams and Zinkin, 2008).

With regard to CSR-related practices, the most widely examined issue was the BoP markets. Although, these markets possess unique and challenging features, it was revealed that marketers could engage in strategic initiatives resulting both in poverty alleviation and greater profits for the multinational firm (Kircheorg and Winn, 2006). Stakeholder management was also widely studied, mainly emphasizing how specific stakeholders in foreign markets can exert their power over developing socially responsible practices (Drumwright, 1994), as well as how stakeholder issues gain different prominence in various parts of the world (Jurgens et al., 2010). A number of studies also revealed the instrumental role of cause-related marketing: (a) to change the company's image as a relationship building strategy of marketing activities in the Web (Husted and Whitehouse, 2002); (b) to reduce consumer skepticism (Bronn and Vrioni, 2006); and (c) to boost a company's overall CSR image by participating in product campaigns, such as product RED (Ponte et al., 2009). Another line of research examined the influential role of cultural differences (with regard to people's social concerns) on variations of CRM-based brand positioning strategy on a global scale (Endacott, 2004). Philanthropic strategies were also perceived to fulfill the duty of multinational firms to be both profitable and socially responsible (Collins, 1993). This issue was also examined from a standardization/localization perspective, where similarity in terms of the dominant value system, cultural dimensions, market

infrastructure, and the political/legal environment between home and host country suggested greater standardization (Merz et al., 2010). Moreover, issues pertaining to sustainable development involved: specific requirements to implement such a policy by the various entrepreneurial functions, particularly by marketing planning, which was shown to be a latecomer to the process (Tinsley and Melton, 1997); and the importance of integrating sustainable development values to achieve socially responsible marketing strategies (Barthel and Ivanaj, 2007; Kolk and Margineantu, 2009). The final element in this category focused on MNCs' commitment to quality of life (QOL) issues, revealing that catering for the well-being of various stakeholder groups has a positive impact on corporate profitability (Amato and Amato, 2011).

As expected, socially responsible marketing strategy was the most examined area of research, which took many different paths, namely brand positioning, product, price, distribution, and promotion. With regard to product positioning, the emphasis was mainly on balancing the integration of environmental aspects with consumer needs (Tinsley and Melton, 1997), as well as adopting proactive sustainability initiatives to gain a competitive advantage (Karna et al., 2003). In addition, strategic positioning in terms of social action was found to result in value creation for MNCs, especially in the case of countries characterized by stable environments, where it is difficult to pursue other forms of differentiation (Boehe and Cruz, 2008). In the case of promotion, the emphasis was on: sustaining the consumers' level of awareness and enhancing corporate image and consumer preferences for CSR-minded companies (Singh et al., 2008); finding appropriate communication channels and messages for achieving success in CSR communications (Du et al., 2010); building socially responsible global brands in different cultures, economies, and political landscapes (Becker-Olsen et al., 2011); and using public relations to manage stakeholders effectively in diverse country settings (Lotila, 2010). Research on product covered issues such as: how CSR attributes contribute to product differentiation

(Boehe and Cruz, 2010); information conveyed in terms of CSR-labeled products in a retail context across countries, product categories and types of brands (Carrero and Valor, 2012); and social product features, such as fair labor practices, animal rights and new product development, and environmental concerns in products (Auger et al., 2010). Research on distribution channels covered a wide range of topics, namely: determining CSR-related investments in relationships with foreign suppliers within contexts where stakeholder orientation is high (Foreman, 2011); incorporating environmental concerns as non-economic criteria for socially responsible distributorship buying (Maignan and McAlister, 2003); and building competitive sustainable global value chains that take into account bargaining power among their upstream and downstream members (Cruz and Boehe, 2008). In terms of price, research centered on the willingness of consumers to pay for products exhibiting social attributes (Auger et al., 2010), as well as price perceptions when social and environmental attributes are evident in the product (Ha-Brookshire and Yoon, 2012).

CSR communications were studied within the framework of how the company's social reports, websites, social media, and advertisements in different countries are linked with socially responsible practices, processes, and actions (Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Jayakumar,2013). Social reports were employed to indicate the motives (e.g., stakeholder-driven, value-driven, etc) behind the communication of CSR activities of domestic firms, as opposed to MNCs (Amezaga et al., 2013); the amount of CSR activity being communicated (Lattemann et al., 2009); and the effect of external events on social reports content (Islam and Deegan, 2010). With regard to company websites, the focus was on: the impact of financial dimensions on corporate citizenship (Hartman et al., 2007); legal, ethical and moral categorization of messages conveyed in web-pages (Snider et al., 2003); the specific approach adopted to communicate CSR activities (ad-hoc versus strategic) (Tang and Li, 2009); and the firm's commitment and eagerness to portray a CSR

image on the Web (Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Golob and Bartlett, 2007). Only one study investigated the role of social media (e.g., Twitter), revealing a failure to provide congruence between the firm's CSR agenda and stakeholders' expectations (Colleoni, 2012). Finally, another study found a discrepancy between the MNCs' efforts to legitimize their actions through claims made in their advertisements and the substantiation/correctness of these claims (Perks et al., 2013).

With regard to CSR outcomes/implications, the thrust of the research was on CSR's positive impact on brand image enhancement (Bronn and Vrioni, 2001), increasing brand value (Bouvain et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2012), and developing brand insurance (Werther and Chanlder, 2005). Some studies also demonstrated the positive role of CSR on firm's marketing performance (e.g., marketing new products) (Chahal and Sharma, 2006; Zeng et al., 2013), customer commitment to a brand (Eisingerich and Rubera, 2010), customer purchasing likelihood (Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Walsh and Bartikowski, 2013), and customer value (Chuntarug et al., 2013). Social performance outcomes of CSR were also examined, especially within the context of building stakeholder relationships (Du et al., 2010), as well as the impact of other firms' social activities, such as community, philanthropy and environment (Chahal and Sharma, 2006). In addition, compared to quality differentiation, differentiating products in terms of CSR dimensions had more predictive power as regards the firm's export performance in certain developed countries (Boehe and Cruz, 2008). Finally, some studies highlighted the role of CSR activities in reinforcing the favorable impact of marketing capabilities value creation on financial performance (Kemper et al., 2013), as well as generating a positive economic value for the firm (Husted and Allen, 2007).

The final category contained various miscellaneous issues, such as how advertising agencies disclose CSR practices (Waller and Lanis, 2009), the role of CSR on event sponsorship effectiveness (Lacey et al., 2010; Walker et al., 2013), the negative aspects of CSR implementation on innovation and entrepreneurship (Miles et al., 2002), and CSR being perceived as a marketing activity, rather than an ethical or philanthropic action (Bagire et al., 2011).

Our empirical assessment of research on CSR and international marketing revealed some interesting points: first, there is a notable dispersion and fragmentation of the thematic areas tackled, which to a great extent reflects the plethora of CSR definitions and operationalizations used and broadness of the CSR construct itself (Kolk and van Tulder, 2010); second, most of the topics addressed were underdeveloped or partially explored, which is mainly attributed to their novel nature (e.g., social media) and/or international specific character (e.g., BoP); third, the literature has been somewhat more descriptive than prescriptive in nature, which is associated with the fact that CSR is still a vague concept (both in terms of its definitional and measurement aspects), discouraging in this way its holistic treatment (Avetisyan and Ferrary, 2013; Hah and Freeman, 2014); fourth, there was a gradual shift from the macro-social effects of CSR (e.g., external environmental influences) to micro-organizational level analysis of CSR (e.g., strategic implications on performance), which signifies a trend to make CSR more appealing to investors, shareholders, and internal publics; finally, only a small amount of research was directed to examine other stakeholders beyond the consumer, which is problematic, since a solid CSR program must account for responsibilities toward various stakeholder groups (Maignan et al., 2005).

Summary and conclusions

As a general conclusion, the literature on CSR issues in international marketing seems to follow a rapidly developing and widely spreading pattern, which is characterized by increasing sophistication, innovative elements, and useful insights. This confirms Cavusgil and Cavusgil's (2012) recent claim that, in the future, CSR will play an increasingly decisive role in shaping the international marketing landscape, thus making the combined examination of these two fields of research a fertile ground for offering useful insights to international marketing managers. This is particularly true nowadays, in light of growing public concern and sensitivity to socially-related issues (Auger et al., 2010), the imposition of stringent laws by many governments regulating the behavior of firms, and the intensification of competition on a global scale (Reuter et al., 2010). Thus, stemming from this review, a number of interesting theoretical, methodological, and empirical issues, that can inform and lead the marketing literature toward fulfilling marketing's current role, are revealed.

Theoretically, the majority of studies on the subject are anchored on specific theoretical platforms, which, however, are diverse and sometimes contradictory. The predominant theoretical paradigm employed was the 'stakeholder theory', while other main theories used in descending frequency were: institutional theory, resource-based view, resource-dependence theory, legitimacy theory, and information processing theory. Although these theories provided a suitable base for understanding the role of CSR in international marketing, there is room to expand their application or adjust these theories to the specific conditions prevailing in the international marketplace. For example, the resource-based view could be employed to examine the interaction of CSR with other organizational resources and capabilities found at the subsidiary level (Husted and Allen, 2007). Moreover, other theories could also be used to examine international CSR phenomena, such as organizational learning theory, transaction cost

theory, social exchange theory, and social network theory. For instance, social network theory could be employed to examine the diffusion of CSR within network structures and how organizational resources can be shared to promote this activity. Furthermore, the development of a specific theory explaining the firm's international CSR behavior from a broader societal perspective (particularly taking into consideration politico-economic and socio-cultural differences across countries) would help to gain better insights. Our theoretical understanding of the subject could also become more complete if researchers adopted a paradigmatic pluralism, by combining complementary, and sometimes rival, theories within the same study.

Methodologically, pertinent studies are characterized by growing sophistication and rigor. For example, there has been a growing tendency for more formalized and causal studies, as well as relatively large samples. However, there is room for improvement as regards using longitudinal studies (especially in light of the fact that the firm's benefits from adopting a CSR approach to international marketing take some time to appear), adopting more random sampling procedures, and combining primary with secondary data. The geographic focus could also be extended to take into account other areas, especially the emerging economies of Latin America and Asia, where there is a rising middle class and economic activity in the global economy is expanding (Cavusgil and Cavusgil, 2012). Regarding the unit of analysis, a different level of analysis (e.g., institutional, organizational, individual), as well as different units within each level (e.g., consumers, community members, non-business informants), should be incorporated in future studies, since this will help to integrate and balance the responsibilities of various stakeholder groups (Ferrell et al., 2010). In addition, researchers are challenged to develop "fine-grained and multi-dimensional" CSR measurement scales, proceed with construct evaluation methods, and employ more robust statistical analysis techniques (such as structural equation modeling) (Boehe and Cruz, 2008; Xun, 2013). Since CSR is a social phenomenon with a very

diverse and complex nature, the proportion of qualitative research designs needs to be increased (Vaaland et al., 2008). Toward this end, case studies could prove beneficial in providing in-depth understanding of the subject, as well as identifying new variables and relationships on the intersection of CSR and international marketing (Vaaland et al., 2008). Although current qualitative research, using data triangulation, is useful, further research should be conducted to improve the internal and external validity of data across studies (McGrath, 1982). To make the analysis more complete, it would be fruitful to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches and include more ethnographic research (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012).

Empirically, this body of research has swiftly expanded to cover a broad range of issues, with the most widely studied being those focusing on international marketing strategy, namely the product, price, distribution, and promotion. The second most important category was external environmental influences, particularly cultural influences on CSR. Consumer-related aspects of CSR was another popular area, with consumer perceptions of the various CSR activities attracting most of the attention. However, there still is no clear answer to 'when, how and why' consumers respond to corporate responsibility, especially when practices of MNCs are involved (Hartmann, 2011). Internal company influences were ranked fourth in terms of frequency of investigation, with the emphasis being primarily on organizational factors and managerial attitudes/characteristics. Although awareness of CSR practices of MNCs is extremely important for shaping the perceptions and expectations of stakeholders (Auger et al., 2010), the communication aspects of CSR were the focus of one fifth of studies. Surprisingly, the performance outcomes of CSR activities in international marketing (e.g., financial, social, etc), although crucial in guaranteeing their further continuation, received only marginal attention. Moreover, it would be interesting to acknowledge how predictors at the macro-level influence a lower level of analysis and vice versa. This of course, presupposes the development and

employment of novel methodologies (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). Lastly, integrative models incorporating mediators and moderators should be empirically tested to improve our understanding of the processes by which CSR outcomes unfold (over time) and the conditions under which CSR leads to specific outcomes (Kemper et al., 2013, Lattemann et al., 2009).

Limitations

Our findings should be seen within the context of certain limitations. First, our study focused on the role of CSR in international marketing as a holistic concept, while more specific aspects comprising this concept were excluded from the analysis. This is because, while some elements of CSR have been heavily examined and became the object of specialized reviews, such as environmental marketing (e.g., Leonidou and Leonidou, 2011) and marketing ethics (e.g., Schlegelmich and Öberseder, 2010), others, such as financial responsibility (e.g., Fernandez-Feijoo et al., 2014) and health and safety (e.g., Herrick, 2009), have attracted only sporadic or peripheral attention from scholars in the field.[8] However, irrespective of the emphasis given to the specific components of CSR, their international dimensions have rarely been examined.

Second, although every possible effort was made to identify articles focusing on the link between CSR and international marketing published in various sources, the 'blurred' nature of the CSR construct still leaves some room for a few relevant articles to have been excluded from the review process (Vaaland et al., 2008). There is also the possibility of international marketing aspects of CSR appearing in academic journal articles that could not be traced by our search efforts because they had a peripheral role in the specific study.

Third, due to linguistic constraints, our study excluded articles written in languages other than English. However, it is understood that the CSR subject has gained momentum across countries. Therefore, it is possible that some articles focusing on the link between CSR and

international marketing will have appeared in non-English literature sources (e.g., German, French, Spanish). In addition, the fact that our study covered articles published in academic journals only, excludes the possibility of capturing some potentially useful material from conference proceedings, monographs, dissertations, theses, chapters, and books.

Finally, our study has adopted a traditional approach to analyzing the content of the articles collected, although it is understood that recent developments in qualitative data analysis, using computer software programs like NVivo, Qualrus, CATPAC, can provide a more dynamic, transparent, and insightful perspective (Sinkovics and Alfoldi, 2012). The study findings could also be augmented if a bibliometric analysis were pursued, whereby linkages between the various thematic areas and their items could be established, as well as their impact in terms of citations determined (Chabowksi et al., 2011).

Future Research Directions

Although extant research on the link between CSR and international marketing has provided important inroads on the subject, there is room for expansion into other untested areas (see **Table 5**). With regard to external environmental influences, it would be illuminating to align factors external to the firm with various CSR dimensions, particularly focusing on: the role of governmental organizations' incentives and punishments in CSR engagement, how the post-financial crisis era has affected and shaped socially responsible strategies, as well as the role of industry as a moderator of socially responsible behavior (Amato and Amato, 2011); certification and reporting standards (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2012); and the role of institutional norms and practices of the home country in shaping the CSR behavior of MNCs in international markets (Campbell et al., 2012), and the role of isomorphic pressures on CSR practices, as well as whether MNCs mimic local CSR strategies (Yang and Rivers, 2009). Moreover, instead of

examining the role of culture in the international firm's CSR practices at national level, it would be more appropriate to go down to the regional (and even individual) level (Eisingerich and Rubera, 2010).

…insert Table 5 about here…

Research should also give more consideration to internal company influences, such as the effect of organizational design (particularly organizational structure/networking of regional headquarters) (Jamali, 2010), governance structure and ownership status of the parent corporation, which may influence CSR engagement in host countries (Campbell et al., 2012) and expanding the list of organizational resources and capabilities and their potential interaction with CSR initiatives (Husted and Allen, 2007; Leonidou et al., 2013). To be able to address the conflicting demands of various stakeholder groups, based on the international firm's limited organizational resources, it is important to investigate organizational values and norms (Maignan and Ferrell, 2005). The role of additional managerial factors, such as risk aversion, educational background, international exposure, and decision-making autonomy also warrant further examination. This is especially true in light of the fact that managerial composition in large MNCs is becoming increasingly more heterogeneous (Singhapakdi et al., 2001; Slater and Dixon-Fowler, 2009). Managerial perceptions of the benefits derived from CSR, as well as managerial expectations in applying CSR across different cultural settings, could shed more light on the subject (Quazi and O'Brian, 2002). Examining the potential of international business managers as change agents, their willingness to surrender some of their decision-making power to external stakeholders, and the role of transformational leadership characteristics, could provide useful input into CSR research (Prasad and Holzinger, 2013).

In the case of stimuli and barriers, future research could focus on determining: the nature and power of the various stakeholders (both internal and external) of MNCs (Foreman, 2011), stimulating the initiation of CSR activities and their degree of sensitivity towards CSR issues (Öberseder et al. 2013). In fact, the extant literature is restricted to the perceptions of mainly consumers and managers concerning CSR activities, while the views of other important stakeholders (e.g., investors, employees, community) are neglected (Öberseder et al., 2013). Also, the role of NGOs, which can seriously stimulate CSR initiatives by international firms (in the form of strategic alliances and/or collaborative partnerships) warrants investigation (Maignan and McAlister, 2003). Since prior research has given only limited attention to barriers to the adoption of CSR practices, it is crucial to identify those forces that are discouraging or preventing international firms from embarking on socially responsible strategies. This could include the moderating/mediating role of organizational characteristics between organizational values, intentions, concerns, and actual CSR strategies (Tang and Li, 2009). Other impeding forces, especially in the case of firms operating in developing countries, are poor economic conditions, unstable political environments, and unique socio-cultural settings (Azmat and Ha, 2013; Chikweche, 2013).

Important avenues for research also exist within the consumer behavior sphere, especially as regards: (a) consumer awareness, sensitivity and style vis-à-vis CSR issues (Zalka et al., 1997); (b) the incentives/methods used to reduce consumer skepticism about CSR activities on a cross-cultural basis (Williams and Zinkin, 2008); (c) the way consumers define responsibilities, whether they consider economic responsibility to be a part of CSR and how their awareness of the CSR activities of multinational firms can help to design suitable marketing communications strategies (Singh et al., 2008); (d) the role of cognitive (e.g., trustworthiness) and affective responses (e.g., pride) as aspects of foreign consumer behavior in positively receiving the firm's

CSR efforts through advertising and other marketing efforts (Du et al., 2010); (e) the types of actions consumers take to punish irresponsible company behavior and how these are differentiated across countries (Williams and Zinkin 2008); and (f) the role of the cosmopolitan consumer and the convergence of lifestyles and values worldwide in influencing consumer beliefs, norms, and ideas toward CSR activities (Yaprak, 2008).

Some of the current challenges concerning CSR-related practices call for the investigation of the effectiveness of cause-related marketing and philanthropy of MNCs in international markets, an assessment of their impact on developing a global code of conduct, and the development of subsequent consumer perceptions of their altruistic motives (La Ferle et al., 2012). In addition, with regard to cause-related marketing, it is important to identify what specific activities/events have the greatest appeal for the relevant stakeholders in BoP markets in order for the "cause" to be successful (Lacey et al., 2010). Since the potential and challenges of BoP markets (e.g., high poverty, great heterogeneity, lack of experience in tackling them) have received growing attention in recent years, it is important to examine: (a) which organizational capabilities can create social innovations that can lead to success in these markets (Varadarajan, 2014) and (b) what is the role of international marketing activities in raising the quality of life of BoP segments (Wood et al., 2008; Kircheorg and Winn, 2006)? It would also be useful to examine how MNCs express quality of life (QOL) commitments by analyzing their strategies and communication practices (e.g. websites, advertisements) (Amato and Amato, 2011). Future research could focus on internal and external stakeholders' educational needs on sustainability issues in emerging markets (Nkamnebe, 2010) and sustainability practices within the marketing mix (Delai and Takahashi, 2013; Zeriti et al., 2014).

Research on the strategic aspects of socially responsible marketing could focus on the effect of the CSR advertisement campaigns of MNCs in reaching consumers and other stakeholders on a cross-border basis (Du et al., 2010), the non-economic CSR criteria used in buyer-supplier relationships (Maignan and McAlister, 2003), the impact of CSR in choosing distribution channels and foreign suppliers (Foreman, 2011), and how CSR issues help to shape supply chain policies (Carrero and Valor, 2012). Other issues of strategic importance that warrant further investigation include: segmenting foreign markets based on their reactions to the international firm's socially responsible behavior (Becker-Olsen et al., 2011); determining how sustainable product differentiation and social product features influence prices in foreign markets, and how willing consumers are to pay for CSR-labeled products (Auger et al., 2010); the proper configuration of a responsible assortment of products by MNCs (Carrero and Valor, 2012); and how a public relations strategy can help to improve relationships with various stakeholder groups (Lotila 2008). Moreover, the standardization versus localization of CSR in international marketing undertakings still remains an underdeveloped area and therefore more light needs to be cast on whether MNCs should stimulate centralized CSR strategies or whether they should develop these locally in consultation with host stakeholders (Leonidou et al., 2013; Jamali, 2010).

With regard to CSR company communications, the importance of certain CSR practices that are suitable for stakeholders in different countries needs to be clarified, by analyzing their specific business, political, and cultural environments (Lotila, 2008). Also, although communications initiated by firms aim to project themselves as good citizens, they are nevertheless sometimes perceived as green-washing activities and/or or pure public relations initiatives (especially in certain product categories, such as cigarettes and alcoholic beverages) (Tang and Li, 2009). As a result, it is important to examine how stakeholders interpret these

efforts, how their skepticism can be reduced and how more efficient communications can be built (Snider et al., 2003). Another important issue to be resolved is whether the traditional marketing tools used to communicate practices of corporations in the global arena are suitable for CSR issues (Van de Ven, 2008). It would also be of interest to track the evolution of CSR indicators and level of communication over time, using longitudinal studies (Amezaga et al., 2013).

Research on the outcomes of CSR efforts in international marketing should examine the competitive and social advantages gained from the implementation of CSR activities in global markets (Husted and Allen, 2007; Narwal and Singh, 2012); returns from CSR investments on customer outcomes on a long-term basis (Chahal and Sharma, 2006); the role of global reputation and brand image gained from CSR practices, and the conditions in which brands receive disproportionate rewards from CSR-related approaches (Du et al., 2010); innovation and quality outcomes accrued from engagement in CSR activities (Walsh and Batikowski, 2013); and the market (e.g., market share) and financial (e.g., ROI) implications of CSR-related international marketing programs (Chahal and Sharma, 2006). Whereas the domestic marketing field has been flooded with studies aiming to examine the relationship between the firm's social performance and financial performance, such an investigation is still lacking within the international marketing field. To establish the success of socially responsible marketing programs, metrics that include various social actors beyond the company and the customer should be considered thus, adopting a network-oriented perspective (Pergelova and Angulo-Ruiz, 2013).

Finally, with regard to miscellaneous CSR issues, the implementation of social responsibility in international marketing curricula and the effect of educational dimensions in shaping future CSR behavior of international marketers warrant attention. In addition, the consequences of marketing harmful products in foreign markets and their link with socially

responsible initiatives can be further investigated (Smith et al., 2010). Researchers may also explore the interaction of CSR and entrepreneurship within the international marketing field, such as the role of radical innovations, and the trade-offs that exist between socially responsible decisions and traditional economic decisions (Pagell and Shevchenko, 2014).

Notes

1. CSR is a multifaceted and dynamic concept, which embraces issues such as good employee relations, community contribution, environmental protection, financial responsibility, and business ethicality. Clearly, CSR is an overlapping concept with business ethics, stakeholder management, and sustainability (Carroll, 1999). As a result of being studied from different conceptual and disciplinary angles, "no single, comprehensive, and universally applicable definition of [CSR] is possible" (Epstein, 1989: 585). It is a concept that changes over time in line with the evolution of values and norms of different societies. Thus, it is only natural to have a variety of definitions for CSR (Matten and Moon, 2008).

2. In recent decades, a number of international firms have experienced consumer boycotts and protests as a result of their contested operations. Some well-known examples are those of Nike's outsourcing operations in Asia with accusations of child labor abuse, Nestle's selling of problematic baby formula in Africa, and Coca-Cola's alleged violation of human rights in Columbia (Hills and Welford, 2005).

3. Within the international marketing literature, a coherent and comprehensive understanding of CSR as an activity that delivers substantial valuable outcomes is still lacking. This is reflected in the different definitions of CSR proposed at times. Within the international marketing sphere, the most common appear in **Appendix I**, together with examples of studies that have made use of them.

4. Rather than restricting our literature search to journals with the highest impact in the field of marketing (and international marketing), we opted to include all published and accessible referred business journal articles focusing on the link between CSR and international marketing. In this way, we wanted to track down all available knowledge on the subject (Tranfield et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2011).

5. Previous general (e.g., Albaum and Peterson, 1984; Egri and Ralston, 2008) and specialized (e.g., Leonidou et al., 2010; Schlegelmich and Öberseder, 2010) reviews of the international marketing literature have also incorporated these articles containing cross-country comparisons, because they take into consideration variations in marketing across different socio-economic settings.

6. These thematic areas, and the specific items they contain, were developed as follows: first, all articles collected were independently reviewed by two experts in the field, and a lengthy list of items focusing on the link between CSR and international marketing was produced; second, the items identified were categorized into groups, based on previous categorizations made by other reviews on the subject and/or hints provided in the literature (e.g., Chabowski et al., 2011; Hoejmose et al., 2012; Morali and Searcy, 2013; Vaaland et al., 2008), while items that could not be allocated to any category were inserted in the 'miscellaneous' group; third, a panel of academics with an interest in both CSR and international marketing was invited to verify these categorizations, by taking two separate steps: (a) assigning titles to unnamed groups of items as categorized earlier; and (b) assigning items extracted from the list compiled under given thematic titles; and fourth, the various thematic areas and the specific items contained were finalized after a brainstorming session in which both the two experts and the academic panel members participated.

7. Fifteen articles carried out more than one study in different countries to collect their primary data. As a result, some methodological issues, such as focus region, sample size, data collection method, and response rate, received multiple entries.

8. With regard to financial responsibility, the focus was on how the relationship of companies with their stakeholders affects the transparency of their reports, using the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) (Fernandez-Feijoo et al., 2014),

as well as on how the level of transparency of financial disclosures influences investors' behavioral intentions and trust in the context of brokerage firms (Wang, 2010). In the case of health and safety, some of the issues addressed refer to the way companies promoting health and well-being to combat obesity can increase consumer goodwill and brand value (Herrick, 2009) and how consumers react to a product-harm crisis (Vassilikopoulou et al., 2009).

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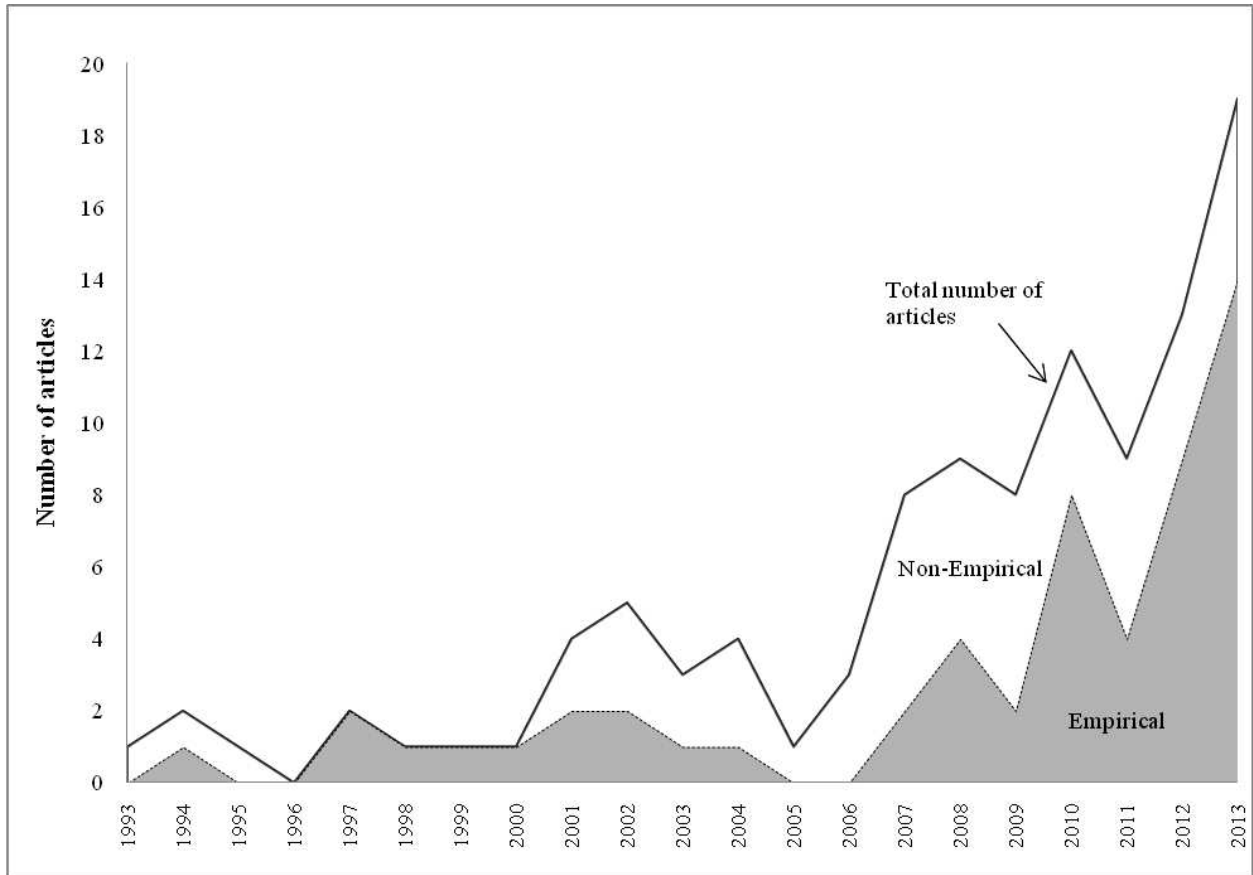**Figure 1: Evolution of research on CSR and International Marketing**

Table 1: Critical aspects in the evolution of CSR

Time period	Major CSR-related incidents	Key CSR events	Business response to CSR	Marketing dimensions of CSR
1950s	* Beginning of Lockheed bribery scandals. * Chisso Corporation was dumping toxic mercury into the Minamata Bay in Japan causing death, insanity, birth defects and deformities. * Payola Scandal (bribe in the music industry).	* United Nations Abolition of Forced Labor and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention. * United Nations Equal Remuneration Convention.	* Introduction of the Social Responsibility of Businessmen. *Dangers of social responsibility to business success. * Business supporting good causes using philanthropic actions.	* Social role of marketing and its quest for social approval. * Touching upon issues of poverty for marketers operating in the third world.
1960s	* The "Soybean Scandal" or "Salad Oil (financial) Scandal". * Union Oil (Unocal) spill in Santa Barbara, California, the biggest of its time.	* Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights adopted by the UN. * The leading NGO on international conservation, the World Wilde Fund, established. *Birth of social responsibility movement.	*CSR as the corrective mechanisms of the social ills created by the laissez-faire economy. *Improving the understanding of specific dimensions of CSR.	* Developing practical answers to questions related to social responsibility of marketers. * Broadening the marketing concept to include CSR-related issues, such as fundraising.
1970s	* Nike was criticized for Child Labor abuse. * Nestlé faced boycott for promoting its Infant Formula over breast feeding in Africa. * Hooker Chemical uses Love Canal near Niagara Falls to burry toxic chemicals causing both environmental damage and health defects.	* First Earth Day. * Greenpeace adopts policies that for the first time require direct actions from the corporate sectors. * United Nation's Code of Practice for Transnational Corporations.	* Turning CSR into a more tangible concept (e.g., corporate social responsiveness). * Introduction of the notion of Corporate Social Performance (CSP).	* Social behavior of marketing. * Marketing integrates responsibilities to respect for society's resources, environmental conservation, and the poor.
1980s	* Coca-Cola's infringement of human rights in Colombia, Guatemala and Turkey. * Exxon Valdez spill in Alaska with devastating environmental consequences. * Crazy Eddie retail chain underreporting income for almost 20 years.	* Brudtland Commission to publish the report "Our Common Future". * The World Conservation Strategy is released by International Union for Conservation of Nature.	* Operationalization of CSR to examine its relationship with performance * Emergence of alternative themes specialized themes such as business ethics, corporate public policy.	* New conceptualizations of CSR within marketing. * Environmental Marketing and CRM. * Social Responsibility to fulfill the firm's social contract with society.
1990s	* Shell and the Nigeria Delta – pollution, human life, and human rights. * Nike's sweatshops in Asia. *Waste Management Scandal (accounting scandal-reporting fake earnings). * BCCI bank fraud scandal.	* Institutionalization of CSR with standards like ISO 14001 and SA 8000, guidelines like GRI and voluntary corporate governance codes. * Earth Summit in Rio - 180 countries participate. * Fair Trade is founded supporting disadvantaged producers in LDCs.	* Introducing new CSR concepts such as Sustainability and Corporate citizenship. * CSR seen from a strategic management angle: Tighter coupling of CSR with performance. * Internalization of CSR.	* Marketing's involvement in charitable contributions. * Examination of consumer responses to CSR initiatives. * Marketers' perceptions of CSR on organizational effectiveness. * Introducing the concept of socially responsible buying. * CSR beneficial outcomes to marketing.
2000s	* Enron and Wall Street Financial Scandals. * Statoil corruption and bribery practices in Iran. * Foxconn Scandals in China. * Amazon, Google and Starbucks tax avoidance in the United Kingdom. *Horsemeat Scandal in Europe.	* Launching of ISO26000 guiding principles on CSR and of the FTSE4 Good Index and improvements of other initiatives such as GRI. * European Commission's first green paper to promote CSR. * UN Convention Against Corruption.	* The notion of Sustainable Development is gaining more ground. *Introduction of the term Corporate Social Irresponsibility. * Increasing interest of issues on Social Reporting and Auditing.	* From market orientation to stakeholder orientation and the stakeholder model for marketing, * Consumer reactions to CSR and its effect on marketing outcomes. * Consumer retaliation and sustainable consumption, philanthropy and CRM.

Note: Compiled based on input from Carroll and Shabana (2010), Czinkota et al. (2014), de Bakker et al. (2005), Lee (2008)

Table 2: Theoretical underpinnings of research on CSR and international marketing

Theoretical paradigm	Key aspects of theory	Examples of application
Stakeholder theory (21.7%)	Managing divergent interests that come from persons or groups that can affect or are affected by the firm is the essence of stakeholder theory. Though, due to the limiting nature of giving attention to all stakeholders, the notion of stakeholder salience has come to the fore. Hence, it evaluates stakeholders on the grounds of their power, legitimacy and the urgency of their claims against the firm.	● Historical and socio-political factors determine how stakeholders are managed in the EU and the US, where the importance on building stakeholder relations with northern Europe is emphasized (Jurgens et al., 2010). ● Social reporting as a method of self-presentation and impression management, promoted by using the Internet ensures that information is available to satisfy various stakeholders' interest in the firm's public behavior (Snider et al., 2008).
Institutional theory (8.5%)	Institutional theory suggests that firms should abide by the desires of social expectations and norms in order to retain their legitimacy. Institutions set the rules of the game and determine organizations' expectations and performance.	● The role of the institutional environment in terms of acting as a driver for the adoption of the GRI reporting tool as legitimate and reputational (Nikolaeva and Bicho, 2012). ● The effects of regulative, normative and cognitive aspects in an emerging country on how international firms conduct societal marketing to obtain legitimacy (Zeng et al., 2013).
Resource-based view (5.7%)	Firms are bundles of resources, such as physical, human and organizational, that can lead to the creation of competitive advantage. Nonetheless, heterogeneity in firms resources can't lead to CA itself, but what is required is the strategic deployment of resources in the form of higher –level capabilities (e.g. marketing capabilities).	● CSR product differentiation and its impact on export performance (Boehe and Cruz, 2008). ● Stakeholder integration and continuous innovation capabilities effects on social strategic planning and positioning (Husted and Allen, 2007). ● CSR marketing capabilities and competitive intensity exhibit interrelationships and impact performance (Kemper et al., 2013).
Resource-dependence theory (3.8%)	Factors external to the firm influence organizational behavior. A central tenet to this theory is the concept of power in terms of controlling vital resources. Organizations can implement strategies to attempt to reduce environmental uncertainty and dependence.	● The role of munificence and dynamism as external influential forces determining social strategy (Husted and Allen, 2007). ● Control of the parent firm (headquarters) on the subsidiary in terms of centralizing decision-making potentially leads to greater standardization of subsidiaries' programs (Merz and Peloza, 2004).
Legitimacy theory (3.8%)	Organizations have a social contract with society and their value system must be in accordance with the social value system of the society at large. When the latter changes, firms must adapt to this change to retain legitimacy.	● Impression management techniques in terms of CSR advertisements are used to attain legitimacy. As part of an image enhancement strategy communicating social and environmental values results legitimize an organization (Perks et al., 2013) . ● Social reporting as a voluntary tool implemented by organizations to communicate their practices and achieve legitimacy (Golob and Bartlett, 2007).
Information Processing theory (2.8%)	It assumes that consumers have limited cognitive capacity and rely on cues or stimuli to process information. Consumers are problem-solving individuals trying to reach a reasoned argument.	● Novelty, commitment to a cause and other emotional triggers can influence motivation of consumers to process information transmitted from CRM campaigns depending on the country (La Ferle, 2012). ●The influence of social attributes (intangible ones) on consumer perceptions of brands in a multi-cue context (Auger et al., 2010).

Table 3: Methodological Assessment of research on CSR and international marketing

Research Design	Total (n=106) %	Time Period			Nature of article	
		1993-2004 (n1=25) %	2005-2009 (n2=27) %	2010-2013 (n3=54) %	International (n=76) %	Cross- Country (n=30) %
Problem Crystallization						
Exploratory	30.2	36.0	29.6	27.8	19.8	10.4
Formalized	32.0	20.0	14.8	46.3	17.0	15.1
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Time emphasis						
Cross-sectional	56.6	56.0	40.7	64.8	32.1	24.5
Longitudinal	5.7	-	3.7	9.3	4.7	0.9
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Variable association						
Descriptive	33.0	40.0	25.9	33.3	18.9	14.2
Causal	29.3	16.0	18.5	40.7	17.9	11.3
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Countries involved						
One	27.4	12.0	14.8	40.7	22.6	4.7
Two	15.1	12.0	7.4	20.4	3.8	11.3
Three or more	19.8	32.0	22.2	13.0	10.4	9.4
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Focus region						
North America	23.6	24.0	14.8	27.8	12.3	11.3
Europe	22.6	24.0	14.8	25.9	10.4	12.3
Asia	17.9	12.0	7.4	25.9	10.4	7.5
Africa	5.7	4.0	-	9.3	5.7	-
Other	7.6	16.0	-	7.4	2.8	4.7
Not Specified	11.3	12.0	14.8	9.2	8.5	2.8
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Industry						
One	23.6	12.0	11.1	35.2	14.2	9.4
Two	0.9	-	-	1.9	-	0.9
Three	2.9	-	-	5.6	2.8	-
Four or more	24.5	24.0	25.9	24.1	17.9	6.6
Not specified	10.4	20.0	7.4	7.4	1.9	8.5
Non empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Unit of analysis						
Firm	26.4	20.0	11.1	37.0	18.9	7.5
Consumer	15.1	16.0	7.4	18.5	3.8	11.3
Websites/Reports/Ads	9.4	8.0	18.5	5.6	7.5	1.9
Other	13.2	12.0	11.1	14.8	8.5	4.7
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Sampling design						
Whole population	14.2	8.0	7.4	20.4	10.4	3.8
Probability	15.1	16.0	3.7	20.4	7.5	7.5
Non-probability	20.8	28.0	18.5	18.5	13.2	7.5
Not specified	12.3	4.0	14.8	14.8	5.7	6.6
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Sample size						
99 or less	28.3	20.0	22.2	35.2	22.6	5.7
100-249	21.7	32.0	7.4	24.0	7.5	14.2
250-499	8.5	16.0	3.7	7.4	3.8	4.7
500 or more	9.4	8.00	11.1	9.2	5.7	3.8
Not specified	0.9	4.0	-	-	0.9	-
Non- empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Data collection						
Mail	5.6	12.0	3.7	3.7	2.8	2.8
Personal	17.0	12.0	11.1	22.2	13.2	3.8
Drop-in questionnaire	12.3	20.0	-	14.8	2.8	9.4
Electronic	4.7	-	3.7	7.4	2.8	1.9
Observation	5.7	-	3.7	9.3	3.8	1.9
Secondary	11.3	4.0	11.1	14.8	9.4	1.9
Report/Website/Ad	19.8	8.0	29.6	20.4	16.0	3.8
Non empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Response rate						
19% or less	4.7	4.0	3.7	5.6	4.7	-
20-29%	4.7	8.0	-	5.6	2.8	1.9

30-39%	4.7	8.0	11.1	-	4.7	-
40% or more	5.6	24.0	-	-	0.9	4.7
Not specified	11.3	4.0	11.1	14.8	7.5	3.8
Not applicable	37.7	16.0	29.6	51.9	22.6	15.1
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8
Statistical analysis						
Descriptive	20.7	24.0	11.1	24.1	14.2	6.6
Uni-/Bivariate	9.4	8.0	14.8	7.4	4.7	4.7
Multivariate	13.2	16.0	18.5	9.2	4.7	8.5
Modeling	18.9	8.0	-	33.3	11.3	7.5
Non-empirical	37.7	44.0	55.6	25.9	34.9	2.8

Table 4: Thematic Areas addressed in research on CSR and international marketing

Thematic Areas	Total (n=106) %	Time Period			Nature of article	
		1993-2004 (n1=25) %	2005-2009 (n2=27) %	2010-2013 (n3=54) %	International (n=76) %	Cross-Country (n=30) %
External Environmental Influences	**44.3**	**44.0**	**51.8**	**40.9**	**20.8**	**23.2**
Cultural Environment	16.0	20.0	14.8	14.8	-	16.0
Media Pressures	9.4	8.0	14.8	7.4	8.5	0.9
Industry Sector	7.6	4.0	11.1	7.4	4.7	2.8
Economic and Regulatory Environment	6.6	8.0	7.4	5.7	3.8	2.8
Certification Bodies	4.7	4.0	3.7	5.7	3.8	0.7
Internal Company Influences	**21.7**	**28.0**	**14.8**	**22.2**	**17.0**	**4.7**
Organizational factors	14.1	16.0	11.1	14.8	12.3	1.9
Managerial attitudes/characteristics	7.6	12.0	3.7	7.4	4.7	2.8
Stimuli and Barriers on CSR adoption	**16.0**	**16.0**	**14.8**	**16.7**	**11.3**	**4.7**
Stimuli/incentives to CSR	10.4	12.0	14.8	7.4	6.6	3.8
Barriers/difficulties to CSR	5.7	4.0	-	9.2	4.7	0.9
Consumer CSR Aspects	**20.8**	**32.0**	**14.8**	**18.6**	**9.4**	**11.3**
Consumer Perceptions	14.2	20.0	7.4	14.8	6.6	7.5
Sensitivity towards CSR	3.8	8.0	3.7	1.9	1.9	1.9
Consumer Retaliation/Boycotts	2.8	4.0	3.7	1.9	0.9	1.9
CSR practices	**31.1**	**36.0**	**40.7**	**24.2**	**27.4**	**3.7**
Base of the Pyramid	11.3	-	22.2	11.1	11.3	-
Cause-related marketing and philanthropy	9.4	28.0	3.7	3.8	6.6	2.8
Sustainable Development	8.5	4.0	14.8	7.4	8.5	-
Quality-of-life Practices	1.9	4.0	-	1.9	0.9	0.9
CSR Strategic Aspects and the marketing mix	**52.8**	**40.0**	**55.6**	**57.4**	**41.5**	**11.2**
Planning and Positioning	17.0	12.0	18.5	18.5	16.0	0.9
Promotional Strategy	14.1	12.0	14.8	14.8	12.3	1.9
Product Considerations	11.3	4.0	11.1	14.8	4.7	6.6
Channel Management/Distribution	8.5	8.0	11.1	7.4	7.6	0.9
Price Considerations	1.9	4.0	-	1.9	0.9	0.9
CSR Company Communications	**20.8**	**8.0**	**37.0**	**18.8**	**16.9**	**3.8**
Social Reports	10.4	-	22.2	9.3	8.5	1.9
Websites	8.5	8.0	14.8	5.7	6.6	1.9
Social Media	0.9	-	-	1.9	0.9	-
Advertisements	0.9	-	-	1.9	0.9	-
Performance implications of CSR practices	**28.3**	**12.0**	**33.3**	**35.3**	**24.6**	**3.7**
Brand Performance	10.4	8.0	14.8	9.3	7.6	2.8
Market Performance	8.5	4.0	7.4	12.9	7.6	0.9
Financial performance	4.7	-	7.4	5.6	4.7	-
Social Performance	3.8	-	3.7	5.6	3.8	-
Other Performance	0.9	-	-	1.9	0.9	-
Miscellaneous	**3.7**	**4.0**	**3.7**	**1.9**	**3.7**	**-**

Table 5: Future research on CSR and International Marketing

Thematic Area	Proposed Topic
External Environmental Influences	• Governmental incentives and availability of external agencies or consultants on the formulation of socially responsible marketing strategies. • Global triggering events such as the financial crisis. • Industry effects on MNCs commitment towards socially responsible marketing strategies. • Institutional norms and practices of home-country environment and how it affects MNCs CSR behavior abroad. • Regional level effects on CSR adoption.
Internal Company Influences	• The effect of organizational structure of regional headquarters and governance structure and ownership status of the parent corporation on the adoption of responsible strategies. • Identification of relevant organization resources/ capabilities to implement socially responsible strategies. • Identification of marketing managers' traits and characteristics (e.g. personal values, religion, educational background) and attributes (e.g. risk averse versus risk taker). • Managerial perceptions and managerial expectations in applying CSR across difference cultures. • The conflict that may arise between managerial performance goals and socially responsible ones, and the role of managerial leadership.
Stimuli and Barriers	• Identification of stakeholders and the influence on determining thresholds on different dimensions of CSR. • Content and efficacy of strategies employed by a number of stakeholders to drive business change towards CSR strategies. • Degree of sensitivity of internal versus external stakeholders influencing the adoption of CSR strategies. • Barriers moderating/mediating the role of organizational values, intentions, concerns and actual CSR strategies. • The impeding role of institutional processes and historical processes on identifying areas of legitimization of socially responsible strategies (e.g. issue categorization of CSR dimensions in various cultures).
Consumer Aspects	• Assessment of the degree of consumer sensitivity over time in line with emerging trends in the firms' external environment (social, economic and political). • Examination of the concepts of consumer sensitivity and consumer styles and their potential for global application. • Evaluation of consumer retaliation influenced by socio-political, institutional or cultural aspects (e.g. feminism versus masculine cultures). • Analysis of consumer skepticism towards CSR practices. • Clarification on how consumers define CSR and their expectations towards MNCs practices in different contexts. • Examination of the role of cognitive and affective responses as aspects of foreign consumer behavior.
CSR- related Practices	• Perceptions of motives (altruistic) of cause-related marketing by multinationals in high vs low exposure context in relation to CRM and the effect on brand. • Antecedents and outcomes (positive feelings or even increasing welfare) of successful BoP marketing undertakings. • Analysis of multinationals strategies and communications practices in terms of their commitment to QOL issues. • Identification of educational needs in terms of sustainability, for the various stakeholders in emerging markets. • Definition of sustainability goals and the development of a sustainable marketing mix.
Socially Responsible Marketing	• Comparison of CSR advertisements campaigns on a cross-border basis and in the cases of pre- and post-legitimacy threatening events. • The content and performance implications of socially responsible marketing offerings by MNCs. • Strategically integrating socially responsible criteria on evaluating partners and alliances in a B2B context and how CSR issues shale supply chain policies. • Segmentation and targeting of consumers based on social preferences and positioning strategies. • CSR-labeled product offerings in various industries (fair trade labeled products). • Pricing strategies of socially responsible products/services. • Strategically incorporating social responsibility in promotion and public relation strategies to raise awareness and change attitudes. • Integrating social responsibility in exporting strategies. • Development of internal socially responsible marketing strategies and incentives to promote a socially responsible organizational culture. • The influence of the external/internal environment of the firm on standardization/localization of CSR practices.
CSR Communications	• CSR information needs of different stakeholders by analyzing their business, political and cultural environments. • CSR communications impact on internal and external stakeholders reactions especially in certain product categories such as cigarettes, alcoholic beverages and fast food. • Identification of appropriate methods to build more efficient CSR communications. • Evaluating the relationship between the evolution of CSR indicators and the level of communication over time.
Performance/ Outcomes Implications	• Impact of socially responsible strategies of MNCs on competitive and social advantages in terms of MNCs relationships with its relevant publics. • Returns from CSR investments on customer outcomes on a long-term basis. • CSR effect on global reputation and brand image. • Innovation and quality outcomes accrued from engagement in CSR activities. • How MNCs marketing mix strategies impact on financial performance.
Miscellaneous	• Impact of CSR thought on harmful products. • Interaction of CSR and entrepreneurship within the international marketing field.

Appendix I: Alternative definitions of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) used within the International Marketing Field

Source	Definition of CSR	Examples of studies using the definition
Carroll (1979)	"The conduct of a business so that it is economically profitable, law-abiding, ethical and socially supportive in order to fulfill economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities."	Foreman (2011); Maignan (2001); Golob and Bartlett (2007); Werther and Chanlder (2004)
Wood (1991)	"Configuration of the principles of social responsibility processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationships."	Maignan and Ralston (2002); Slater and Dixon- Fowler (2009); Zalka et al. (1997)
McWilliams and Siegel (2001)	"Actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law."	Boehe and Cruz (2008); Campbell et al. (2012); Lindgreen et al. (2012); Miles and Munilla (2004); Perks et al. (2013); Williams and Zinkin (2004)
European Commission (2001)	"A concept whereby companies decide voluntarily to contribute to a better society and a cleaner environment."	Hartman et al. (2007); Miles and Munilla (2004); Obserder et al. (2011);Williams and Zinkin (2008)
Kotler (2000)	"The organization's task is to determine the needs, wants, and interests of target markets and to deliver satisfaction more effectively than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the customer's and society's well-being."	Du et al. (2010); Husted and Whitehouse (2004)
World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2005)	"The continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large."	Jayakumar (2009); Narwal and Singh (2013)

Source: Compiled by the authors

Appendix II: Journal contribution to research on CSR and International Marketing

Name of journal	Total (n=106) %	1993-2004 (n₁=25) %	2005-2009 (n₂=27) %	2010-2013 (n₃=54) %
Journal of Business Ethics	18.8	28.0	25.9	11.1
Journal of Business Research	6.6	-	-	12.9
Journal of International Marketing	4.7	4.0	3.7	5.6
European Journal of Marketing	3.8	12.0	-	1.9
International Marketing Review	3.8	8.0	3.7	1.9
Journal of Consumer Marketing	2.8	4.0	3.7	1.9
Corporate Governance: An international Review	1.9	-	7.4	-
Industrial Marketing Management	1.9	-	-	3.7
Journal of Macromarketing	1.9	8.0	-	-
Business Strategy and the Environment	1.9	-	3.7	1.9
Public Relations Review	1.9	-	7.4	-
Marketing Intelligence & Planning	1.9	-	-	3.7
Other*	48.1	36.0	44.5	55.5

*Journals contributing only one article

Appendix III: Definitions of variables employed

Variable	Definition
A.Theoretical Paradigms	
Theoretical paradigm	A set of systematically interrelated concepts, definitions, and propositions that are developed to explain and predict the way certain phenomena operate. Various theories have been used in the CSR literature including stakeholder theory, institutional theory, resource-based view, resource-dependence theory, legitimacy theory, and information processing theory.
Number of theories	The number of different theories used in the specific study.
B. Methodological Aspects	
Problem crystallization	Exploratory: Adoption of loose structures with the aim of providing insight into the research problem and discovering future research tasks.
	Formalized: Incorporation of hypotheses, research questions, and precise procedures of sampling and data collection.
Time emphasis	Cross-sectional: Examination involving a sample of elements selected from a population, which are measured at a single point in time.
	Longitudinal: Examination involving a fixed sample of elements which are measured repeatedly over time.
Variable association	Descriptive: Research design with a major focus on determining the frequency of incidences of a variable or the extent to which two variables covary.
	Causal: Research design with a major focus on determining cause-and-effect relationships.
Countries involved	The number of different industries covered by the specific study.
Focus region	The geographic region where the empirical investigation was conducted, organized in terms of continents, namely North America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, and Latin America.
Number of industries	One industry, Two industries, Three industries, Four or more industries.
Unit of analysis	Unit or level analyzed in the study. This may include the firm, strategic business unit, subsidiary, consumer, stakeholders, and others.
Sampling method*	The process of defining the target population and selecting the research sample. This may include: (a) Whole population, focusing on all the elements about which the researcher wishes to make inferences; (b) Probability sampling, following a procedure in which each element of the population has a non-zero probabilistic chance of being selected for the sample; and (c) Non-probability sampling, relying on the personal judgments of researchers, rather than chance selection methods.
Sample size	Total number of elements selected from a population, which provided the data for the statistical analysis.
Data collection	The specific method used to collect the data for the study. This may include: (a) Mail, using the post to collect data; (b) Personal, collecting data through two-way conversation initiated by an interviewer; (c) Drop-in questionnaire, leaving the questionnaire to be filled and recollected later at a specified time; (d) Electronic, using online means (e.g. e-mail, online surveys) to collect data; and (e) Secondary, using data already extracted from existing sources; (f) reports, websites.
Response rate	The number of completed responses divided by the number of eligible responding units in the sample expressed in the form of a percentage.
Data purification	Whether the study has checked for validity and reliability of the data used.
Statistical analysis	Statistical technique applied to reduce data, prepare summaries, and produce patterns. This may include: (a) Descriptive, analysis based on describing the characteristics of the phenomena at hand; (b) Uni-/Bivariate, analysis of the frequency with which something occurs or the extent of relationship between two variables; (c) Multivariate, analysis focusing on the structure of simultaneous relationships among three or more variables; and (d) Modeling, specifying and testing sets of variables and their inter-relationships designed to show a system.
C. Thematic Areas	
Thematic Areas	External Environmental Influences: e.g., Cultural Environment, Media Pressures, Industry Sector, Economic and Regulatory Environment, Certification Bodies.
	Internal Company Influences: e.g., Organizational factors, Managerial attitudes/characteristics.
	Stimuli and Barriers on CSR adoption: e.g., Stimuli/incentives to CSR, Barriers/difficulties to CSR.
	Consumer CSR Aspects: e.g., Consumer Perceptions, Sensitivity towards CSR, Consumer Retaliation/Boycotts.
	CSR practices: e.g., Bottom-of-the- Pyramid/Base of the Pyramid, Cause-related marketing and philanthropy, Sustainable Development, Quality-of-life Issues.
	CSR Strategic Aspects and the marketing mix: e.g., Planning and Positioning, Promotional Strategy, Product Considerations, Channel Management/Distribution, Price Considerations.
	CSR Communications: e.g., Social Reports, Websites, Social Media, Advertisements.
	Performance implications of CSR practices: e.g., Brand Performance, Market Performance, Social Performance, Financial performance, Other Performance.
	Miscellaneous