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The Social Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility: A Case Study

Brooke E. (Brooke Ellen) Forester
FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

THE SOCIAL IMPACT OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY:
A CASE STUDY

By

BROOKE E. FORESTER

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The members of the Committee approved the Dissertation of Brooke Ellen Forester defended on
February 5, 2009.

________________________
Michael Mondello
Professor Co-Directing Dissertation

________________________
R. Aubrey Kent
Professor Co-Directing Dissertation

________________________
Robert Brymer
Outside Committee Member

________________________
Andy Rudd
Committee Member

Approved:

Cheryl Beeler, Chairperson, Department of Sport Management, Recreation
Management, and Physical Education

The Graduate School has verified and approved the above named committee members.
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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

TABLE OF CONTENTS .......................................................................................................................... iv

**LIST OF TABLES** ........................................................................................................................ vii

**ABSTRACT** .................................................................................................................................. viii

**INTRODUCTION** .......................................................................................................................... 1
  - Overview of the Problem ........................................................................................................... 2
  - Purpose of Study ....................................................................................................................... 7
  - Significance of Study ................................................................................................................ 7

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE** ........................................................................................................... 8
  - Corporate Social Responsibility ............................................................................................. 8
  - CSR – Historical and Definitional Evolution ......................................................................... 8
  - Corporate Social Responsibility Defined .......................................................................... 9
    - CSR - The 1960’s ............................................................................................................... 10
    - CSR – The 1970’s ............................................................................................................ 11
    - CSR – The 1980’s ............................................................................................................ 13
    - CSR – The 1990’s ............................................................................................................ 15
    - Contemporary CSR .......................................................................................................... 16
  - CSR Practices ....................................................................................................................... 19
    - Summary .......................................................................................................................... 20
  - CSR - Theoretical Approaches ......................................................................................... 21
  - CSR Research ..................................................................................................................... 23
    - Legal Implications ........................................................................................................... 25
    - Financial Implications ..................................................................................................... 27
    - Stakeholders ..................................................................................................................... 33
    - Employee Reactions to CSR ......................................................................................... 35
    - Consumer Reactions to CSR ......................................................................................... 38
    - Society and the Environment as Stakeholders ............................................................... 44
  - Social Impact ........................................................................................................................ 46
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1  Prioritizing Social Issues ............................................................................................... 5
Table 4.1  Participant Information ................................................................................................ 73
Table 4.2  Observation Data Coding............................................................................................. 87
Table 4.3  Student Interview Data Coding.................................................................................... 93
ABSTRACT

With increasing attention being given to corporate social responsibility (CSR) by scholars, it has become apparent that the focus has been somewhat one sided in nature, with the bulk of attention going to the corporate motives, processes, and outcomes of such efforts. Less prevalent has been a focus on the beneficiaries of CSR, and thus lost in the conversation has been the critical aspect of “social impact” of such activities (Porter & Kramer, 2006). The purpose of the current study was to explore the idea of social impact, by qualitatively assessing the outcomes of a golf management company CSR initiative within the elementary school system. Through a series of interviews with program stakeholders, secondary document analysis, and personal observations, the researchers were able to assess the impact on participants (N=23), make suggestions for improvement for the future, and ascertain the degree of strategic congruence between the program and the overall corporate mission.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has become a common practice for businesses across all industries. From the largest oil companies such as Exxon Mobile to home improvement stores including Home Depot and Lowes, it seems all corporations are increasingly supporting socially responsible practices. In all business sectors there are countless examples of social responsibility and corporate giving. For example, Hewlett Packard (HP) has contributed more than $44 million in HP Technology for Teaching for over 850 schools worldwide, and in the last 20 years HP has also given over $1 billion in cash and equipment to schools, universities and many other nonprofits around the globe (Hewlett Packard, 2006). More recently, in the last five years, Hewlett Packard has invested over $277 million in education, e-inclusion, and communities all over the world (Hewlett Packard, 2006). Toyota is concerned with its environmental impact and has created five goals to guide the company: (1) improve fuel efficiency, (2) promote fuel diversification, (3) develop advanced vehicle technologies, (4) promote advanced vehicle transportation solutions, and (5) reduce energy and greenhouse gas emissions across the company’s operations (Toyota, 2007). Seemingly all companies are interested in various philanthropic and corporate responsibility endeavors including General Mills with their goal of “nourishing communities,” IBM who wants to provide “innovative use of technology to solve problems,” and Wachovia with their desire to help foster “stronger communities” (The Center on Philanthropy, 2007).

Sport organizations have also committed a great amount of time and resources to CSR initiatives. Extejt (2004) reported 66% of all sport teams in the four major leagues host some type of charitable fund. Examples of other socially responsible activities sponsored by the leagues include Major League Baseball’s (MLB) Reviving Baseball in Inner Cities (RBI) which exists to provide disadvantaged youth an opportunity to learn and play baseball (Minnesota Twins, 2008). Another example is the National Football League’s “Recharge! Energizing After-School” program for youth which is designed to help children learn and practice good nutrition and also adopt healthy physical activity habits (Join the Team, 2008). Sport product organizations also engage in CSR activities. Adidas sponsors a variety of socially responsible
initiatives, one of which includes the funding of the Sudhaar Education and school infrastructure program where parents are motivated to keep their children in school and better education is provided for all children. Nike invested over $100 million in product and cash donations in 2003 and 2004. Further, they have pledged an additional $315 million in community programs through 2011. The sentiments of Nike’s CEO, Mark Parker, echo those of other sport and non-sport corporate leaders. He stated, “We [Nike] see corporate responsibility as a catalyst for growth and innovation, an integral part of how we can use the power of our brand, the energy and passion of our people, and the scale of our business to create meaningful change” (Nike, 2006, p. 4).

Overview of the Problem

In summer, 2007, the Journal of Sport Management editors issued a call for papers on CSR in sport. They mentioned how CSR is one of the most important topics in management academia and also in business settings, but to date, the study of CSR within sport has been largely neglected. With such a great emphasis placed on CSR, practically and academically, it stands to reason that Sport Management as a discipline should devote considerable attention to the study of this important construct. The objective of this special issue in the Journal of Sport Management, is consistent with objectives in beginning a new CSR research agenda: “To improve the theoretical and applied knowledge and understanding of CSR relative to sport” (Journal of Sport Management, p. 1).

The goal of this study is to provide both theoretical and practical contributions to the study of CSR in sport and more specifically, to explore social outcomes associated with sport related CSR initiatives. As noted, CSR has become a common component of the corporate environment, with a variety of practices employed by organizations across all industries. However, the impact (or lack thereof) of these various programs has yet to be studied within the sport context.

In the general management literature there are a substantial number of articles published concerning CSR, most of which are conceptual in nature. A large portion of the empirical research has focused on the outcomes of CSR, including legal implications, stakeholder outcomes/benefits, and financial outcomes. Overwhelmingly, most of the research on CSR has
been associated with financial outcomes such as return on investment (ROI) and changes in share prices (Rowley & Berman, 2000; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003). Certainly the financial implications of CSR are of great importance, but the social outcomes of these programs could arguably be of equal importance.

As CSR research becomes more popular, researchers have begun to suggest new agendas for a better understanding of the construct and its potential impacts. Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, and Ganapathi (2007) discussed the many studies which found a positive link between CSR and CFP (corporate financial performance) should allow researchers to move forward and focus on how CSR efforts can foster positive social change. In fact, Aguilera et al. (2007) suggested researchers should no longer focus on whether CSR works, but should instead seek to determine how organizations may impart social change.

Aguilera et al. (2007) are not alone in their suggestions of this new CSR research agenda. McWilliams, Siegel, and Wright (2006) highlighted the need to understand how provisions of social goods, through CSR, affect society. Companies worldwide provide various goods to society through socially responsible initiatives. Consequently, researchers have begun to emphasize the need to understand what effects, if any, social goods are having on society.

Specific companies themselves indicated they too have an interest in this idea of social impact. In Nike’s 2005 CSR report, one of the company’s long term goals was to begin to measure social impact qualitatively. An excerpt of the report shows the company’s concern regarding social impact:

A critical task in these last two years was to focus on impact and develop a systematic approach to measure it. We’re still working hard at this. How do we know if a worker’s experience on the contract factory floor has improved, or if our community investments helped improve a young person’s life? We’re not sure anyone has cornered the market in assessing real, qualitative social impact. We are grappling with those challenges now. In FY07-08, we will continue working with key stakeholders to determine the best measures. We aim to have a simple set of agreed upon indicators that form a baseline and then to measure in sample areas around the world (p.11).

Implementing a CSR agenda with a focus on social impact will no doubt require a complete restructuring of the traditional philanthropy model most companies use, and Nike recognizes this
challenge. It was also noted in Nike’s 2005 CSR report the company believed measuring CSR impact by dollar amounts kept them “locked into a traditional philanthropy model” (p. 79).

The idea of restructuring traditional philanthropy programs is the foundation of a framework proposed by Harvard scholars, Porter and Kramer (2006). Their model of strategic philanthropy is like none ever proposed before. According to Porter and Kramer (2006), there are two main reasons why many CSR efforts are not as productive as they possibly could be. First, they argue most companies often pit business against society when clearly (or perhaps not so clearly), neither can exist without the other. This seems like such an elementary concept, yet at the same time is easily overlooked. The second major problem stressing the unproductive CSR efforts is companies’ generic take on CSR instead of focusing strategic philanthropic activities.

Porter and Kramer (2006) placed a great deal of emphasis on the notion of social impact and purported that before a corporation engages in CSR activities, it must first be determined which social issues should be addressed. In order for both society and the corporation to gain maximum benefit from the activities, the corporation must select socially responsible activities which are in alignment with the particular business (Porter & Kramer, 2002; 2006). Porter and Kramer (2006) provided a simplistic categorization of determining which social issues are in the best interests of a corporation and society, divided into three categories: general social issues, value chain social impacts, and social dimensions of competitive context.

Generic social issues are important to society but are not significantly affected by a company’s operations and have no impact on the long-term competitiveness of the company. Value chain social impacts are significantly affected by a company’s activities through the everyday course of business but this is still not the most important category. What is most beneficial to the company and to society are social dimensions of competitive context. Social dimensions of competitive context are defined as “factors in the external environment that significantly affect the underlying drivers of competitiveness in those places where the company operates (Porter & Kramer, 2006, p.8). The table below provides a summary of Porter and Kramer’s (2006) conceptualization.
### Table 1.1

*Prioritizing Social Issues*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generic Social Issues</th>
<th>Value Chain Social Impacts</th>
<th>Social Dimensions of Competitive Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social issues that are not significantly affected by a company’s operations nor materially affect its long-term competitiveness</td>
<td>Social issues that are significantly affected by a company’s activities in the ordinary course of business.</td>
<td>Social issues in the external environment that significantly affect the underlying drivers of a company’s competitiveness in the location where it operates.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Porter & Kramer, 2006, p. 85

The authors suggested every company should group social issues into these categories and then rank them in terms of potential impact. This three category classification of social issues provides the conceptual framework for the present study.

As mentioned earlier, one of Nike’s goals written in the CSR report indicates that the corporation has a direct interest in better understanding the social impact of their CSR initiatives. This is where the framework proposed by Porter and Kramer (2006) may be useful. Potentially, Nike would be able to determine if their CSR efforts are indeed improving conditions for factory employees, and subsequently, if those improvements are providing a competitive advantage. Not only could Nike benefit from the framework and ideas proposed by Porter and Kramer, but so could non-sport corporations such as Wal-Mart. Although it is not explicitly stated in Wal-Mart’s CSR report, they do hint at the ideas proposed by Porter and Kramer emphasizing the need to match companies’ unique attributes with CSR efforts. In Wal-Mart’s CSR report it was written that one of their future goals is to, “increase internal alignment between social and commercial objectives, factoring labor compliance and social responsibility into purchasing decisions” (Wal-Mart, 2007, p. 5). Internal alignment is precisely what Porter and Kramer emphasize as being key to the success of any CSR program.
Major for-profit corporations are not the only organizations which are facing challenges concerning the effectiveness of their CSR initiatives. Professional athletes who have decided to create charitable organizations are also faced with similar challenges. A recent *Wall Street Journal* article highlighted the problems with professional athletes spending too much on administrative costs instead of giving directly to the causes they wish to support (Knecht, 2007). In line with Porter and Kramer’s (2006) assertions, Knecht mentioned how athletes’ charitable organizations often emphasize how donors should not be concerned with the expenses associated with the organization but instead, be more concerned with the actual mission – or social impact – of the organization. Knecht (2007) wrote, “They [charitable organizations] also say finances aren’t the only measure worth watching; donors should also consider how effective a charity is at its mission” (p.1). Again, this highlights the basic tenets of Porter and Kramer’s (2006) framework in which they emphasized focusing on social impact rather than solely focusing on financial outcomes.

In 1999, Porter and Kramer presented a new agenda for philanthropy which was structured to create value. They provided four ways foundations in particular would be able to make a greater positive impact on society and wrote, “Foundations create value when their activities generate social benefits that go beyond the mere purchasing value of their grants” (p.3). The main point of this article, like the more recent articles written by the authors in 2002 and 2006, is that foundations must use some type of performance appraisals as a means to evaluate their social impact. While this piece was written almost 10 years ago, there seems to be little change in the way foundations and other CSR programs evaluate their efforts. This is evident in the *Wall Street Journal* article written by Knecht in 2007. It is time both researchers and corporations begin to take a more emphatic approach to assessing if their CSR efforts are indeed positively affecting society to the greatest extent possible.

CSR has become one of the most important topics in management academia and also in business settings. With such a great emphasis placed on CSR, practically and academically, it stands to reason that Sport Management as a discipline should devote considerable attention to the study of this important practice. In doing so, researchers will be able to improve both theoretical and applied understanding of CSR in the sport context. There are many avenues
which have yet to be pursued concerning sport related CSR, and there is great potential for further development and empirical studies.

**Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the relationship between a sport organization’s CSR activities and social impact. Also, the study sought to allow the researcher to understand if and how the alignment of a sport organization’s core business principles and CSR activities influenced this relationship.

This study sought to:

1. Understand and explore the relationship between CSR activities and social impact.
2. Understand how the alignment of a company’s core business principles and CSR activities influence the relationship of CSR and social impact.

**Significance of Study**

The increase of and demand for CSR to create positive social change is evident across all industries, including sport. Previous studies have focused on ROI, stakeholder demands, environmental impacts, and even legal implications associated with CSR. Unfortunately, most of the past research was conducted in areas other than sport. Additionally, while all of these areas of study are certainly important to better understand CSR as whole, arguably the most important issue of social impact has been barely researched within the general literature and virtually non-existent in the sport literature. Studies such as the current one may provide a significant missing link in the complete understanding of CSR and offer meaningful insight to practitioners in both sport and non-sport related industries.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

It has often been said that change is the only constant. Nowhere is this idea truer than in the business world. What has changed considerably over the past decade are the demands placed on corporations by society to do more than just make profits. These societal demands represent a shift in what is considered CSR and mark a growing emphasis on social impact. This literature review will discuss the evolution and definitional history of CSR, and those terms which fall under the broad heading of CSR. Theories of CSR, provide an overview of the scholarly work of the construct, and discuss motives for engaging in CSR initiatives. Also, examples of CSR activities in both sport and non-sport industries will be highlighted. Lastly, the gap in the sport management literature on CSR will be addressed.

Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a common term in today’s business world. A search of “corporate social responsibility” on Google Scholar yields more than 466,000 hits on the construct. Furthermore, an identical search on Google reveals more than 37 million hits. The copious amount of literature and research on this subject is apparent from these brief searches. It seems all companies around the globe are familiar with CSR and in recent years, most have begun to engage in some type of CSR activity. However, the notion of being socially responsible is nothing new. It was prior to the 1900’s when corporate social responsibility first emerged in the business setting (May, Chaney, & Roper, 2007).

CSR – Historical and Definitional Evolution

The roots of CSR can be traced back to the medieval era. According to May et al. (2007), various questions regarding organizations’ impact on society have been present for centuries. In fact, the corporate form and modern labor union were derived from the early medieval guild (May et al., 2007). Large U.S. companies most of today’s society is familiar with emerged back in the 1870’s. It was also during this time that large corporations began to have a significant impact on different aspects of society, including the environment, employees, customers, and the public as a whole. May et al. (2007) mentioned that as petroleum, railroad,
and other companies began to reach monopoly status, the public began to question the appropriateness of their actions. As a result, the U.S. government passed a series of laws to curtail the power these major corporations seemed to possess.

The U.S. government also was forced to pass legislation regarding the fair treatment of employees, use of child labor, workplace safety, and the formation of trusts (Farmer, 1985). It was around this time in 1906 that Upton Sinclair published his famous book, *The Jungle*, which highlighted the scandalous working conditions at major meat factories in the US. As a result of the book, the public essentially demanded corporate social responsibility regarding the working conditions for factory employees and the cleanliness of food processing activities. The public outrage eventually led to the creation of the Food and Drug Administration which serves to ensure corporations are in fact looking out for the best interests of their public. Essentially, CSR is a result of industrialization (May et al., 2007).

During the times of the Great Depression and World War II (WWII), further interests in social controls continued to arise in the forefront of American business. Labor protection, banking reform, and public utility controls were just a few of the social reforms of the time (May et al., 2007). American business however, was not alone in their CSR endeavors. Legislation in the US and Europe from 1870 to World War I was passed, which enforced CSR behaviors (May et al., 2007). It was also during this time that economic globalization was at its peak, thereby making CSR a transcontinental phenomenon. Shortly after WWII, academia was first introduced to the notion of CSR, as proposed by an economics professor, Howard R. Bowen (May et al., 2007). This would mark the beginning of a long and varied period of CSR definitions – one that is yet to be resolved.

**Corporate Social Responsibility Defined**

Throughout the literature a variety of definitions are presented for CSR. This highlights the points made by Locke (2003) on the need for consistent, objective definitions. Wood (1991) described the field of CSR as “data looking for a theory.” This still can be argued today with the many definitions, conceptualizations, and theories associated with CSR. It is here where confusion within the literature begins. Oosterhout and Pursey (2006), in a rather controversial paper, argued CSR should be done away with altogether because it supposedly contributes nothing to existing frameworks in the field of management and organization. As will be shown
through this literature review, most researchers and practitioners alike do not agree with this assertion. Archie Carroll (1999) provided an excellent article tracing the definitional history of CSR. He takes readers on a journey from past researchers’ 1950’s ideas of CSR and then finishes his analysis in the 1990’s time period.

First, Carroll (1999) began in 1953, with Howard R. Bowen’s presentation of a definition of CSR. Bowen discussed how CSR referred to “the obligations of businessmen 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” (p. 6). This definition is over 50 years old but could still be applied to our society today. Undoubtedly society’s values and objectives have changed since the time this was written but still today, socially responsible corporations seek to meet the demands placed on them by their stakeholders.

**CSR - The 1960’s**

In the 1960’s, Carroll (1999) then discussed the explosion of literature focusing on what exactly CSR is. Keith Davis was one of the prominent researchers of CSR during this time period (Carroll, 1999). Davis (1960) argued CSR referred to “businessmen’s decisions and action taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm’s direct economic or technical interest” (p. 60). He was also one of the first to admit CSR was a rather vague construct but still argued it should be seen within the managerial context. Carroll was impressed with the work of Davis and argued he could be seen as the “runner-up” to Bowen for the Father of CSR. Davis is well known for his “Iron Law of Responsibility” which stated the social power of businessmen should be equal to their social responsibilities. Essentially, Davis believed the more socially responsible businesspeople were, the more social power they would have.

Other definitions were provided by William Frederick and Joseph W. McGuire. Frederick’s (1960) definition echoed that of Davis (1960). He asserted businesses and firms should not focus on simply meeting their needs and interests but should also be concerned with using their resources for broad social ends. Later in 1963, McGuire wrote: “The idea of social responsibilities supposes that the corporation has not only economic and legal obligations but also certain obligations to society which extend beyond these observations” (p. 144). Carroll (1999) highlighted how this definition is more specific than any of the others previously provided. McGuire specifically stated firms must be aware of the welfare of the community,
education, and the happiness of employees. Like Bowen’s (1953) definition, this too could be used to represent CSR in today’s society. Corporations all over the world have begun to implement programs for employees to hopefully keep them happy and in turn, more productive. Also, countless numbers of corporations have community outreach programs which serve to educate the public on various topics. These are all examples of what McGuire meant when he said the duties of corporations extend beyond economic and legal obligations.

During the 1950’s and 60’s it may have seemed like scholars and businesspeople alike viewed CSR as a necessity for all businesses. Milton Friedman’s views on the other hand, greatly differed from what mainstream society believed CSR to be. Friedman (1962) very passionately stated, “Few trends would so thoroughly undermine the very foundations of our free society as the acceptance by corporate officials of a social responsibility other than to make as much money for their shareholders as they possibly can (p. 133).” This was not one of the more popular ideas of 1960’s, as evident from the many other definitions of CSR.

A final definition Carroll (1999) believed to be influential in the study of CSR was presented by Clarence C. Walton (1967). In his fundamental definition, Walton viewed CSR as a recognition of the intimate link between firms and society. He further went on to write how managers must keep this link in mind as the firms and related stakeholders pursuing their respective goals. While he did not mention the term “stakeholders,” this is basically what he was indicating. A component Walton included in his discussion of CSR which was not mentioned in previous definitions was the idea that CSR is voluntary and costs may be involved which may be measureable directly to determine any economic return. As mentioned by Carroll, this is a significant contribution to the study of CSR. Often times it is difficult for companies to truly determine whether their efforts to be socially responsible are indeed producing any economic benefit. The link between economic benefit and CSR will be further discussed in following sections of this paper.

**CSR – The 1970’s**

The 1970’s study of CSR began with a book written by Morrell Heald, titled *The Social Responsibilities of Business: Company and Community, 1900-1960*. Carroll (1999) believed the book was a good synopsis of the history of CSR but the author did not provide a succinct
definition of the construct. Heald (1970) wrote the book from the perspective of businessmen and described most as being preoccupied with corporate philanthropy and community relations.

Following Heald’s (1970) book was Harold Johnson’s (1971) *Business in Contemporary Society: Framework and Issues*. Carroll (1999) discussed the book in great detail in his article. It seems however, Johnson’s analysis of the construct is a good example of what Locke (2003) described as convoluted definitions. Johnson analyzed and criticized a variety of CSR definitions and then offered his own. He purported there are four views to defining CSR. Those views included (1) a conventional wisdom component (which Carroll noted is basically a stakeholder perspective), (2) an idea that CSR is used for long-run profit maximization, (3) “utility maximization” to meet multiple goals not only to maximize profits, and finally a (4) “lexicographic view of social responsibility.” It seems in this fourth and final view of CSR, corporations who are only concerned with profit maximization engage in CSR and those corporations only do so when certain profits are reached. Once those profit goals are met, corporations act as if they were being socially responsible all along when in fact, they were not. While corporations may engage in this sort of behavior, this should not be included in any definition of CSR. Overall, this definition seems extremely confusing. Rather, a discussion of this type should be included in a more general discussion of reasons for engaging in CSR.

As the 1970’s progressed, Carroll (1999) noted how more researchers became involved in the study of CSR. In the 1970’s alone Carroll found there to be more than 18 definitions of CSR. In 1971 the Committee for Economic Development provided a definition of CSR further linking corporations’ goals with the needs of society. Others still continued to write and publish focusing on CSR, many of which defer back to earlier definitions. For example, Eilbert and Parket (1973) defined CSR in terms of “good neighborliness,” in which corporations did what they could to help and not harm “the neighborhood.” Keith Davis did reenter the scene during the 1970’s and provided a more in depth definition than before. He defined CSR as “the firm’s consideration of and response to issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm… (to) accomplish social benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks” (Davis, 1973; p. 312). Davis’ definition is very similar to one of the most commonly used definitions still today, presented by Archie Carroll.
Carroll (1979) suggested four main components of CSR: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary. The economic component refers to an organization’s duty to produce and sell goods to make a profit. Secondly, organizations have a legal responsibility. They must operate and run their business following rules and regulations set forth by societal laws and government. The third component, ethical responsibility, refers to organizations going above and beyond what is expected of them by the law. It is the behavioral norms society expects them to follow. Lastly, the discretionary component of CSR refers to organizations’ voluntary roles they assume but society does not provide any clear-cut method of following.

**CSR – The 1980’s**

The 1980’s gave rise to a new era for CSR research. Instead of creating new definitions for CSR, researchers began to create new themes and alternative concepts (Carroll, 1999). It is here where new constructs such as corporate social productivity, business ethics, and stakeholder theory begin to emerge. One of the first noteworthy definitions of the 1980’s, according to Carroll, was that of Thomas M. Jones. He defined CSR as the “notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups in society other than stockholders and beyond that prescribed by law and union contract (Jones, 1980, p. 59). As mentioned by Carroll, a key part of Jones’ definition is how this obligation is voluntary and broad. Additionally, Jones’ argued CSR should be viewed as a process and not as some final outcome. This is a valid argument. Certainly corporations cannot expect that by engaging in some activity for a short period of time that they are suddenly “socially responsible.” Being socially responsible encompasses all aspects of a firm’s operations and must be a part of daily activities.

In 1981, Frank Tuzzolino and Barry Armandi desired to create a more effective means of assessing CSR. The authors used Carroll’s (1979) definition of CSR and then applied Maslow’s (1954) need hierarchy to explain how various organizations have different needs. They viewed this framework as a “tool” to conceptually assess the social responsibility of an organization. While Tuzzolino and Armandi (1981) did not redefine CSR, they did provide readers with a new conceptualization of the construct. An example of how they applied Maslow’s need hierarchy to organizational needs is the classification of physiological needs (those basic innate needs of humans such as air and water) of organizations. He purported the physiological needs of an
organization are related to profitability. Businesses cannot operate if they are not profitable, just as human beings cannot live without air, water, and food.

Yet another model was presented in the 1980’s, Dalton and Cosier’s (1982) 2 x 2 matrix, which viewed CSR as having four faces. On one axis was “illegal” and “legal” and on another was “responsible” and “irresponsible.” Carroll (1999) does mention however that it may be difficult to define a socially responsible firm from this model. This difficulty may stem from the fact that defining responsible versus irresponsible corporate behavior is relative. What one corporation views as responsible, another may view as just the opposite. Additionally, the public in different locales may also have varying opinions of responsible and irresponsible corporate behavior. These factors may contribute to the difficulty in using this model, as discussed by Carroll.

As previously mentioned, during the 1980’s rather than creating new definitions of CSR, most researchers began to discuss different themes and categories of the concept. One example of this trend was the work completed by Rich Strand in 1983. He presented a systems paradigm and sought to connect concepts such as CSR, social responsiveness, and social responses in an organization-environment model. Such a model may be effective in better understanding the concepts and how they are related, but it is still important to note the key distinctions between each.

It is also during the 1980’s that Carroll revised his previous definition of CSR. Basically, Carroll (1983) modified the discretionary component of his definition and changed it to voluntary or philanthropic. He believed voluntary and philanthropic activities were the best examples of his discretionary component. Even though Carroll did reorient his definition, it seems throughout the CSR literature, most authors/researchers still cite Carroll’s previous definition which includes the discretionary component. Perhaps the earlier definition is more appropriate for scholarly work related to CSR.

Continuing the trend of linking CSR to similar concepts, Edwin M. Epstein (1987) defined CSR in hopes of relating social responsibility, responsiveness, and business ethics. Epstein defined CSR as primarily relating “to achieving outcomes from organizational decisions concerning specific issues or problems which (by some normative standard) have beneficial rather than adverse effects on pertinent corporate stakeholders (p. 104).” Further, Epstein
defined social responsiveness and business ethics. He tied all three concepts into what he termed "corporate social policy process." What is most interesting with Epstein’s definition of CSR and his term "corporate social policy process" is his use of "outcomes" and "process." In his definition he presented CSR as the achievement of certain outcomes but when viewed with other constructs, such as business ethics and social responsiveness, it was part of a process. This idea somewhat contradicts Jones’ (1980) definition of CSR as a process in and of itself. As evident from these two ideas, what exactly was meant by CSR was still an area of confusion for academicians even throughout the 1980’s.

**CSR – The 1990’s**

The 1990’s proved to be quite similar to the 1980’s with CSR research. Most researchers were still concentrating on themes and related constructs of CSR, rather than seeking new definitions (Carroll, 1999). In 1991, Carroll revisited his definition of CSR once again. He wrote, “The CSR firm should strive to make a profit, obey the law, be ethical, and be a good corporate citizen (p. 43).” Carroll (1991) articulated his revised definition of CSR in the form of a pyramid. At the base of the pyramid was the economic component. There may be some who argue by placing the economic component as the base – as the foundation – of CSR is contradictory to what CSR should represent. What is important to remember however, is that if a firm does not make a profit, they cannot exist and in turn, cannot provide any type of service to society. Consequently, this is why Carroll believed the economic component is the basis of his CSR pyramid.

An equally important point Carroll (1991) makes is how each of his four components of CSR should not be fulfilled sequentially. For example, a corporation should not try to meet the economic component of CSR, next concentrate on obeying the law, and so forth. Each of these aspects should be a concern of corporations at all times.

As the 1990’s came to an end and a new millennium began, researchers still continued the trend of researching themes of CSR rather than trying to narrowly define the construct. However, Sims (2003) did provide one of the more concise definitions of CSR which includes most of what was presented by the previous scholars’ work. Sims (2003) defined CSR as “the efforts of companies to improve conditions for their employees, their communities, and the environment above and beyond what is necessitated by the law or market” (p. 2). While Sims
does not go into detail regarding various categories of CSR, his definition does provide a general overview of the main idea of CSR. His definition included the key stakeholders of organizations—the employees, the community, and the environment—and indicates how CSR is essentially going above and beyond what is expected by the law and/or market.

**Contemporary CSR**

Esrock and Leichty (1998) were absolutely correct when they stated the definition of CSR is still unclear. Like leadership, most scholars have a general idea of what it means to lead but cannot agree on an exact definition. The same can be said for CSR. Perhaps a “perfect” definition is not possible, but as scholars there must be some general agreement on what is meant by CSR. Regardless of which definition is used, one thing is certain. CSR is based on the idea that “businesses and society are interwoven, rather than distinct entities” (Wood, 1991, p. 695) and as noted by Sims (2003), society expects businesses to go above and beyond what is demanded by the law and/or market. Corporate citizenship, cause-related marketing, corporate philanthropy, and corporate social profitability are examples of other constructs which are often used to represent CSR. These terms however are not the same as CSR and cannot be used interchangeably. CSR is a distinct construct and when conducting research, it should be treated as such.

A construct defined as being a component of CSR is corporate social performance (CSP). Wood (1991) defined CSP as “a business organization’s configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm’s societal relationships” (p. 693). The key part of this particular definition is “observable outcomes” related to the firm’s societal relationships. CSP deals more with outcomes and results (Sims, 2003) and what companies are actually doing.

Corporate responsiveness is a term related to CSP. In fact, Wood (1991) includes corporate responsiveness as a component of her conceptualization of CSP. Wood (1991) believed there were three behavioral characteristics of a responsive firm: “(a) it monitors and assesses environmental conditions, (b) it attends to the many stakeholder demands placed on it, and (c) it designs plans and policies to respond to changing conditions” (p. 703) all of which were originally proposed by Ackerman (1975). In Woods’ (1991) conceptualization, she viewed corporate responsiveness as contributing an “action” dimension to CSP and in turn, CSR.
An additional term associated with CSR is corporate philanthropy, which emerged at the beginning of the 21st century as an important, but discretionary part of corporations’ business strategy. Walter (2006) defines corporate philanthropy as, “The act of corporations donating a portion of their profits or resources to a nonprofit cause or organization” (p. 1). He further breaks down the construct of philanthropy into three distinct ways a nonprofit cause or organization can exhibit corporate philanthropy: 1) corporate giving, 2) sponsorships, and 3) cause-related marketing. Corporate giving refers to cash and in-kind donations. Sponsorships are mostly often considered arrangements between corporations and another entity to exchange advertising for the responsibility of funding an event or the entity itself. In 2005, United States (US) corporations spent an estimated 12 billion dollars in sponsorships (Walter, 2006). Sponsorships are very prominent in sports as teams ranging from community leagues to the professional leagues are often engaged in some type of sponsorship with corporations. Walter’s final component of corporate philanthropy is cause-related marketing. Cause-related marketing refers to a business’s motives for engaging in CSR to enhance their brand image and standing with customers. Sims (2003) purports CSR has recently become more than just philanthropy but for many organizations, it remains one of the main ingredients.

Strategic philanthropy is yet another term often associated with CSR. It should be placed within the context of CSR because the organization is taking accountability beyond profit and loss statements (McAlister & Ferrell, 2002). McAlister and Ferrell (2002) defined strategic philanthropy as the “synergistic use of organizational core competencies and resources to address key stakeholders’ interests and to achieve both organizational and social benefits” (p. 690). They went on to discuss how strategic philanthropy “involves employees (i.e. understanding their needs and core skills) and organizational expertise (e.g. equipment, knowledge, and financial resources) and the ability to link employees, customers, suppliers, and societal needs with these assets” (p. 690). Defined by McAlister and Ferrell, strategic philanthropy is an all-encompassing practice within an organization.

Other scholars have defined strategic philanthropy in a similar manner. Tokarski (1999) operationalized strategic philanthropy as “the process by which contributions are targeted to serve direct business interests while also servicing beneficiary organizations” (p. 34). Porter and Kramer (2002) mentioned how the construct has often been defined rather vaguely but argued it
essentially represents a connection between a company’s business and their charitable contribution.

In the literature, one is able to see how strategic philanthropy is indeed a distinct construct, under the umbrella of CSR. For example, one of the key differences between traditional philanthropy and strategic philanthropy is the alignment of the organization’s core goals with the corporate giving practices (McAlister & Ferrell, 2002). Likewise, strategic philanthropy differs from cause-related marketing (CRM) in that CRM is implemented through an organization’s marketing plan tying products to some social cause. CRM is used more to enhance publicity rather than to help some social cause (Porter & Kramer, 2002).

Philanthropy is not the only ingredient of CSR. As noted above, some researchers view CSR as essentially the same as good corporate citizenship. Carroll (1998) argues there are four “faces” of corporate citizenship: an economic face, a legal face, an ethical face, and a philanthropic face. Just as private citizens are responsible for fulfilling these duties, Carroll argues corporations are equally as responsible. A strength of this particular article is the discussion concerning each of the four faces of corporate citizenship. Carroll (1998) does not simply list four aspects of what he believes makes up good corporate citizenship, but also provides the reader with practical examples of each.

The economic face of good corporate citizenship means corporations are profitable, carry their own weight, and fulfill their economic responsibilities. Often times increasing profits is not discussed in terms of corporate citizenship. Carroll argues it is a necessary component. Private citizens are expected to earn an income as a member of society. They make money, pay bills to corporations, pay taxes, which in turn benefits society as whole. Likewise, corporations do the same. They make profits and then reward their shareholders or investors, pay their bills, and contribute to society.

Carroll’s (1998) legal face refers to companies’ legal obligation to obey the law and fulfill their legal duties to society. A well known example of a company who did not fulfill their legal responsibilities is Enron. Also, Enron did not show an ethical face. Carroll sees a company’s ethical face as going beyond the law and practicing moral management. In doing so, companies must choose leaders who run businesses ethically (Carroll, 1998), and choose those who are able to resists temptations to further their own agendas over that of the corporation.
Leaders of corporations are important in CSR development and ideally, the CSR program of a corporation should be led by the chief executive, not the head of the public relations department (“Corporate Social Responsibility: Have a heart… Have a heart,” 2006). Carroll further asserts ethical corporations engage in philanthropic behavior (the philanthropic face) and willing give back to the community and those who are in need. This is part of the corporation’s moral obligation to society. Many corporations do engage in philanthropic behavior. A study conducted in 2004 by *Fortune* magazine found a total of 1.5 billion dollars of direct cash in corporate giving, 1 billion dollars as foundation cash, 5 billion dollars in non-cash contributions, and 50 million dollars valuation of employee volunteerism.

**CSR Practices**

Just as there are similar definitions and ideas regarding CSR, there are also consistent ideas of what constitutes CSR practices. Sims (2003) asserts leading corporations are taking a multidimensional approach to CSR by recognizing a firm’s success depends on its relationships with multiple shareholders, employees, customers, and other suppliers. Muirhead (1999) and Hall (1989) present a variety of activities associated with CSR. Some of these activities include establishing a code of ethics, philanthropy, cause-related marketing, employee volunteerism, environmental protection and conservation, and the monitoring of labor and human rights in production facilities.

Some activities of CSR are better known than others. One such activity is the establishment of a code of ethics. When considering the idea of a code of ethics, it difficult to imagine a corporation without one. The main impact of a code of ethics on CSR is actually carrying out what is included in the code of ethics. If corporations simply have a code of ethics for “show” and do not really practice what is included in the code, it is essentially worthless. A code of ethics only for show will have no impact on the CSR of a company or the profitability of the company.

Another well known CSR activity is environmental protection and conservation. Brown (1995) addresses the environmental aspects of CSR in his article, *Greening the Bottom Line*. Brown first discusses Nissan’s newly implemented CSR strategy of recycling its leftover plastic pieces from the fuel tanks. With the money saved from recycling, Nissan was then able to purchase environmentally-friendly water based paints for vehicles. Money was also saved in the
transportation of debris and landfill fees. This is one example of how corporations who practice CSR are able to help society (the environment) and also help their bottom line.

Brown (1995) mentions how the Institute of Business Ethics found 70 environmentally friendly initiatives taken by 43 companies which resulted in benefits to each company’s bottom line. The Dow chemical company enlisted the help of the Natural Resources Defense Council to identify ways to reduce toxic chemicals released by their plants. Dow spent approximately 3.1 million dollars to make changes at their plant and now save more than 5.4 million dollars per year with these newly developed methods. Xerox saved over $800,000 on new toners by recycling toner waste into new toners. The 3M Corporation estimates it has saved $810 million since 1975 with the “Pollution Prevention Pays” program the company has implemented. One of the most popular coffee shops in the nation, Starbucks gives customers leftover coffee grounds which can be used to fertilize gardens and lawns. Like Nissan, Starbucks not only saves money on their bottom line but also provides a service to customers who can now use an environmentally friendly fertilizer for their landscaping needs.

These are great examples of how companies who engage in CSR are able to increase their profitability while at the same time are benefiting society as a whole. More and more corporations are implementing environmentally friendly practices into their business strategies. In 1994, CSR activities were increasing with 34% of the Financial Times top 100 companies producing several separate environmental reports compared with only 20% in 1993. This trend has most likely increased since 1994, and with the current issue of global warming, countless more companies are trying to do more to help protect the environment.

Summary

The reviewed literature indicates the great amount of variability which exists regarding the definition of CSR. Still today, there is no single agreed upon definition of CSR. In McWilliams, Siegel, and Wright’s (2006) article highlighting a future research agenda for CSR, they emphasize the need for researchers to find and accept a common definition. Until that happens, the study of CSR will be greatly hampered as researchers may purport to be measuring CSR, but are in fact measuring their own perceptions of CSR. Locke (2003) highlighted the need for clear, consistent, and objective definitions in Organizational Behavior literature. CSR is
no exception. In order to advance the study of CSR, researchers must come together and decide upon a definition and clearly differentiate CSR from other related constructs.

**CSR - Theoretical Approaches**

According to Klimosky (1991) a theory is “a set of logically related propositions that explain a set of observations” (p. 254). He further articulated a theory as a linguistic device used to organize a complex empirical world. With this idea in mind, scholars have attempted to create theories which best describe and capture the entire CSR phenomenon. There is however, considerable inconsistency within the literature as to which theory is most suitable for the study of CSR.

Just as there are many definitions of CSR proposed in the literature, there are also a considerable number of proposed theories. Depending on what the researcher is investigating, his/her theory to explain CSR may vary from others’ conceptualizations. For example, a researcher interested in financial aspects of CSR may select a stakeholder theory to frame the research if they were hypothetically studying the effects of CSR on shareholder gains. On the other hand, a researcher studying the effects of firm’s environmental disclosures may want to investigate the matter through a legitimacy theory lens. While there are a variety of theories in the literature - Garriga and Mele (2004) discussed over ten different theories - there are several theories which are more prevalent in the literature. One of the most commonly discussed and often cited theories is stakeholder theory.

Stakeholder theory is based on the questions of “who matters to an organization and to whom should organizations pay attention to” (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). A stakeholder can be considered anyone an organization may impact whether that be employees, consumers, society, or even the environment. In the organizational literature, there is no major disagreement on entities which may be considered stakeholders (Mitchell, et al., 1997). What is seen as more of an issue is which stakeholders are most affected by an organization’s actions and to which stakeholders should organizational management devote their attention.

One of the main components of stakeholder theory are the actual stakeholders. Freeman’s (1984) definition of stakeholders has been one of the most commonly used definitions in the literature: a stakeholder is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the
achievement of the organization’s objectives” (p. 46). As evident from Freeman’s definition, there can be multiple organizational stakeholders.

Carroll (1991) believed there was a natural fit between an organization and its stakeholders and many researchers echoed this belief as many primarily focused on stakeholder issues and CSR. Despite the apparent ease of fit between stakeholders and CSR, the two constructs did not develop consecutively (Jones, Wicks, & Freeman, 2002). Kakabadse, Kakabadse, and Rozuel (2007) argued this was mainly due to the difference between CSR and stakeholders. CSR, they argued, dealt more with what responsibilities businesses should fulfill while the stakeholder concepts was more concerned with to whom businesses should be accountable. Still with this differentiation, it is easy to see how both construct fit together so well to help explain the CSR phenomenon as a whole.

In addition to stakeholder theory as one of the most commonly used frameworks for CSR research, instrumental theories are also quite popular. Categorized by Garriga and Mele (2004), instrumental theories are those in which the corporation is viewed only as a means to create profits and wealth with its social activities only implemented to help achieve those results. Theories of this type are driven by Friedman’s (1962) view that the main goal of business is to make profits for the shareholders. The orthodox theory of CSR would fall in this category. Orthodox theory emphasizes the thought that business is business, and in alignment with Friedman’s (1970) thoughts, the theory is based on the idea that “businesses have the sole responsibility to make adequate provisions of goods and services for society at a profit under a regulatory framework” (Quazi, 2003, p. 823). While this is not the most popular theory on which to base a research framework, there are several scholars who endorse orthodox theory (Bhide & Stevenson, 1990; Gaski, 1985; James, 1991). Later in this paper it will be discussed how strategic philanthropy research may be outlined using an orthodox theoretical framework.

A final theory which is somewhat prevalent in the literature is legitimacy theory. The main idea of legitimacy theory is grounded in a definition of legitimacy provided by Suchman (1995, p. 574): “Legitimacy is a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions.” Suchman went on to emphasize how heavily legitimacy of an organization relies on communication. Consequently, CSR literature usually incorporates
legitimacy theory when researchers are investing the impacts of social responsibility disclosures (such as environmental disclosures) and basically when forms of corporate communication are under investigation.

Garriga and Mele (2004), in their attempt to categorize various CSR theories, presented four categories of theories. One of these theories, political theories dealt with corporations’ responsible (or irresponsible) use of power in society. It seems however that this categorization of theories could be considered as a part of the legitimacy theories. Suchman (1995) in his definition of legitimacy, incorporated actions of an entity that are desirable, proper, and appropriate as based on some commonly accepted norms and values. It would seem then that the use of political power by corporations could be categorized as a legitimacy theory with the main premise of the theories resting in the idea that corporations are correctly/responsibly using their political power.

The theories discussed above represent the most commonly used theories related to CSR. This is of course not an all inclusive list as there are several other theories which are sometimes used (social contracts theory, social identity theory, etc.). What theories discussed above do represent is the mainstream literature on the CSR. These theories have stood the test of time, thus far, and appear to be an effective way by which scholars may frame their research. Klimosky (1991) asserted theories are used to make sense out of complex constructs. Certainly, with the many intricacies associated with CSR, the need for a sound theory to help guide researchers is imperative as the study continues to move forward.

**CSR Research**

The study of CSR in modern literature began with Howard Bowen’s (1953) presentation of CSR. Bowen surveyed businessmen to determine if they believed they had some social responsibility to society. An astonishing 93% of the businessmen felt as if they were responsible for activities/actions beyond their organization’s profits and losses. Over the years, this feeling of obligation to do more than just make a profit has driven CEO’s, managers, and other businesspeople to become more and more engaged in corporate social responsibility practices. Simply perusing the websites of corporations highlights the importance even the largest corporations place on CSR activities. One such example is Johnson and Johnson which “is
committed to improving the community through a variety of programs both in the United States and abroad” (Johnson and Johnson, 2008). Additionally, Johnson and Johnson have specific sections within its webpage allowing anyone to examine their specific socially responsible activities.

The emphasis businesses have placed on CSR has led to increasing research on the construct. While there are some researchers who argue CSR is just a fad (Henderson, 2001), many researchers have placed a great deal of interest and importance on the construct (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Backaus, Stone, & Heiner, 2002; Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1979; Carroll, 1999; Clarkson, 1998; Greening & Turban, 2000; Higgins, 2001; Wood, 1991). As such, there has been a considerable amount of literature published focusing on CSR. These publications have been in a variety of fields or specializations with a considerable amount stemming from management studies. The following section will include a brief review highlighting some of the most notable studies and articles published with a focus on CSR, beginning with an introduction of the major theories and models associated with CSR.

CSR has been studied within various disciplines. As mentioned by Ray (2006), these disciplines include management science (Makower, 1994), business ethics (Carroll, 2000), psychology (Koys, 2001), sociology (Lackey, 1987; Strand, 1983), and organizational development (Kraft, 1991; Kraft & Singhapakdi, 1991). Academics within each discipline concentrate on particular outcomes which are important to their area of expertise. However, similar outcomes can be found across all disciplines. In management or economics for example, researchers in both disciplines are concerned with financial implications associated with CSR. The common outcomes found throughout the literature are the focus of modern research on CSR and many of these outcomes are essentially corporations’ motives for engaging in the socially responsible activities.

Young and Burlingame (1996) provided a framework to help understand the various motives for corporate philanthropy. In their four model framework, the neoclassical/corporate productivity model explained that one of the most common motives for corporate giving, to increase profits. The second model described, the ethical/altruistic model, simply means corporations with control over resources demands social responsibility, ethical behavior, and to “do what is right for society” (p.160). Thirdly, the political model highlighted how corporations
engage in philanthropic activities to preserve and legitimize their corporate power. As explained by this model, corporations practice philanthropy as a means of bolstering their position within the business environment. Lastly, the authors described the stakeholder model in which corporations attempt to manage various corporate stakeholders such as their customers, shareholders, employees, and community groups. The stakeholder model allows for the previous three models to be tied in together. With the political model for example, there are a variety of influences from the external environment, shareholders will exhibit influence in the neoclassical/model and interests of community groups will be present in the ethical model. This single framework provided by Young and Burlingame (1996) is but one example of the various outcomes and motives associated with CSR and corporate philanthropy. The following sections provide a brief synopsis research conducted on specific outcomes associated with CSR.

Legal Implications

One of the most basic reasons corporations engage in CSR is because they are required to do so by law or regulation (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007). This ‘legal’ motive is one component of Carroll’s (1979) conceptualization of CSR. Carroll stated that just as society expects corporations to behave in an ethical manner, they also expect – and demand – corporations follow the laws set forth by the current legal system. Kagan, Gunningham, and Thornton (2003) found regulation does matter a great deal in shaping corporate behavior. This particular “motive” for engaging in CSR is not one of the more popular areas of research in the CSR literature with most researchers focusing on legal implications and requirements associated with CSR.

Instead of focusing on legal ramifications as motives, most scholars have instead concentrated on different legal aspects associated with CSR. David Hess (1999), for example, investigated corporations’ reporting behaviors in his article, Social Reporting: A Reflexive Law Approach to Corporate Social Responsiveness. Hess’ main theme of the article was to use a reflexive law to encourage self-regulation and to guide corporate behavior. He reasoned there is a great need for a reflexive law for CSR because creating a formal (or as he termed, substantive) law to regulate all aspects of a corporation’s behavior would be too complex for any legal system. Additionally, substantive laws are often reactive rather than proactive, and there is also
the issue of implementation. Consequently, a reflexive law would alleviate this problem while at the same time encouraging corporations to self-regulate.

The idea set forth by Hess (1999) that companies should willingly report their social responsibility practices and procedures and to become self-regulators has become more widespread in recent years. Once again, a ‘click’ on almost any major corporation’s web page will lead readers to a section devoted entirely to its social responsibility practices and activities. For instance, Microsoft, Nike, and General Electric all have sections of their web pages devoted entirely their socially responsible activities. Esrock and Leichty (1998) found 82% of major corporations’ web sites had more than one issue of corporate social responsibility displayed. No doubt these numbers have increased since the time of Esrock and Leichty’s article, as all major corporations now have their own web site.

Some scholars have researched companies’ willingness to disclose their CSR activities. As expected, the scholars seem to be in agreement that self-disclosures are used for impression management (Hooghiemstra, 2000), public/environmental pressures, and to perhaps discourage any governmental or outside source (Environmental Protections Agency or Human Rights groups) from investigating their practices (Guthrie & Parker, 1989; Neu, Warsame, & Pedwell, 1998; Patten, 199). Dissimilarly, others academics have found some companies may not want to disclose their philanthropic endeavors. Gillmor and Bremer (1999) noted the Boeing Company in 1997 lost $178 million. Despite this great loss however, the company was still able that year to donate over $51.3 million to charity. Regardless of companies’ desire, or lack of, to disclose their financial information including CSR practices, legislation has been introduced to allow shareholders access to companies’ financial reports (Gillmor & Bremer, 1999). With such new legislation, what may be interesting to researchers is determine what and how much information corporations choose to disseminate to the general public, not just shareholders, through outlets such as company web sites.

Additionally, companies may be motivated to make their CSR transparent with the 1999 creation of the Dow Jones Sustainability Index (DJSI). This index provides an indication of the sustainability of a company. According to the DJSI website, corporate sustainability “is a business approach that creates long-term shareholder value by embracing opportunities and managing risks deriving from economic, environmental and social developments” (DJSI, 2007).
A key component of corporate sustainability is the financial value socially responsible efforts create for corporations and their stakeholders. Consequently, financial implications of CSR represent a huge portion of the literature on the construct.

Legal motives for engaging in CSR activities seem to be an area where future research is really unnecessary. It is well understood that society’s laws and regulations often require corporations to behave in ways where society will not be adversely affected. At this stage in CSR research, scholars need to move beyond legal implications. This point could be argued differently with the recent Enron scandals. Instead of focusing on legal ramifications however, the focus should be more on legitimate and proper business practices, perhaps with a focus on proper business ethics – focusing on what “ought” to be done.

Financial Implications

The financial implications associated with CSR represent a large portion of the studies conducted on the construct. In fact, much of the CSR research is primarily concerned with finding a link between CSR and financial performance (Rowley & Berman, 2000; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003). Some argue the most successful businesses are also among the most socially responsible (Boatwright, 1999; Smith, 2001). Other researchers have found there is no link whatsoever between socially responsible practices and increased profitability (Aupperle, Carroll, Hatfield, 1985). Still, a burning question many corporations would like answered is whether or not CSR activities lead to increased financial profits. With US executives placing the greatest amount of weight on the economic component of CSR (Pinkston & Carroll, 1996), the studies concentrating on finances and CSR continue.

One of the most comprehensive studies conducted in this area is Margolis and Walsh’s (2001) research on the link between CSR and financial performance. The researchers examined 95 studies conducted over the past 30 years. The researchers found 80 of the 95 studies looked at different reasons of social performance (social responsibility, environmental practices/issues, charitable donations, rating by socially screened mutual funds) and predicted various measures of financial performance (stock price returns, returns on assets and equity, and the price to earnings ratio of stocks). The results of the study are encouraging for those corporations who wish to engage in CSR activities for financial reasons. Approximately 53% of the studies indicated a positive relationship between social and financial performance, 24% of the studies
indicated no relationship between the two, only 5% showed a negative relationship, and 19% showed mixed results. What makes this study so useful to corporations who would like to determine if their bottom line can be increased by CSR is the great number of previous studies included in the analysis. Also, the 30 year time span of the studies reviewed added to the strength of the research. One flaw of the study however is the “vote counting” technique used to select studies to be included in the analysis. In using this type of technique, studies are shown to have statistically significant, non-significant results, but often times these conclusions are false (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003). Just because conclusions are deemed to be significant does not tell the reader if those results are indeed meaningful or “practically significant.” Indeed it is the practical significance that is most important in determining the worth of research results.

Sims (2003) provided an analysis of surveys addressing respondents’ perceptions of socially responsible companies and their purchasing decisions. Approximately 79% of 2,594 survey respondents said corporate citizenship affects their purchasing decisions. This is a key finding for corporations who want to increase their profits. As evident from this study, it seems consumers are quite concerned with corporate citizenship behaviors. Therefore, it is important for organizations to take steps to ensure their corporate citizenship behaviors are in alignment with the expectations of consumers. This notion of aligning of corporate citizenship behaviors (CSR activities) with expectations of consumers (society) could be grounds for further research based on the implications provided by Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006).

Turban and Greening (1997) and Greening and Turban (2000) further reiterate the potential profit increases for socially responsible corporations. Their research took on CSR from a different angle by examining the effects of CSR on employees. Firms with higher CSR ratings were perceived as more attractive places to work than those companies who did not engage in any CSR practices. This is arguably one of the more important findings in the literature. Companies with employees who want to be at work and who want to help the corporation will be more productive than those who do not. In turn, the profits of the corporation should increase because the employees are devoted to their work. Happy, satisfied employees help the bottom line (Weiser & Zadek, 2000).

An additional finding of importance by Greening and Turban (2000) is applicants were more likely to interview with, pursue, and accept job offers from socially responsible firms. This
is yet another benefit of CSR and how it can help increase profitability. Corporations who can attract willing and able employees who have a genuine interest in the company will see an increase in their profits. Employees will most likely work harder for those corporations they value. It is here where the increased media exposure, such as Fortune magazine’s “100 Best Companies to Work for,” and Business Ethics “100 Best Corporate Citizens” will benefit an organization included in the listings.

There could be a potential flaw with the studies conducted by Greening and Turban (1997, 2000). The authors used the Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini (KLD) measure for CSP. While that measurement is one of the more popular and widely used in the literature, there are some issues with the rating system used in the measure. It seems the companies included in the measure are all top performers in their industries which may positively skew the result of a study. Such measurements issues could be detrimental to a study of this sort and should at least be mentioned in the limitations section of the article.

Jackson and Nelson’s (2004) research provided corporations with seven strategies for delivering profits with principles. They studied 60 multinational companies who are changing the shape of the markets and governance. The authors then compiled a list of the activities those companies engaged in to allow for social and financial performance increases. The list is based on the companies’ experiences to move CSR beyond boundaries of compliance, public relations, and philanthropy to become a more integrated part of corporate governance, strategy, risk and reputation management (Jackson & Nelson, 2004).

A few activities included in Jackson and Nelson’s (2004) list are: harness innovation for the public good, keep people at the center, spread economic opportunity, and pursue purpose beyond profit. Companies who have harnessed innovation for the public good are 3M, Toyota, and Dupont (Jackson & Nelson, 2004). All of these companies took steps to make sure their research and development was for the betterment of the company and society. Keeping people at the center of the organization is related to the belief that people are not just a company’s most important asset, but they are a company’s only asset (Jackson & Nelson, 2004). The idea of viewing employees as the only asset is related to the above discussion of Turban and Greening (1997) and Greening and Turban (2000). Spreading the economic wealth simply means
companies give some of their wealth to all of their stakeholders – from those in the local community to those at the farthest ends of the supply chain.

One of the most important ideas presented by Jackson and Nelson (2004) is the idea of pursuing purpose beyond profit. This idea is similar to that of the Hewlett-Packard co-founder. The primary purpose of organizations is to make money, but at the same time they must be cognizant of others’ needs. Environmental concerns, labor practices and conditions, and human rights are all issues organizations should address if they do indeed practice CSR. Jackson and Nelson’s (2004) findings are important and seem to make sense but there is no inclusion in their article as to how their list was formed. The researchers simply stated they studied 60 companies. Although the results seem to be encouraging and applicable to most organizations, if a data analysis was included in the research article, the readers would have more confidence in the suggestions. The researchers did take unconventional steps regarding the way in which they completed this study. Rather than relying on some index measure of CSP, they actually looked at what the various companies were doing. This methodology is in tune with suggestions by Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006) who wanted to emphasize particular social activities of companies to determine their social impact more effectively.

A challenge corporate managers are often faced with is the issue of trying to balance between socially responsible activities and taking steps to increase their company’s stock prices. Today’s investors demand that corporate managers increase stock prices and this often comes at the expense of socially responsible practices (Boatwright, 1999). The corporate scandals of the 1990’s including Enron and Arthur Anderson are examples of corporations taking this idea to the extreme. Nevertheless, some researchers offer promising hope for investors who may be wary of CSR practices. McWilliams and Siegel (2001) and Waddock and Graves (1997) found socially responsible behaviors will allow corporations to differentiate their products in the product market. With so many products being offered today with brand names as the only differentiating factor, such activities will no doubt be quite useful. Also, Godfrey (2004) found socially responsible behavior can act as a mechanism to reduce a firm’s exposure to risk. One final example which is related to legal ramifications as discussed earlier, is how social responsible practices may enable a firm to avoid expensive government fines (Belkoussi, 1976; Bragdon & Marlin, 1972; Freedman & Stagliano, 1991; Shane & Spicer, 1983; Spicer, 1978).
These studies offer support to the notion that CSR activities are important for an organization’s financial success. Product differentiation for companies is important especially within industries where very similar companies are all competing for consumers’ business. This is especially true for sport product organizations and also sport team organizations. With such similarities between the various organizations, CSR activities may be the only means by which differentiation may occur. More research related to this idea, particularly in sport, is warranted. For example, sport product organizations basically produce the same products with little variability. Consequently, they desperately need differentiation within the industry so consumers will ideally purchase their product over another.

In addition to the study conducted by is Margolis and Walsh (2001), a study which was cited in almost all articles regarding CSR and financial implications was a meta-analysis conducted by Orlitzky et al. (2003). Among the studies reviewed, Orlitzky et al.‘s piece was one of the most rigorous. The researchers examined 52 quantitative studies, statistically aggregated the results of all 52 studies, and corrected for measurement and sampling error. The resulting study was more rigorous than past studies and offered more precision than previous scholars’ work.

Results from the study indicated socially responsibility practices do pay off for companies. However, the operationalizations of corporate social performance (CSP) and corporate financial performance (CFP) moderate the positive effects of this association. For instance, CSP seems to be more highly correlated with accounting-based measure of CFP than market-based indicators. Moreover, CSP reputation is more highly correlated with CFP than other indicators of CSP such as CSP disclosures and managerial/firm-based values. The authors are able to report these findings with more confidence than previous authors for several reasons, one of which includes the selection criteria of studies included in the analysis. Orlitzky et al. (2003) went into great detail discussing exactly how the studies were chosen for the meta-analysis (such as a quantitative research design and the inclusion of at least one aspect of a company’s financial performance). Margolis and Walsh (2001), did not provide readers with such an in-depth discussion of selection criteria, and according to Orlitzky et al. (2003), used a flawed vote-counting technique for the selection of studies included in their analysis. Orlitzky et
al. carefully planned and analyzed their data and a well defined, credible study was the end result.

One of the most recent studies conducted on CSR and financial performance was that of Alison Mackey, Tyson Mackey, and Jay Barney (2007). The researchers created a model incorporating the laws of supply and demand with socially responsible investments opportunities to determine if there would be any effect on a firm’s market value. Specifically, the new model allowed researchers to examine why some managers would engage in socially responsible activities that decreased their current cash flow. Results indicated beginning CSR activities increase the market value of a firm while others do not; sometimes ending CSR activities decrease the market value of a firm while others do not; and finally, sometimes continuing a socially responsible activity will increase market value and then again, in some situations it may not. The basic principle driving these fluctuations is supply and demand. If the demand for socially responsible activities is high and supply is low, obviously engaging in such activities will increase the market value of a firm.

An interesting aspect of the Mackey et al. (2007) article is their articulation of supply and demand for socially responsible activities. Essentially, supply and demand was represented in their model by the proportion of money controlled by wealth-maximizing investors versus the proportion of money controlled by socially conscious investors in the market. At first this may seem contradictory to what is normally accepted – that all investors are interested in maximizing their wealth. However, there are some investors who derive benefits from both wealth maximization and investing in corporations with socially responsible practices (tangible and intangible benefits). When the proportion of investors, either wealth-maximizing or socially responsible, is unequal, supply and demand plays a role in determining the market value of a firm.

The above article is the first of its kind to arise in the CSR literature. Because the study is a “thought experiment” (p. 819), future research including “real life” firms and numbers will be beneficial to truly determine if the model is correct and useful. As a conceptual piece however, it does seem this type of research provides more insight into the dilemma of whether socially responsible activities are indeed able to increase the value of a firm.
A final aspect of CSR and CFP which is becoming one of the main methods of achieving financial results through CSR is strategic philanthropy. “Strategic corporate philanthropy is defined as a discretionary responsibility of a firm that involves choosing how it will voluntarily allocate its slack resources to charitable or social service activities in order to reach marketing and other business related objectives for which there are no clear social expectations as to how the firm should perform” (Ricks, 2002, p. 3). Porter and Kramer (2002) argued that when corporations support the right causes in the right ways, they will reap the most benefits and set a “virtuous cycle” in motion. Determining what causes companies should support to reap financial benefits is an area for future research. Very little empirical research has been conducted on strategic philanthropy. The conceptual pieces however do offer promising insight into potential research studies which will undoubtedly advance the field of study.

In summary, the overall results concerning CSR and CFP are mixed, but still, several studies do provide reasons to believe there is a positive relationship between CSP and CFP. Those firms who have the resources to engage in socially responsible practices are more likely to do so (Margolis & Walsh, 2001; Orlitzky et al., 2003), and as a result, will reap the benefits of such activities. With the amount of variability in the results more strenuous research for this aspect of CSR is needed. Specifically, researchers need to be more specific about which CSR activities they are including in their conceptualizations of CSP so readers will be able to determine exactly what is being studied.

Stakeholders

Freeman (1984) offered a broad definition of stakeholder. He defined a stakeholder in an organization as, “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives” (p. 46). This is one of the more commonly cited definitions in the literature. Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997) went further than Freeman and presented a theory of stakeholder identification with three types of stakeholder attributes: legitimacy, urgency, and power. They then theorized how these three attributes affected stakeholder salience, or the degree to which managers give prioritization to competing stakeholder interests. Mitchell et al. concluded managers give the most attention to organizational stakeholders they perceive as having a legitimate claim calling for immediate action (urgency) and also possesses the power to influence organizational activities. Further, some organizations may use CSR as a means to show
they do care about their stakeholders and are responsive to those stakeholders’ needs (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Handelman & Arnold, 1999; Mohr & Webb, 2005).

If a stakeholder is not deemed to possess all three attributes however, that does not mean managers ignore their claims. Mitchell et al. (1997) described seven categories of stakeholders: dormant, discretionary, demanding, dominant, dangerous, dependent, and definitive. A stakeholder possessing all three of these attributes was said to be a definitive stakeholder while the other types may have only possessed one or two of the attributes discussed. What matters most concerning this breakdown of stakeholders however, is that each “type” of stakeholder has the potential to affect an organization, some with more potential than others.

Mitchell et al.’s (1997) conceptualization of stakeholders offers a good framework for understanding CSR and its relationship to multiple stakeholders. What sometimes becomes more challenging is identifying who are an organization’s stakeholders. Vos (2002) provided a theory to help identify corporate stakeholders in the context of CSR. Although the author did introduce a novel way of considering the stakeholder identification issue, the article itself seems to be slightly confusing. Vos adopted ‘critical systems heuristics’ to identify stakeholders. This systems theory incorporates four principles including human intentionality, systems idea, moral idea, and guarantor idea. As the author correctly articulates, it is difficult to identify all stakeholders of an organization in the context and CSR, and further it is challenging for managers to determine to which stakeholders they should give more attention. Unfortunately, it is almost seems as if Vos’ critical systems heuristics idea is too complex to be of any use in identifying stakeholders.

Other researchers have turned their attention to specific stakeholders and the benefits they will receive as a result of corporations’ CSR activities. Carroll (1996) identified corporate stakeholders as: (1) owners; (2) society and community; (3) customers/consumers; (4) employees; (5) suppliers and strategic partners; (6) government and inter- government agencies; (7) banks and other lenders; and (8) special interest nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). Researchers have examined the effects of CSR on various stakeholders while some researchers have examined the lack of CSR and what effect that may have on certain stakeholders (Auger, Burke, & Louviere, 2003; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Brown & Dacin, 2003; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999). The remainder of this section will be devoted to examples of research with a
focus on multiple stakeholders within the CSR context. However, Porter and Kramer (2006) purported the current preoccupation with measuring stakeholder satisfaction is backwards and researchers should instead measure social impact. This novel idea is completely neglected in the following studies, perhaps because the authors have never conceptualized strategic philanthropy in the way Porter and Kramer (2006) did. This is not to say the following research is useless. It does offer more insight into the study of CSR. However, the following research may have been more effective if the focus was on the impact CSR had on stakeholders rather than the demands they were imposing on organizations.

**Employee Reactions to CSR**

Agle, Mitchell, and Sonnenfeld (1999) conducted a study to help determine who mattered most to CEO’s. A stakeholder class system emerged from the study indicating CEO’s respected shareholders, employees, and customers more than government and communities. The finding that shareholders were valued the most should be no surprise as evident in the preceding discussion regarding financial implications and CSR. Interestingly, employees were found to be the one of the most respected stakeholders of CEO’s (however some employees may like to argue this point). As represented throughout the literature, researchers have also placed great value on employees as stakeholders of organizational CSR practices.

In 2006, J. Richard Ray Jr. completed his dissertation on the relationship between customer responsibility orientation and employee attractiveness. Respondents were presented with a survey instrument based on Carroll’s (1979) framework of CSR. Next, respondents were presented with organizational vignettes which were then used to rate their perceptions of employer attractiveness. The vignettes varied regarding an organization’s discretionary, ethical, and economic behaviors. Ray found that job applicants do differentiate among organizations with varying degrees of socially responsible behaviors and practices. Further, certain job seekers actually view firms with socially responsible behaviors as more attractive places to work than those firms which do not operate as socially responsible.

This dissertation could be enhanced if it included a more qualitative aspect. Ray (2006) gave respondents and survey and a vignette. His goal however was to determine respondents’ perceptions of employer attractiveness. What a better way to understand someone’s perceptions of a phenomena than sitting down with them an discussing an issue. The study does present new
and interesting findings, but by putting forth an extra bit of effort, the study could have really uncovered respondents’ perceptions.

Ray’s (2006) study is in line with work conducted by Koys (2001) and Jones (1999). Koys (2001) found an increasing number of employees prefer to work for organizations with good reputations and positively perceived CSR. In the same study, it was suggested there may be a relationship between social responsibility activities of an organization and important employee issues such as turnover and satisfaction. Similarly, Jones (1999) indicated job candidates viewed employers with CSR practices in a more positive light versus employers who did not place as much importance on CSR practices. Studies of this type indicate that employees, as one of the primary organizational stakeholders groups, may benefit from CSR practices, in addition to the organization itself. The above cited research studies (Jones, 1999; Koys, 2001; Ray, 2006) could all be extended to better understand what intrinsic benefits employees receive as a result of their employer’s CSR programs. These types of intrinsic benefits were hinted at in the previous research but there is certainly room for more in depth investigation on intangible outcomes of CSR.

Yet another example of employee centered research is that of Riordan, Gatewood, and Bill (1997). They tested a model linking corporate leaders’ actions, employees’ perceptions of corporate image, and the employees’ level of association with the organization. The authors suggested such a study examining corporate image from the perspective of the employees was important. The extent to which employees’ perception of corporate image is linked to their behaviors and attitudes may affect organizational performance. Specifically, it was found that employees’ perceptions of corporate image were directly related to their job satisfaction and turnover intentions. If the employees viewed the corporation as highly regarded in the eyes of external others, they were more satisfied and less likely to leave. Conversely, if the employees perceived the organization was viewed negatively in the eyes of external others, they were likely to report being unsatisfied and have stronger intentions to leave the organization.

The implications of Riordan et al.’s (1997) is that an organization’s corporate social performance has an impact on employees’ image of the organization, which will in turn impact the employees’ productivity level. However, there may be some issues in the way “corporate image” was measured for this particular study. The authors based their measure on Dutton and
Dukerich’s (1991) scale of corporate image. From that scale, only six items were chosen to be used in the current study. Corporate image is a complex construct and six (rather vague) items surely cannot capture the true perceptions of those being surveyed. Further, no measures of validity or reliability were included in the study for the scale on corporate image. Only for the new model were reliability coefficients reported. These key problems should have been addressed to make for a much better and more rigorous study.

Other organizational outcomes associated with employees have also been examined in the framework of CSR. A commonly researched construct in organizational behavior literature, organizational commitment, is one of the least studied in the realm of CSR. A few studies are beginning to emerge investigating the relationship between these two constructs, but they are rather limited.

Collier and Esteban (2007) offered good insights in their conceptual paper which focused on the impact of employee “buy in” to organizations’ CSR programs. The main premise of the article was that it is the employees who actually carry out the CSR practices in daily business of an organization. Collier and Esteban argued that if an employee does not believe in the CSR activity s/he is engaging in, then that activity will not be as beneficial to the organization. While this is helpful for organization’s CSR activities, the article does not provide any insights concerning how the CSR activities may impact employees’ commitment to the organization. The authors did make general statements concerning the relationship between commitment and CSR. For example, they explained through social identity theory how employees will be more identified with an organization possessing desirable attributes and consequently, this identification may lead to increased cooperation and citizenship-like behaviors. Again, this is a potentially powerful claim – one that needs empirical testing to be more confident such a relationship does in fact exist.

Peterson (2004a) provided the most insight into the study of the interaction of organizational commitment and CSR. Peterson presented a survey to business professionals in the United Kingdom. The employees of a bank were given two questionnaires, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mathieu & Farr, 1991) and Maignan and Ferrell’s (2000) questionnaire to assess employees’ perceptions of CSR at the organizational level. It was found there was a relationship between CSR and organizational commitment, and those
employees who believed strongly in the organization’s CSR activities were more committed to the organization as a whole. This is one of the first studies conducted of this type and while there may be some issues with the conceptualization of CSR used by the researcher (virtual synonymous use of corporate citizenship and CSR), overall this study does provide fodder for future research endeavors.

One final study that may also offer some insights into understanding the impact of CSR on employees’ organizational commitment was also conducted by Peterson (2004b). In this exploratory study, Peterson examined the alleged benefits associated with corporate volunteer programs. He surveyed employees of a variety of businesses. The Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Mowday et al., (1979) was used. Specific questions were asked of respondents regarding the amount of volunteer hours they had previously engaged in and also how they thought volunteering helps with certain skills on the job. The most pertinent finding relating to organizational commitment and CSR was the fact that organizational commitment was higher for volunteers from companies with a corporate volunteer program than for non-volunteers with organizations without a corporate volunteer program. Volunteer programs can be considered a type of CSR activity and consequently, this study may be particularly applicable to future research in this area.

The above research highlighted the important role stakeholders have in the study of CSR. However, it would seem to reason that if researchers’ work, such as that of Peterson (2004a, 2004b) were seeking to investigate employee reactions, attitudes, and feelings concerning CSR, they would actually ask the respondents in their studies how they felt. A survey instrument cannot possibly yield the same information as a well structured interview. Peterson’s (2004a, 2004b) is useful for the study of CSR, but with a simple inclusion of a few qualitative type questions the researcher would have been able to gain a deeper understanding of the respondents true feelings and attitudes toward CSR.

**Consumer Reactions to CSR**

Throughout the literature there is a variety of research focusing on consumers’ reactions to CSR. Mohr, Webb, and Harris (2001) sought to determine if consumers expected corporations to be socially responsible. In a qualitative exploratory study, the researchers used
semi-structured interviews to gain a more in-depth understanding of consumers’ perceptions of socially responsible behaviors. Five questions were the main focus of the research:

1. From the consumer’s perspective, do companies have a responsibility to society?
2. If corporations are seen as having a responsibility to society, what is the nature of this responsibility?
3. How much knowledge do consumers think they have about the level of social responsibility of individual firms?
4. How much do consumers really care about a corporation’s level of social responsibility? Are their purchase or investment decisions affected by this factor? Why or why not?
5. What motives do consumers attribute to companies that take action to help society? Do they believe firms are acting out of altruism, self-interest, or both? Does this make a difference to them?

These five questions, if answered truthfully, have the potential to help both academicians and practitioners concerned with CSR practices. The first question for example, is of utmost importance. Do consumers truly believe corporations have a responsibility to society? Research has indicated this is one of the main reasons corporations engage in socially responsible behavior, because they believe consumers want or even demand such behavior (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007).

What makes this study so substantial to the study of CSR is the methodology used. By using a qualitative design, researchers were able to delve deeper into the meanings of CSR to consumers. Rather than simply giving respondents a survey with preset questions, researchers were able to engage in one-on-one conversation and use probing questions to get at the heart of the issue. The sampling method used was also a strength. The researchers pulled random people from the streets in a large metropolitan area. They went into gyms, public parks, bars, cafes, and post offices seeking volunteers for the study. In total, 48 in-depth personal interviews were used for this study. Considering the time and effort it takes to complete a good qualitative study, a sample size of 48 is rather impressive.

Results of the study indicated a small group of consumers actively practice socially responsible buying behavior. This means they prefer to purchase from and seek out companies with socially responsible practices. Most of the consumers had a positive attitude toward CSR
and believed organizations engaged in CSR both to help others and also for self interests. Overwhelmingly however, the majority of the interviewees reported they do not regularly use CSR as a purchasing criterion. One quote from a female interviewee in the study is a good example of this finding: “… as far as grocery stores go, I go to the one closest to me [rather than to one that is donating to a charity]” (p. 62). It seems for this interviewee, convenience is more important than supporting a corporation’s socially responsible practices.

Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) conducted research seeking to determine when, how, and for whom certain CSR programs are successful. More specifically, the authors looked at how and why the issue defining a company’s CSR actions related to both consumers’ individual position on that issue and their evaluations of the company and its product(s) as a result of trade-offs the company makes to practice CSR. Sen and Bhattacharya examined six broad dimensions of CSR including: community support, environment, employee support, diversity, non-US operations (such as Nike’s sweatshops for example), and product (includes safety of the product). To measure these variables, the authors presented a hypothetical scenario or situation to respondents and respondents then completed a survey to indicate their attitudes and perceptions of CSR activities.

Some results of this study indicated that consumers do have differing reactions to CSR. First, consumers’ evaluations of a company as a result of its CSR practices are moderated by the consumers’ personal preference for the specific CSR activity. The implications of this study would indicate it is important for organizations to know their consumers and what specific socially responsible activities matter most to them. Additionally, consumers’ perceptions of the company are more sensitive to negative CSR activities rather than positive. This negativity could be due to omission of CSR activities for example. A finding which is important for all organizations seeking to maximize their profits is consumers’ positive intentions to purchase products from companies which actively engage in CSR. This is certainly a critical finding offering support for more and continuous CSR activities.

Mohr et al. (2001) and Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) have helped fill a gap in the literature concerning consumers’ reactions to CSR. They helped to show the variability in consumers’ perceptions based on their attitudes toward CSR. Examples of other studies which
shed light on these perceptions are Ellen, Webb, & Mohr (2006), Brammer and Millington (2005), and Brammer and Pavelin (2006).

Ellen et al. (2006) examined the influence of consumers’ attributions on corporate outcomes as a response to CSR. The researchers argued how in the past, both managers and academicians have viewed consumers’ responses to CSR practices as simplistic. The consumers either believed the practices were for a genuine social good or for economic gains. Ellen et al. suggested these types of responses are much more intricate. The researchers, through a two-study process using open ended questionnaires and survey methodology, found consumers differentiated corporate efforts to engage in CSR into four different motives: self-centered motives that are either strategic and egoistic, and other-centered motives that are values driven and stakeholder driven. The results from the study indicated consumers respond positively to motives which they perceive to be values and driven and strategic. On the other hand, consumers responded negatively to motives they believed to be stakeholder driven or egoistic.

Regarding intent to purchase, Ellen et al. (2006) found consumer attributions did play a role. A combination of a company’s fit between its core business practices and selected cause and the length of commitment to a selected cause had an impact on consumers’ perceptions of company motives. A perceived higher fit led consumers to attribute strategic and values driven motives to a firm, thereby increasing intent to purchase. Such findings provide researchers with a greater understanding of consumers’ responses to CSR and also allow practitioners to modify or create their CSR programs to achieve the greatest benefit.

After reviewing this particular article, it is apparent the authors’ work was methodologically sound, with clear explanations as to how and why various analysis and methodologies were used. Unfortunately, not all articles in the literature provide readers with a clear description of what was done to achieve the results. One such example is Brammer and Millington (2005).

Brammer and Millington (2005) presented an empirical analysis of corporate reputation and philanthropy. This article, from the *Journal of Business Ethics*, is a conceptual piece concerned with corporate philanthropy’s effect on corporate image. One criticism of this particular piece is the inclusion of statistical results with no discussion provided telling the
readers what statistical test was used. Consequently, while the results may be valid, it leaves the readers wondering how the results came to be.

A second criticism of this article is the idea presented by the authors who purported charitable giving appears to be a means by which corporations restore their good name after some illegal activity has occurred. There are far too many examples in all industries of how this idea is completely untrue. Of course some organizations may use charitable giving in this manner, but countless others do not. Perhaps because this work was conducted in the United Kingdom, the corporations there view CSR differently from those in the US. Nevertheless, no such findings were reported in any of the literature reviewed so it is questionable whether or not that is the case.

Essentially, Brammer and Millington (2005) found companies who contribute higher levels of philanthropic giving have better reputations than those who do not. Furthermore, the authors find this effect to vary across industries. Apparently the impact of philanthropic expenditures on corporate reputations is to a certain extent, industry specific. This requires those who anticipate using some form of philanthropic activity, perhaps CRM, to take steps to ensure if their industry is one that is most conducive to an enhanced corporate reputation.

One year later in 2006, Stephen Brammer joined Stephen Pavelin and produced a study extending the work of Ellen et al. (2006). Their article focused on the importance of fit in regards to corporate reputation and social performance. Reputation was assessed through the use of Britain’s most admired companies surveyed from Management Today, 2002. Unlike the work of Riordan et al. (1997), who did not include a good explanation on their measure of corporate image, Brammer and Pavelin (2006) did provide detailed discussion on the measurement of corporate reputation. The authors explained, for example, how their measurement of corporate reputation is similar to the Fortune index used on US companies. Social performance data were obtained through the Ethical Investment Research Service (EIRS) who specialize in the measurement of corporate social performance.

Through a series of regression analyses, the authors found reputation to be determined by a firm’s social performance, financial performance, market risk, the extent of long-term institutional ownership, and the nature of its business activities. Also, it was found different types of social performance (such as environmental or community performance) have varying
reputational impacts which are contingent upon the type of industry in which a firm operates. The most significant findings of the study indicate there is a need to find a fit between a firm’s social performance and their stakeholder environment. Interestingly, in order for this fit to be achieved, the corporation must be able to identify its stakeholders. This idea reinforces Vos’ (2003) study where he discussed the importance of identifying corporate stakeholders in relation to CSR.

Not only did Brammer and Pavelin (2006) use a good measurement of corporate reputation, they also included an impressive sample for their study. The researchers selected 10 of the largest companies from 24 sectors in Britain. From those companies, chairmen, managing directors, and selected main board directors in addition to analysts from leading investments companies were chosen as respondents for the study. Even though the sample represented firms across many sectors or industries, the authors failed to provide an exact number of respondents. They only reported that 210 firms were used. Sample size is important to draw valid conclusions from any study and this is certainly an oversight on the part of the researchers.

Although within the Sport Management discipline very little research has been conducted on CSR, a recent dissertation completed in 2007 focused on consumer reactions to CSR within the sport industry and is certainly applicable to this literature in review. Walker (2007) studied the influences of CSR on consumer attitudes in the sport industry. By incorporating a mixed methods approach, Walker found sport consumers generally has a positive attitude toward CSR activities undertaken by sport team organizations. Most of the consumers interviewed in the study indicated they believed teams did engage in CSR to genuinely help the local communities and believed the organizations had a responsibility to do so. This study has important implications for both practitioners and academicians. Practitioners are presented with valid information indicating CSR does matter to sport team fans and academicians are better able to understand the relationship between CSR and consumer evaluations (Walker, 2007).

Along this same line of research, Walker, Kent, and Rudd (2007) completed a quasi-experimental study analyzing how perceptions of companies would be influenced by different philanthropy types. These philanthropy types were presented by Ricks (2005) and included general, directed, proactive, and reactive philanthropy. General philanthropy is not directed toward any particular group to enhance a company’s business while directed philanthropy is
directed toward charities and other causes which may strategically help an organization. Proactive philanthropy has various purposes for the organization which may include enhancing the corporate image or to increased visibility. Lastly, reactive philanthropy would have the same goals as proactive philanthropy but would instead be in reaction to some negative event. The results of the study were mixed but it was found general philanthropic giving did enhance consumers’ patronage intentions and corporate reputation. Unlike previous research in CSR, this study is unique with its quasi-experimental design in the sport context, which provides even more insight into the multifaceted construct of CSR.

In summary, the research on consumers’ reactions to CSR is quite varied. Some researchers focused on consumers’ reactions toward CSR (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001) while others simply wanted to determine if CSR mattered to consumers (Mohr et al., 2001). Most of the studies did find a link between a corporation’s reputation and CSR practices and the perceptions held by consumers of that corporation. Some researchers found a positive relationship between intent to purchase and perceptions of CSR (Ellen et al., 2006). Practitioners and academicians alike may benefit from the information provided in the articles. Academicians have a better understanding of the intricacies associated with CSR activities while practitioners are presented with viable information allowing them to recognize the importance CSR may have on their organization.

**Society and the Environment as Stakeholders**

Finally, arguments can be easily made that CSR is important for society. Support for this argument is that CSR initiatives do focus on meeting the needs of organizations’ various stakeholders, and society as a whole is considered one of those stakeholders (Sheth, 2006). The environment is a key part of the society in which people live. As a part of society, several authors have addressed the environmental impact CSR practices may have. One of the first researchers to address the notion of environmental social responsibility was Stuart L. Hart (1995).

Hart (1995) discussed a natural-resource based-view of the firm. The main premise of Hart’s theory is based on the resource-based view of the firm. Resource based view is centered on the idea that a firm’s resources must be rare, non-substitutable, valuable, and inimitable (Hart, 1995). Specifically, he argued there is a competitive advantage for those firms who are
environmentally socially responsible. The potential competitive advantage firms may enjoy consist of three proposed parts: pollution prevention (minimizing emissions and waste), product stewardship (minimize life-cycle costs production), and sustainable development (minimize the environmental burden of firm growth and development). Even though this theory was proposed over 12 years ago, academicians and practitioners can still see its importance with recent pushes by the federal government to address environmental issues such as pollution and emissions (http://www.whitehouse.gov/infocus/environment/archive.html).

Hart’s (1995) theory was tested by Russo and Fouts (1997). The theory was empirically tested using firm-level data on environmental and accounting profitability. Russo and Fout’s (1997) tested their hypotheses over a two year time span including 243 firms. Consistent with the natural-resource-based view proposed by Hart (1997), results from Russo and Fout’s (1997) study, it does pay for companies “to be green” (p. 534). Regression analyses indicated companies with higher levels of environmental performance had greater financial performance.

Other research has echoed the findings of the aforementioned studies. Stanwick and Stanwick (1998) conducted a study to examine the relationship between corporate social performance of an organization and organizational size, financial performance, and environmental performance. Using concrete data from the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the Fortune Corporate Reputation Index, and organization size (based on annual sales of the firm), the authors were able to use descriptive statistics and correlation and regression analyses to analyze the data. A strength of the study is the use of concrete data, such as that provided by the EPA, in the analysis. Data of this type, if analyzed correctly leaves little room for error and adds more credibility to a study. Results indicated CSP is affected by the size of a firm, the financial profitability of a firm, and the pollution emissions of a firm.

The majority of the studies reviewed focusing on CSR practices focusing on the environment and stakeholder perceptions seem to indicate the presence of a strong relationship. Miles and Covin (2000) in their in-depth review of environmental and CSP studies overwhelmingly found most studies indicated there was a strong relationship between corporate environmental responsibilities and initiatives and the perceptions of various stakeholders (shareholders and consumers, for example). The importance of corporate environmental responsibility to stakeholders has caused corporations to subscribe to one of two main
philosophies of corporate environmental behavior: (1) the compliance model of environmental management where companies are forced to comply with environmental laws and regulations and (2) the strategic model of environmental management where the companies use environmental initiatives to create a competitive advantage (Miles & Covin, 2000). With a worldwide population set to exceed 7 billion by 2015 (http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idb/worldpopinfo.html), industries will no doubt continue to grow and have a greater impact on the environment. Therefore, continued research on the impact of CSR environmental initiatives represents one of the most important research agendas associated with CSR as whole.

**Social Impact**

A new and emerging concept related to CSR is social impact. As previously mentioned, Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006) were among the first scholars to really emphasize the social impact of CSR initiatives. Back in 1999, Porter and Kramer were quick to mention how effective foundation giving efforts cannot be a “be all to all people” and still expect to be effective. Instead, foundations must focus on a cause which offers a unique strategic position. The same idea should be the universal premise for all CSR initiatives, as it will allow for the greatest social impact.

Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) conducted a study to better understand when, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. Interestingly, the research conducted supported Porter and Kramer’s (2002; 2006) emphasis on unique strategic positioning through CSR initiatives. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) found, “Distinctive CSR initiatives that set the company apart from its competitors are not only more likely to catch consumers’ attention, but also to generate attributions and attitudes” (p. 17-18). Furthermore, the results of the study indicated when companies engaged in a variety of CSR initiatives, “perceptions that such efforts cohere into a natural, sensible whole is likely to result in more positive internal outcomes” (p. 18). These internal outcomes may include consumer awareness, attitudes toward the company, attachment with a company, and positive consumer feelings of well-being (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004).
It was also discussed earlier how Porter and Kramer (2006) provided two key reasons why CSR initiatives are not as productive as they could be. The researchers attributed lack of productivity to corporations pitting themselves against society and also to the generic stance often taken on CSR initiatives. In selecting which CSR initiatives to support, corporations must choose those initiatives which fit well with the business of the corporation and recognize the codependency of business and society.

The first problem addressed by Porter and Kramer (2006) is of utmost importance. In the current review of CSR literature, no study was found which emphasized this profound idea – that business and society were so dependent upon one another. Consistent with the assertions of Porter and Kramer (2006), most researchers’ justifications of CSR relied on at least one of four components, moral obligation, sustainability, license to operate, and reputation. For example, in the article written by Campbell (2007), it was argued one of the reasons corporations engage in socially responsible activities is because of strong state regulation and other independent organizations that monitor them. In another example, Murray and Vogel (1997) briefly mentioned how organizations and stakeholders are involved in an “exchange” in which the firm offers something of value to the stakeholders and in turn they will support the firm. Interestingly, the main focus of the article is on goodwill management options of firms but instead of focusing on the potential impacts of a reciprocal relationship between the firm and stakeholders, the authors focus on stakeholders’ demands and constraints placed upon the organization.

Many of the studies reviewed follow with the general pattern as Murray and Vogel (1997) regarding satisfying stakeholders and emphasizing their imposed demands. Vos (2003) devoted an entire research article solely to a means of identifying organizational stakeholders and to which ones corporations should be most concerned. As Porter and Kramer (2006) mentioned however, stakeholder groups’ views are indeed important but these groups will never be able to fully understand the intricacies of a corporation’s regarding their capabilities, positioning, or trade-offs and sacrifices it must make. This idea of impact is exactly what Porter and Kramer viewed as one of the most important components of strategic CSR.
Social Impact Defined

Like CSR, there is no widely accepted definition of social impact. Because this is such a new concept, there is virtually no scholarly literature providing a definition of social impact as it is linked with CSR. However, the International Association of Impact Assessment (IAIA), an association for the advancement of social impact assessment, has provided a convenient definition of a variety of social impacts. The section below is IAIA’s conceptualization of social impact:

Social impacts can be viewed as changes to one or more of the following:

- People’s way of life – that is, how they live, work, play and interact with one another on a day-to-day basis;
- Their culture – that is, their shared beliefs, customs, values, and language or dialect;
- Their community – its cohesion, stability, characters, services, and facilities;
- Their political systems – the extent to which people are able to participate in decisions that affect their lives, the level of democratization that is taking place, and the resources provided for this service;
- Their environment – the quality of the air and water people use; the availability and quality of the food they eat; the level of hazard or risk, dust and noise they are exposed to; the adequacy of sanitation, their physical safety, and their access to and control over resources;
- Their health and well being – health is a state of complete physical, mental, social, and spiritual well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity;
- Their personal and property rights – particularly where people are economically affected, or experience personal disadvantage which may include a violation of their civil liberties;
- Their fears and aspirations – their perceptions about safety, their fears of the community, and their aspirations for their future and the future of their children (IAIA, 2008).

As evident from the above conceptualization, social impact(s) may entail a great variety of social issues. Consequently, attempting to provide an all-encompassing definition is a rather daunting task. The Center for Effective Philanthropy, founded by Harvard Professors Mark
Kramer and Michael Porter, provided several published reports which alluded to this great challenge. In a report published by the Center in 2002 which focused on the need and desire for a common language in philanthropy and philanthropy management, it was noted “…social outcomes are notoriously difficult to measure” (Center for Effective Philanthropy, 2002, p. 5). Difficulty in measuring social impact is accompanied with an equally challenging task of defining the concept. Based on the IAIA’s (2008) conceptualization of social impact however, the following definition is offered: Social impacts are specific environmental, cultural, political, economic, spiritual, psychological, and physical influences which affect individual and group attitudes, values, and behaviors. Such as broad definition will capture what is generally assumed to be social impact as it is related to CSR regardless of the type of CSR initiative.

**Social Impact – Measurement Challenges**

In 2002, the Center for Effective Philanthropy’s report on the necessity for a common language in philanthropy performance was mainly focused on foundation giving. Often times however, foundation goals and CSR initiative goals are quite similar. Both foundation and corporate philanthropic efforts are focused on creating a positive impact on the recipients of those efforts. Of course corporations often have a more strategic agenda as far as increasing the image of the corporation in the eyes of society, ideally creating a long lasting competitive advantage. Still, both entities’ goals are comparable, and as such, both are faced with the same challenges. One particular challenge which seems to be the most grueling task of all is measuring the impact of philanthropic initiatives. The Center for Effective Philanthropy acknowledges this and very bluntly wrote, “Assessing impact is extremely difficult” (2002, p. 6).

The first issue with measuring social impact is related to the definitional challenge. “It is impossible to measure what we cannot define…” (McWilliams et al., 2007, p. 10). Because so many foundations and corporations have a different idea of what entails social impact, attempting to provide a measurement of many different conceptualizations is nearly impossible. Hence, the importance of a clear definition is brought to the forefront.

Again, the Center for Effective Philanthropy provided a good starting point to better understand the difficulties in measuring impact. While the focus of these challenges was based on foundations, it could be argued the same challenges exist for corporations and their socially responsible programs. The first challenge mentioned is nothing more than timeliness. “Rigorous
program evaluation is protracted and costly” (Center for Effective Philanthropy, 2002, p. 6). CED programs sometimes take years to have their full affects. Tracking the developments of such program is indeed costly and time consuming and even more problematic for corporations, many stakeholders demand results/evaluations before program impacts can realistically be determined. Pressures of this type add to the difficulties corporations experience.

A second point related to this timeliness challenge is the nature of the program evaluation. Qualitative assessment is viewed as one of the key measurement techniques (Center for Effective Philanthropy, 2002). It is a well known fact qualitative research is rather expensive and particularly time consuming. Most foundation CEO’s reported qualitative research is the preferred method of program evaluation (Center for Effective Philanthropy, 2002). This preference is echoed by corporations such as Nike, which also believe qualitative measures are the most effective means of evaluating the impact of CSR programs (Nike, 2006).

The second challenge in social impact measurement is aggregation, or the ability to summarize (Center for Effective Philanthropy, 2002). Within a single foundation or a single corporation there may be a variety of social initiatives in place. These programs often have different goals and objectives which do not allow for the use of a single measurement or evaluation procedure. Adidas for example has CSR programs focusing on environmental impacts such as air pollution, employee programs to improve moral and motivation, and various community projects to better improve the communities all over the world (Adidas, 2006). It is easy to see how each of these initiatives will have different objectives and consequently, will impact society differently and create evaluation difficulties.

The final measurement challenge highlight by the Center for Effective Philanthropy (2002), causality, could arguably be the most challenging. Like all research in the social sciences which cannot be conducted through an experimental design, definitively linking social initiatives directly to social outcomes is impossible. The ability to isolate a corporation’s CSR initiatives in achieving specific social outcomes is more than even the most seasoned researcher can undertake. The Center for Effective Philanthropy emphasized this challenged by noting the many extraneous factors which may influence the indicators used to determine program effectiveness. Perhaps it is best not to search for a direct causal influence but to instead focus on what progress is being made as a result of a particular social initiative.
Even though the aforementioned challenges seem to be overwhelming, this does not mean an attempt to measure social impact would be futile. It may be a generalized set of indicators to measure social impact is just unrealistic and instead, corporations must rely on qualitative research for each specific initiative. With future research it may be possible to have an agreed upon set of indicators which are company and program specific, but more than likely a generalized set will not be useful. Interviews from various foundation CEO’s provided insight on this idea. They discussed how if measurement is to be meaningful, they must be connected to the strategy of the foundation (or corporation for CSR) and because strategies vary, so too will the measurements used (Center for Philanthropy, 2002).

CSR in the Sport Industry

Sport Management researchers Pitts, Fielder, and Miller (1994) classified the sport industry as three distinct segments: performance, production, and promotion. The performance segment represents sport offered to consumers as either a participation or spectatorial product. Amateur and professional sport would be considered a part of this category. Products needed or desired for the production of or to influence the quality of sport performance are included in the sport production segment. Lastly, products presented as tools for promotion of a sport product are included in the sport promotion segment. Sponsorship, promotional events, and promotional merchandising products would all be considered a part of this segment. All segments of the sport industry engage in some type of CSR activity regardless of whether the product is a good or a service. This section will provide examples and a discussion/explanation for the most commonly occurring CSR activities in the sport industry.

Philanthropy

One of the most prevalent types of CSR activity is corporate philanthropy. Giving USA reported from 1999 to 2002 corporate giving increased from an estimated $9.6 billion to $12.19 billion. Further, corporate giving has been steadily increasing and in 2006, corporate giving increased 4.8% over the 2005 median (Bermudez, 2007). This increase in corporate giving has given rise to a variety of giving types, including cash donations and in-kind gifts to various non-profit organizations. Other types of philanthropy include providing technical expertise, and allowing the use of distribution channels, facilities, and equipment (Kotler & Lee, 2005).
While the previous research and figures indicate corporate philanthropy is increasing, Harvard researchers Porter and Kramer (2002) have a different idea. Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006) presented new and insightful views on the link between CSR and corporate strategy. While the notion of CSR as a competitive advantage is not necessarily a novel concept, Porter and Kramer’s (2002, 2006) implications of the integration of business and societal objectives as means to create a competitive advantage is. Specifically, their conceptualizations highlighted the potential competitive advantage strategic philanthropy and CSR practices may have for organizations which select the right social issues/causes to support. Their ideas and assertions may be used in any field of study, including Sport Management.

In 2002, Porter and Kramer first addressed the dilemma many corporations, worldwide, often encounter – identification of key social issues requiring attention from the organization. In an age where different stakeholders demand so much from corporations, it is difficult for the corporate managers to determine which demand is worthy to be addressed. Further, corporate managers are faced with the problem of determining how to address the social issues they intend to support and how to make their support most beneficial for all parties involved. It is at this intersection where Porter and Kramer’s conceptualizations first offer insight.

They believe corporate philanthropy is actually on the decline, an idea that is somewhat difficult to understand. First, Porter and Kramer (2002) argued corporate executives are often in a “no win” situation, torn between ever increasing demands for CSR and pressure from investors who want to maximize short-term profits. When companies do give to money for CSR endeavors, they are often criticized for not giving enough and on the other hand, investors do not buy into the idea that charitable spending provides benefit to the bottom line. The investors often argue the point of economist Milton Friedman that corporations exist only to make a profit for their shareholders. Demands from CSR critics and pressure from shareholders has changed the business climate and corporations have now begun to adopt what is termed “strategic philanthropy” (Smith, 1994).

Strategic philanthropy is defined as giving “to serve direct business interests while also serving beneficiary organizations” (Logsdon, Reiner, & Burke, 1990, p. 95). Thorne, Ferrell, and Ferrell (2003) later defined strategic philanthropy as “the synergistic use of a firm’s resources to achieve both organizational and social benefits” (p. 360). Saiia, Carroll, and
Buchholtz (2003) surveyed corporate giving managers and found corporate giving to be widespread and ever increasing. This trend is evident in both the sport and non-sport organizations.

In the sport industry, there are many examples of strategic philanthropy. As previously mentioned, Nike’s “Let Me Play” program provides opportunities for individuals to participate in sport as a means of changing the lives of young athletes. Nike’s goal is to help develop important skills and competencies such as teamwork, discipline, and leadership. The Tampa Bay Lightning professional hockey team has created several community programs such as the Rink of Dreams, Breakout, and The Tampa Bay Lightning Hockey School, for a dual purpose of increasing the hockey fan base in Tampa and also to make Tampa a “better place to work, live, and play” (Tampa Bay Lightning, 2008, p.1). Nike and the Tampa Bay Lightning are prime examples of strategic corporate philanthropy in the sport industry.

**Business Ethics/Codes of Conduct**

A common method of curtailing unethical behavior within an organization is the implementation of business codes of conduct (Byrne, 1988). Ideally, organizations hope codes of conduct will serve as a guide for what is considered ethical employee behavior. However, with recent organizational scandals such as Enron and Arthur Anderson, it is sometimes difficult to believe such codes provide any guidance at all. Nevertheless, countless organizations subscribe to some code of conduct to emphasize ethical employee behavior.

A related concept is business ethics which is also somewhat elusive concept. Lewis (1985) said it best when he likened defining business ethics to “nailing jello to a wall.” He argued how typical definitions of business ethics referred to right or wrong behavior, but then explained how individuals often have different ideas of what is considered moral behavior. It seems that business ethics is a relative concept which is subject to personal interpretation. Lewis (1985) attempted to synthesize a variety of definitions to form what he believed was an acceptable definition of business ethics: “Moral rules, standards, codes, or principles which provide guidelines for right and truthful behavior in specific situations” (p. 382). This is an all-inclusive definition, providing a general understanding of a very broad construct.

Examples of business ethics/codes of conduct in the sport industry are evident in every segment. In April, 2007 the NFL commissioner Roger Goodell, implemented a new code of
conduct for players. This new code enforces harsher sentences and bigger fines for player misconduct (Palladino, 2007). Sport promotion company ISB, strives to report “honest and timely feedback to athletic department management” (ISP, 2008). The company not only shows sport team organizations how to be profitable in their marketing endeavors, but attempts to do in an ethical manner. Lastly, sport production companies incorporate business ethics and codes of conduct in their daily business practices. Under Armor includes a “code of business ethics” on the corporate web page with a purpose to provide guidance and consistent application of the codes across all aspect of the business. The code includes policies such as obeying laws and regulations in all countries, honest and fair dealing with customers and providers, and also a means by which employees may report unethical behaviors (Under Armor, 2008).

**Cause Related Marketing**

Like codes of conduct, cause-related marketing (CRM) is a widespread practice within the sport industry. CRM has been defined as, “the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specific amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives” (Bergland & Nakata, 2005, p. 444). Bergland and Nakata further described CRM as “the practice of marketing a product, service, brand, or company through a mutually beneficial relationship with a non-profit or social cause organization” (p.444). Another definition provided by Varadarajan and Menon (1988) was: “The process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational individual objectives” (p. 60). However, as mentioned by Lachowetz and Gladden (2003) this definition does not work well when studying sport organizations. Instead, Pringle and Thompson’s (1999) definition is more fitting for the study of sport organizations and this literature review: “CRM is a strategic positioning and marketing tool which links a company or brand to a relevant social cause or issue, for mutual benefit” (p.3).

The concept of CRM first emerged back in 1981 with American Express’ Statue of Liberty Campaign. American Express joined with the Statue of Liberty/Ellis Island Foundation and donated a portion of its profits to the fund. This resulted in $1.7 million donated to the
foundation and American Express witnessed an increased card usage of 28% with an increase of 17% in credit card applications (Barnes, 1991; Dwek, 1992). Since 1981, the use of CRM throughout all business industries has increased dramatically.

Smith and Alcorn (1991) provided three ways in which cause marketing strategy is implemented: 1) media support, 2) media support plus conditional donations, and 3) media support plus dual incentive donations. Media support is the most common form of cause-related marketing, and is simply a jointly sponsored media plan focusing on a charitable cause and the company’s products/services. An example of this idea is the Jerry Lewis’ telethon, which is often seen on television. The second type of cause marketing strategy presented by Smith and Alcorn, media support plus conditional donations specifically advertise a cause but link the amount of donations given to consumer activity. The American Express Statue of Liberty campaign is a perfect example of this type of support. Finally, media support plus dual incentive donations uses two forms of incentives to gain support for a charitable organization. Consumers are presented with coupons to use at a business and when those coupons are redeemed, a certain percentage of the sales go to a charitable organization.

Often, sponsorship is considered a type of CRM, especially when the concepts are studied within the field of Sport Management. However, there are key distinctions between the two terms. Howard and Crompton (2004) defined sponsorship in the sport context as: “a business relationship between a provider of funds, resources, or services and a sport event or organization, which offers in return specific rights that may be used for commercial advantage” (p. 434). The key word in this definition is “commercial.” All sponsorships are undertaken with a commercial advantage in mind and give each entity of the sponsorship a right to be associated with the other. Similarly, CRM is equally concerned with commercial implications but is defined in terms of activities undertaken using these rights (Polonsky & Speed, 2001). This idea is in alignment with Varadarajan and Menon’s (1988) addition where they emphasized how the CRM process includes the formulation and implementation of marketing activities. There are however, similarities between sponsorship and CRM and it is easy to see how sponsorship can be used as a component of CRM, especially in sport organizations. For example, both CRM and sponsorships are used to impact sales, to positively affect consumer purchase behavior (increase
sales), and affect behavioral intentions such as product/brand loyalty and preference (Polonsky & Speed, 2001).

Finally, to best understand CRM it is important to note the outcomes associated with its use. Varadarajan and Menon (1988) provided a brief summary of corporate and marketing objectives that may be achieved through the use of CRM. The list includes the following:

- Gaining national visibility
- Enhancing corporate image
- Thwarting negative publicity
- Pacifying customer groups
- Generating incremental sales
- Promoting repeat purchases
- Promoting multiple unit purchases
- Promoting more varies usage
- Increasing brand awareness and recognition
- Enhancing and reinforcing brand image
- Broadening customer base
- Increasing level of merchandising activity and the retail level for the brand

The above list shows how basic corporate and marketing objectives could be met through the use of CRM practices.

In the sport industry, organizations are constantly incorporating CRM in their business strategies. One such example was examined in a study by Lachowetz and Irwin (2002). The researchers provided an in-depth analysis on the FedEx St. Jude Classic Golf Tournament. According to the respondents’ survey results, FedEx did benefit from its sponsorship of the St. Jude Golf Tournament. Over two-thirds of the respondents reported they would be more willing to use FedEx services as a result of the company hosting the golf tournament. Overall, respondents had more favorable attitudes, behavioral intentions, and beliefs resulting directly from FedEx hosting the event. These outcomes represent some of the most important goals of CRM programs and are often part of the main reasons corporations engage in CRM.
Volunteerism

In addition to CRM, business codes of conduct, and philanthropy, thousands of organizations encourage their employees to volunteer as a part of their CSR programs. Wild (1993) defined a corporate volunteer program as any formal and organized company support for employees and/or retirees who wish to volunteer their time and skills to the community. These programs often target areas such as education, health, welfare, and services for various youth and senior citizen groups (Solomon, Ragland, Wilson, & Plost, 1991). In addition to benefits experienced by the communities and other targets of the volunteer programs, the corporation also reaps benefits from the programs. Steel (1995) provided a three category classification of corporate benefits as a result of the volunteer programs: Personnel Benefits (such as a positive influence on employees’ attitudes), Indirect Community Benefits (where community stability is strengthened and creating a healthier environment in which the corporation operates), and lastly, Bottom Line Benefits (favorable return on investments and assets).

Examples are abundant in the sport industry regarding volunteer programs. All professional sport team organizations have some sort of volunteer program. “Braves Care,” an employee volunteer initiative of the Atlanta Braves, provides employees with an opportunity to volunteer in the metro-Atlanta area. In 2007, employees tutored fourth and fifth grade students at a local elementary school in Atlanta, fed the homeless on Thanksgiving and Christmas, and also prepared food for the Ronald McDonald house residents (Braves Care, 2008). The Cleveland Indians support similar volunteer programs such as their most recent volunteer program, “Indians in the Community,” in which employees and players attempt to improve the quality of life and share the love of baseball with members of the local Cleveland community (Indians in the Community, 2008).

Education programs are also popular types of corporate volunteer initiatives. The St. Louis Blues NHL team created a program which encourages children in grades Kindergarten through sixth grade to read. Once a classroom as whole logs a certain number of minutes reading, one of the Blues players will visit the classroom and spend time with the children. Teams in the NBA such as the Los Angeles Lakers also have created education programs in which children are encouraged to read and make the most of their education. The Lakers’ “Read to Achieve” campaign focuses on improving literacy and instilling youth in Los Angeles with a
desire to read (Read to Achieve, 2008). Each year players, cheerleaders, and other Lakers’ employees go out into the community and conduct L.A.K.E.R (Los Angeles Kids Enjoy Reading) Time Outs to help youth become more excited about reading. These are only a few examples of corporate volunteerism in the US. Many corporations, sport and non-sport, have corporate volunteer programs and Tuffrey (1997) reported nine out of ten US firms encourage employees to volunteer. This trend in increased volunteerism is on the rise and even in an age of organizational downsizing, employee volunteerism remains strong (Work Week, 1996).

Environmental Concerns

As previously discussed, corporations’ impact on the environment has become one of the most important components of CSR. With the recent concern over global warming, even more pressure has been placed on corporations to lessen their environmental footprint. These “pressures” are one of the main reasons why corporations are concerned with their impact on the environment.

There are a variety practices companies engage in to do their part to both improve environmental conditions and lessen negative impacts on the environment. Such programs and practices may be as simple as placing recycling bins around the actual businesses and encouraging recycling. Other more elaborate initiatives may include a complete restructuring of a business plan, such as what Nike has described in the CSR report of 2005. According to Nike’s CSR report (2005), several of the corporation’s environmental goals are to: reduce apparel, footwear, packaging, and point-of-purchase waste, use environmentally preferred materials in footwear, apparel, and equipment production, and reduce carbon dioxide emissions (p. 13). In order to meet these goals, Nike must revamp their facilities and production methods which will require considerable reformation of the corporate business plan.

Yet another example of a sport organization taking steps to reduce environmental impact is NASCAR. NASCAR, the fastest growing sport in America, has been under great scrutiny for years because the stock cars still use leaded gasoline (Schmidt, 2006). In 2008 NASCAR will require all stock cars to use a lead-free fuel to help reduce the negative impact of stock car racing (Schmidt, 2006). Recreational sport organizations such as ski and golf resorts are also taking steps to minimize their impact on the environment. A total of 178 ski resorts have adopted the National Ski Areas Association’s Sustainable Slopes Initiative, which provides environmental
best practices for ski owners and operators (Schmidt, 2006). The Grand Targhee Ski Resort in Jackson Hole Wyoming and the Aspen Highlands ski resort both use 100% renewable energy which avoids some 430 million pounds of carbon dioxide being expelled into the atmosphere (Green Power Program, 2008). Golf resorts are also making attempts to help the environment by implementing water conservation methods. In fact, the US Golf Association has spent $18 million since 1982 seeking solutions to golf related environmental issues (Schmidt, 2006).

**Human Rights**

Human rights issues are a core component in CSR. As mentioned by Carroll (1979), the ethical responsibility of corporations dealt with the idea that organizations must follow established norms and rules of society. They must go beyond what is necessitated by the law and market. This ethical component of CSR is the basis of human rights concerns associated with corporate business – to treat employees, customers, and society in general in a humane way.

For the sport industry, one of the most widely known controversies associated with human rights issues is Nike and its sweatshops. Throughout the course of the 1990’s Nike’s brand was tarnished by public relations issues concerning underpaid Indonesian workers, child labor in Cambodia and Pakistan, and poor working conditions in China and Vietnam (Locke, 2002). In an effort to rid the Nike organization from further scrutiny and criticism, and of course, to help those workers overseas, Nike implemented a new Code of Conduct whereby the corporation began to mend its ways. Potential suppliers of Nike had to abide by the new codes of conduct. Nike’s 2007 Code of Conduct reflected the corporation’s intent to improve working conditions and resolve human rights issues with promises such as Nike’s contractors will refrain from forced labor, no child under the age of 18 will be employed by any contractor, and contractors must have written health and safety policies to promote the general health and well being of all employees (Nikebiz, 2007).

Throughout the 1990’s, Nike was not alone not the only sport corporation to be criticized. Similarly, Reebok was also under greater pressure from the public and various social issue groups to make much needed changed concerning labor practices in Indonesia. As a result, Reebok has one of the most comprehensive and complete human rights production standards in the sport industry. The following is an excerpt from Reebok’s 2008 Human Rights web page:
“The Reebok Human Rights Production Standards calls for decent conditions for workers making our products. In developing this policy, we sought to commit to standards that reflect our dedication to fairness, decency, and the human rights of workers and that encourage workers to take pride in their work” (Reebok, 2008). Reebok wants to make it clear the corporation is very serious regarding their human rights issues, and wants to take every step to ensure what happened in the past does not happen again. This is a common goal in sport production corporations.

**Community Economic Development**

Community Economic Development (CED) is yet another example of CSR in practice. The Centre for Community Enterprise (2008) defined CED as “the process by which local people build organizations and partnerships that interconnect profitable business with other interests and values – for example, skills, education, health, housing, and the environment” (Community Economic Development, 2008, ¶ 3). Businesses are essential to CED, as mentioned by the Centre for Community Enterprise (2008), because the businesses provide a means to increase the local pool of skills, experience, wealth, and influence. Essentially, the interconnectedness of the business with the community results in a reciprocal type relationship where both the community and the business prosper.

There are several ways in which sport industry corporations engage in CED. A common method often carried about by sport team organizations is the building of a sports arena in a downtown/inner city area. It has long been purported sport facilities have the potential to revitalize downtown districts (Chema, 1996; Goodman, 2001; Heath, 2000; Jossi, 1998; Quigley & Trewyn, 2000). The Baltimore Orioles with their construction of Camden Yards is an often mentioned example of inner-city rejuvenation (Hamilton & Kahn, 1997). Construction of the Orioles baseball stadium and the Raven’s football stadium has boosted the downtown economy and has led to increased tourism in the downtown district.

In addition to stadium construction, sport organizations sometimes sponsor the building of other infrastructure to aid in CED. This is another area in which Nike focuses its CSR efforts. In New Orleans where Hurricane Katrina devastated the city, since 2007 Nike has donated five new basketball courts to local communities (The Community Investment Network, 2008). Not
only did Nike donate basketball courts, but the corporation also built a new community store to help provide local jobs and management training programs to the economically challenged area. Furthermore, since 2005 Nike has donated $7 million to New Orleans and established the “Let Me Play New Orleans” program in which $2 million was donated to help rebuild New Orleans through the power of sport (The Community Investment Network, 2008). There are many other ways in which members of the sport industry help with community economic development and the two examples described above represent some of the most commonly used CED methods.

Summary

In summary, the literature on CSR covers a variety of constructs and conceptualizations. Researchers’ focus varies from employees as stakeholders, to environmental reporting measures. In all of the studies reviewed however, it is interesting to note the predominant research design. Quantitative studies far outweigh the number of qualitative studies. Consequently, the study of CSR may be lacking in regards to deep, rich understanding which can only be gained through one-on-one contact between the researcher and respondents. Also, it is apparent there is a significant gap in the literature concerning sport studies. With only a few dissertations as an exception to the rule, most CSR studies have not addressed the issue of CSR in a sport context. These two issues which are left virtually untouched by the general literature highlight the need for future research incorporating different research designs in a sport context.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the relationship between a sport organization’s CSR initiatives and social impact. Also, the study sought to understand how the alignment of a sport organization’s core business principles and CSR activities influenced this relationship. This chapter will outline the qualitative procedures used to identify and better understand this relationship including: (1) research design, (2) sampling, (3) data collecting procedures, (4) data analysis and triangulation, (5) limitations and delimitations, and (6) ethical considerations.

Research Design

There are two main issues with most of the CSR research conducted to date. First, most of the research on CSR has been conducted outside the realm of sport. Secondly, the research that has been conducted does not focus on the effectiveness of CSR programs, particularly social impact. The goal of this study was to address the above issues and will be done through qualitative research methodology. The very essence of qualitative study is exploratory and due to the fact that virtually no research has focused on social impact of CSR programs in sport, this type of research methodology fits best.

The type of research methodology chosen for any project will depend on what the researcher is trying to accomplish and will be based on the current overarching research questions. For the current study, it is believed qualitative methods allowed the researcher to delve deeper and truly understand if CSR programs are indeed impacting society in the way corporations purport. Additionally, there are currently no quantitative instruments to measure social impact, and as mentioned by the Center for Effective Philanthropy (2002), it may be impossible to create a single measurement method for various philanthropic/CSR programs due to the great variety in program goals. Consequently, it is believed an action-research oriented, qualitative case study approach was most useful.

Action research is one of the common approaches used with qualitative research and is focused on solving practitioners’ problems. In an organizational context, it is characterized as
research that results “from an involvement with members of an organization over a matter which is of genuine concern to them” (Eden & Huxham, 1996, p. 75). CSR and its social impact is a concern for many organizations, including the current organization selected as a part of this case study. Lewin (1946) argued action research should bridge the gap between what is concrete and what is abstract in the social sciences. It is useful for both the practitioner and for academics who are concerned with theory and its development. Eden and Huxham’s (1996) main contentions of action research show the applicability of this approach to the current study. They emphasized that although not a requirement of action research, the results could be used to inform other contexts and while action research is concerned with real world issues, there is also an explicit concern with theory. Additionally, those who take an action research approach must base the design of their study on the related theory associated with their research. These key assumptions show the link between practicality and theory development in action research.

Case studies may be used in conjunction with the action research approach. Yin (1994) defined a case study as “. . . an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 13). Yin (2003) believed case studies are most useful when the available literature or knowledge base is poor, or in the case of the current research, almost non-existent. Another leading author in case study research, Stake (1995), presented the following definition: “Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances” (p. xi). A recent definition of a case study provided by Creswell (2007) provided an in-depth explanation of what a case study truly entails: “Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports) and reports a case description and case-based themes” (p. 245).

Stake (1995) presented three distinct types of case studies: (1) intrinsic, (2) instrumental, and (3) collective. Intrinsic case studies are undertaken when researchers need to learn about a particular case. An instance where participants in a program are not developing the skills and abilities intended would represent a need for intrinsic case study to understand exactly why this
is occurring. Instrumental case studies are used when there is a research question and general need for understanding and the researcher feels as if s/he may gain that understanding by studying a particular case. Basically the case study is used to understand something else. Lastly, collective case studies are suggested when cases from several different situations will provide more information rather than a single case. In doing so, researchers are able to understand a phenomenon under different conditions rather than a single isolated case. Both academicians and practitioners need to understand CSR and social impact, and much may be learned from the particular case chosen, therefore the current case study may be considered both intrinsic and instrumental.

**Reflexivity**

Researcher reflexivity may be considered to be a type of validity check in qualitative methodology where the researcher self-discloses his/her assumptions, biases, and beliefs (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Ultimately the researcher should strive to be as objective as possible when collecting and analyzing data to add strength and credibility to a study. He or she must let data emerge without allowing preconceived notions or theories influence the data (Creswell, 2003). In the current study, the researcher has a solid background in the scholarly work concerning CSR and social impact. In addition, the researcher has previously completed a qualitative methods course providing much needed guidance and expertise to complete a study of this type. Not only does the researcher have a solid background in the academia, but she has also been a participant in sport at both the high school and Division I collegiate levels. As such, the researcher recognizes the power of sport and the potential influence it may have on participants. Lastly, the researcher has taught Physical Education for two years providing invaluable experience in working with youth, which will benefit in the data collection process (interviews).

**Unit of Analysis**

Typically, there are three units of analysis from which a researcher selects his/her focus: (1) the individual, (2) the group, and (3) the organization. There were two units of analysis for this study. One component of the study consisted of individuals as the unit of analysis. The researcher is concerned with the social impact of a particular CSR program, the Introductory Golf Program, therefore the individuals who participate in the program would provide the most useful information to determine if they have indeed been impacted. In addition, the organization
was the unit of analysis. This will occurred when the researcher examined the “business” of an organization, or the organization’s core business principles, and the CSR activity to better understand the alignment of these two entities.

Sampling

As with quantitative research, in qualitative methodology there are a variety of sampling techniques a researcher may use. A few of these methods include snowball sampling, typical case sampling, critical case sampling, and maximum variation sampling (Patton, 2002). Each of these sampling techniques has their strengths and weaknesses and should be selected based on the appropriateness of the research questions. In the current study a type of purposeful sampling, criterion sampling, was used. Criterion sampling is used “to review and study all cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance, a strategy common in quality assurance efforts” (Patton, 2002, p. 238). For example, the only participants in the study were those who were actively participating in the CSR program under investigation. This type of sampling will ensured the researcher included participants who offered the most insight and information to the study.

In qualitative research, sufficient sample size is one of the most debated topics. Patton (2002) wrote, “There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry” (p. 244). Unlike quantitative research where one of the goals is to generalize the results, qualitative researchers make no guarantees study results may be generalize to other populations. Consequently, a large sample size is not a prerequisite to sound qualitative research and for the current study the researcher will select five to eight interviewees. What is more important is selecting the sample which allows the researcher to obtain the most in-depth information as possible. Regarding sample size, Patton (2002) again said it best:

The validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size (p. 245).

XYZ Golf Management Corporation

The corporation selected for this study was the XYZ Golf Management Corporation. XYZ Golf Management Corporation is a privately held company which provides overall
management for one of the largest golf operation in a single location worldwide. XYZ Golf Management Corporation has over 800 employees with a variety of tasks including golf instruction, course management, equipment management, special events management, and facility management. With an annual budget of over $10.5 million, XYZ Golf Management is recognized as one of the premiere golf operation corporations.

**The Introductory Golf Program**

ABC Non-Profit Organization was founded in 2006 as a non-profit organization with a mission to support and create opportunities for the growth of game of golf in a three county area in the Southeast U.S. Within this organization, a program was created to introduce the game of golf to students in elementary and middle schools in the local communities. This program was made possible by two separate grants, and support from local businesses, including one of the largest sponsors, XYZ Golf Management Corporation. XYZ Golf Management Corporation contributed golf equipment and substantial cash donations.

The Introductory Golf Program is a four to six week course implemented in one elementary school, and two middle schools in the Southeast U.S. Inner city and rural schools where golf instruction was virtually non-existent were selected for the program. There are several key objectives of the Introductory Golf Program. These objectives include:

- To introduce of the game of golf to all students including basic rules, equipment, and necessary skills
- Create an interest in the game of golf
- Encourage future golf participation
- Provide opportunities for growth and development through golf, character education, and life skills such as sportsmanship, responsibility, and honesty
- Provide an awareness of the opportunities of golf participation throughout each students’ educational journey

The director of the program used several sources in creating the program curriculum. He relied heavily on the Professional Golf Association’s (PGA) First Swing program. This program was designed to be a model curriculum for instructors so they may teach the game of golf effectively to beginners (First Swing, 2006). Objectives included the in the First Swing program are
physical skills such as proper golf swings and also sportsmanship and etiquette including proper play on the course and responsibility (First Swing, 2006).

In addition, the director has incorporated lessons from the *Special Olympics Sports Skills Program on Golf* (Rehling & Burton, 1992). By using this text as a guide for proper curriculum development, students who may be at a slight academic disadvantage, will also be taught effectively through the Introductory Golf Program. Also, Hellison’s (1995) model for teaching personal and social responsibility to children, which is a widely used model in quality physical education settings. Lastly, the S.N.A.G. (Starting New at Golf) coaching system was used in the introductory course curriculum. The program provides detailed lesson plans including sections on both physical skills for golf and the development of life skills.

**Participants**

Participants for the study were students from three different schools who were participating in The Introductory Golf Program. This Introductory Golf Program was implemented into the students’ regular physical education program, in four, six-week units. The students’ grade levels ranged from third to middle school. At least three to four children from each school were interviewed. There were one elementary school and two middle schools involved in the Introductory Golf Program. In addition, the researcher interviewed the golf program director, the owner of XYZ Golf Management Corporation, and the physical education teachers at each of the participating schools.

**Data Collection**

Interviewing, observing, and reviewing material culture are the main methods of data collection in qualitative research (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). A combination of these major data collection techniques was used for the current study. The primary method of data collection was the use of interviews. Also, the researcher observed the environment in which the CSR programs were being conducted and included this in the field note. Lastly, the researcher reviewed corporate documents which detail the “business” of the organization and also the strategic mission of the CSR program. By reviewing such documents, the researcher was better able to understand if the CSR program did indeed align with the business of the organization.
Qualitative methodologists provide three alternatives of interviewing strategies: (1) the informal conversational interview, which relies completely on the spontaneous generation of questions through the natural flow of a conversation (2) the general interview guide approach, where there is a predetermined outline and set of issues to be explored during the process, and (3) the standardized open interview, consisting of a set of questions which are meticulously worded in hopes of presenting the same sequence and questions to each interviewee (Patton, 2002). The general interview guide approach will be used for the current study.

There are several advantages and disadvantages to each of the interview strategies mentioned above, however, it is believed the general interview guide was the most advantageous for the current study. With the informal conversational interview, while the interviewer will have great freedom and there may be times when the interviewee does not realize s/he is actually being interviewed, this is a method which is best for those who are seasoned interviewers. Because participants and CSR program leaders were limited in the amount of time they could allot for this process, a shorter more concise method was be preferred.

At the opposite end of the spectrum is the standardized open interview. In this process all questions are identical. By presenting each question, the exact instrument used for the interview process will be available for complete inspection prior to a study (Patton, 2002). Certainly this would be useful in the current study as committee members will be able to see exactly what will be asked, but there are certain limitations to such a method. This type of approach does not allow the researcher to incorporate new, probing questions as the interview unfolds. In reality, it may be impossible to predict prior to a study each question that should be asked. Interviewees will most likely provide varying feedback to questions and in some situations, opportunities for further explanation may arise, hence requiring more questioning which may or may not be listed on the standardized interview instrument. To alleviate this problem, the interview guide approach was considered to be the best alternative as it would provide a more conversational style allowing new questions to develop, while at the same time following a set focus which was predetermined.

**Interview Guide Rationale**

Due to the unique nature of the current study, an interview guide specifically designed for the participants in the Introductory Golf Program was created to guide the researcher in the data
collection process. Several sources were used to help the researcher create the questions. The
director and implementer of the Introductory Golf Program used three main sources to help form
the curriculum. These sources included, The PGAs First Swing Professional Guide, the SNAG
Program. All three of the sources included sections which essentially checked the students’
understanding of the material presented. These checklists helped guide the researcher in creating
interview questions. For example, in the SNAG Coaching System text at the end of each golf
instruction lesson, a smaller lesson was incorporated for life skills. Participants were asked
questions by the golf instructor such as, “What are goals?” and the instructor then went on to
explain how important goal setting was both in life and in the game of golf. Based on the
textbook question, a question was added to the interview guide related to goals and goal setting.

Additionally, the interview guide was also based on sound principles provided by experts
in qualitative interviewing. The order of the questionnaire followed Sudman and Bradburn’s
(1982) suggestion to begin with easy, salient, nonthreatening, but necessary questions. Hence,
one of the first questions for the participants was simply determining if they enjoyed physical
education. Furthermore, the questions began very general and gradually became more specific to
minimize ordering effects and the interviewer will use a transitional phrase to allow for a smooth
change in topical areas (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982). Near the end of the interview and with
closure of certain topics, the questions asked will be very specific, related to specific skills
learned as a result of the golf program. The goal of the interview was to uncover what
participants actually learned and experienced as a participant in the Introductory Golf Program.

In addition to an interview protocol for students, two separate interview guides were
created for the owner of GMS and the director of the Introductory Golf Program. Interviewing
these two men will provide the researcher with a greater understanding of what their goals for the
corporation and the golf program were, how they intended to meet these goals, and ultimately
how the corporation and participants would benefit. Corporate documents such as the mission
statement and objectives and the Tri-County Junior Golf Association’s purpose statement for the
program were quite important for the current study, and additional insight gained through an
interview process would help uncover invaluable information not available through documents
alone.
According to Kvale (1996), when designing an interview protocol, the “why” and “what” questions should be asked and answered before any “how” questions are imposed. Following such format, the interview guide was created for both the GMS owner and the golf program director. Each individual was questioned regarding “what” their goals were, “why” they believed such goals should be met or were important, and then “how” they intended to meet these goals through CSR activities and the Introductory Golf Program. Introducing questions with the intent to yield unprompted, rich descriptions, follow-up questions to extend subjects’ answers, and probing questions to pursue the answers further (Kvale, 1996) was the crux of the interview guide. More specifically, questions for the owner of the XYZ Golf Management Corporation were adopted from a previous study conducted by Brendan O’Dwyer (2002) which examined managers’ perceptions of corporate social disclosure. Questions for the golf program director were derived from The Villages Tri-County Junior Golf Association’s printed goals and objectives for the Introductory Golf Program, in addition to the supplemental material used to create the program curriculum.

Data Analysis

Each interview was audio recorded, transcribed verbatim, and then reviewed for accuracy. After data have been transcribed, the researcher began coding. Coding is defined as the “formal representation of categorizing and thematic analysis…” (Rossman & Rallis, 2003, p. 285). The transcripts were reviewed, codes were assigned to the narrative texts, and then similarities or patterns in the data were examined. More specifically, the text from each question was coded by first identifying keywords or topics, categories were then formed, and lastly findings and themes were identified as a last step in the analysis process. This processed helped the researcher discern commonalities between each interviewee’s responses to understand the social impact (or lack thereof) of the Introductory Golf Program.

Corporate documents and field note observations were also analyzed. As mentioned by Porter and Kramer (2006), identification of the “business” of a corporation will allow researchers to determine if there is alignment with those corporate CSR efforts. The researcher analyzed the mission statement and goals of the XYZ Golf Management Corporation. Again, the data was
Triangulation

Instead of using terms such as validity and reliability, in qualitative research these are replaced with triangulation techniques. Trustworthiness is a common term used in qualitative methodology and is composed of data credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Guba & Lincoln, 1982). Lincoln and Guba (1981, 1982, 1985) insisted each component of trustworthiness is imperative for rigorous qualitative research.

Credibility is achieved by incorporating activities into a study which help to ensure credible findings will be achieved. Member checks and triangulation are two methods of increasing credibility and both were incorporated in the current study. Transferability is different from generalizability in that it may allow for the tentative application of the findings to other contexts. This is only possible when a case study is very carefully and meticulously described in the case report so a reader may determine if the findings may be applicable in another similar setting. The researcher provided as much thick, detailed, and rich description in the current study to allow for potential transferability. To encourage dependability, the inquirer documented all methodological decisions in a log. This process is often considered to be an audit of the methodology used. Dependability and credibility go hand in hand as credible findings are dependent on good methodology (Rodwell & Byers, 1997). Each step of the research process is included in the appendix of the current study to provide a paper trail ensuring both dependability and credibility. Lastly, the confirmability component is concerned with linking the case study results to the data. Rodwell and Byers (1997) mentioned how a reflexive journal may be included to aid in confirmability, and in the current study the researcher maintained a reflexive journal.

To enhance triangulation in the current study, the general interview guide approach will be used which help ensure interviewees are all presented with questions along the same line of inquiry (Patton, 2002). The researcher will also attempt to schedule the interviews at
approximately the same time and location and will strive to keep the interviews the same length. Further the use of audio recording, accurate transcription, and a well documented field note will provide greater rigor for the study.

**Ethical Considerations**

To ensure subjects are treated ethically, the current research proposal was submitted to Florida State University’s Internal Review Board (IRB) (see Appendix F). A team of experts reviewed the proposal and the general interview guide (interview questions) to ensure all questions are appropriate for the interviewees. The researcher used fictitious names in transcribing the interviews to provide anonymity for the participants. Also, the purpose of the study and interview was clearly articulated to each participant. All interviewees knew they were being interviewed and audio recording equipment was in use. Lastly, interviewees were be required to submit parental consent forms prior to any contact by the researcher.
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

This chapter contains the results of the data analyses conducted for the current study. Qualitative data were collected using a variety of techniques including individual interviews, group interviews, and document analyses. Interview data were collected from participants in an introductory golf program at local schools, physical education (PE) teachers at the local schools, the golf instructor, and the a corporate owner who is contributing to the golf program. Document analyses included corporate documents such as mission statements, goals, and objectives, instructional material used for the golf program lessons, and documents providing an overview of the golf program itself. Results will be presented in the following sections: sample, observations, interviews, and documents.

Sample

Participants who returned parental permission slips and were present in school on the days the researcher conducted the interviews were included in the study. There were 237 total participants in the golf program throughout the grant period. The program was divided into separate six-week sessions. Consequently, 90 permission slips were distributed during the selected time frame. A total of 29 permission slips were returned and 23 participants interviewed. Table 4.1 below provides details of the participants in the study. To protect the identity of the participants, fictitious names were used.

<table>
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<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>School</th>
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<td>Anna</td>
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<td>5th</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dan</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>5th</td>
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Table 4.1 – continued

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<th>Grade</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</table>

The schools which participated in the introductory golf program included two middle schools, one charter and one rural, and a rural elementary school. School contact was made by the golf instructor who emailed each school in the district and surprisingly, only three schools responded. The initial email was sent to the PE teacher at each school and was followed by a receipt confirmation email.

All three schools were a part of the same school district which was located in the southeastern United States. The charter middle school was located in an upper-middle class
community, which included several golf courses. Approximately 650 students were enrolled in the school in grades five through eight. The rural public middle school was located in a lower class farming community with an enrollment of 403 students and served grades six through eight. Less than one half mile from the rural middle was the rural elementary school. This public elementary school had an enrollment of 252 students and included grades kindergarten through fifth. Both the rural middle and elementary schools were considerably older than the charter middle school which was built in the early 2000’s.

Physical education teachers included in the current study had all been teaching for over 20 years. The elementary PE teacher had been teaching her school the longest, for approximately 14 years. The rural middle school PE teacher was in his 12th year of teaching at the rural middle school and the charter middle teacher had only been teaching at the school for five years. Also, it is key to note the charter middle PE teacher’s contract was not to be renewed in the following year and this may offer some insight regarding his style of teaching. Both the rural middle and elementary PE teachers had tenure but tenure is not an option for teachers at charter middle schools. All of the PE teachers were over 40 years of age, but their exact ages were not provided.

The last two participants in the study were the golf management corporation’s owner/CEO and the golf instructor for the school program. The CEO was 64 years of age and had been in the golf management and hospitality business for over 30 years. He created his own company in 1995 and is the current owner and CEO. Before moving to the current location of the business, the CEO worked as a manager at a university owned golf course in the southeastern United States.

Lastly, the golf instructor was 41 years old and currently is a golf pro, certified by the PGA. He has worked as a golf pro, golf instructor, and/or a golf course maintenance employee for his entire adult life. For the current study, it was his second time instructing students on-site at schools. Last year the same program was implemented but only at the rural elementary school, and was funded by the same corporation and grant.
Observations

The researcher observed lessons taught by both the golf instructor and each school’s physical education teacher. Because the golf program was not extended for a final six weeks at the charter middle school, the researcher was unable to observe the instructor at that site. The goal was to better understand how the golf program was carried out and then also to check for any behavioral differences in the students when being taught by their daily physical education teacher versus the golf instructor. Additionally, the researcher was better able to determine the type of relationship/interaction the golf instructor had with the students. This relationship may have an impact on the students’ learning and retention of information and was needed for a complete picture of the program as a whole. In the following sections, a summary of the observational data at each school site is provided, ending with a summary of findings at each site.

Rural Elementary School – Golf Program Observation

The first physical education classes at the rural elementary school began at 8:45 a.m. The day began with third grade and followed with fifth grade, second grade, another set of third graders, and lastly, fourth grade. Each period lasted for 30 minutes. For this particular school, the golf instructor came on Monday of each week during the program session. On the school campus, the area in which the golf program took place was a large, open space, bordering the school’s softball field, playground, and dirt track. Essentially, the mock golf course and activities were set up in the center of the PE area. Unfortunately, there was little shade area for the children in the center of the field. However, there was a water fountain located on the side of the playground area and the children were encouraged to stop and drink water anytime they felt as if they needed to do so. It was not unbearably hot but it was quite warm with temperatures in the low 80’s. The field itself was rather hard due to a lack of rain. There was plenty of grass on the field that seemed to be maintained well by the school’s staff.

The golf activity on the day the researcher made her observations was a mock golf course. It was a seven-hole golf course with two par four’s and five par three’s, set up in the middle of the field. The maximum distance between each hole was approximately 75 yards. Some holes were closer to the “tee” area than others. Tee areas were nothing more than two
cones placed approximately five feet apart where the students began their play for each hole. The “holes” consisted of a hula hoop with a golf flag placed in the middle of the hoop. Each class period, regardless of grade level, participated in the same activity. Also, each class period followed the same format concerning introduction, activity, and closure.

As the children arrived to physical education, they were escorted out by their classroom teacher. They were led to a covered pavilion with a concrete floor. On the concrete floor, small paw prints were painted in straight lines. They were met by the PE teacher, a substitute teacher, and two teacher aides. On the day the researcher conducted observations, one of the PE teachers was absent and a substitute teacher was present. The children walked to the pavilion in lines and sat on the painted paws, filling in the front lines before those in the back. On the PE teacher’s command, which was a whistle blow, students were gradually silent and then instructed what to do on that day. Those in the golf program were asked to stand and walk to the instructor, led by a teacher aide.

Those children participating in the golf program met the instructor at the field area near the mock course. The instructor then explained what was to be done that day, handed children appropriately sized golf clubs, and gave each student one ball. He took great detail in making sure the students could be fitted with the appropriate club size. The balls used for the course were the same size and shape as a standard golf ball but did not carry as far when hit. “Almost Golf” was the name brand of the balls used and all were the same color, yellow. All of the golf clubs used by the children were donated by local residents of a local, very popular golf community/neighborhood. Additionally, some of the clubs were donated by XYZ golf management corporation. The golf instructor emphasized each that student was responsible for his/her equipment.

It appeared that the children had participated in this activity before because the instructor did not have to give detailed directions for any class period. When the children were told to pick a hole and begin play, they did just as they were told with no questions asked. In explaining the directions, the instructor would use golf jargon such as par, pitch, and tee. They were all very excited and when students were told to begin play, they actually ran to the tee area. Older children in fifth grade did not run to their tee areas but were still glad to be out there as
evidenced by the smiles on their faces. In fact, the majority of students were smiling most of the time except for when they would miss a ball or their target.

As the children began play, the instructor walked around to various students and provided feedback. He did this for each class period and never really took a break. The only break was when the students returned to their original class and the next group was arriving. He said to one student, a second grade female, “You need to keep your back straight and drop your shoulders.” It was this type of constant feedback that the students were receiving. When a student would make a nice shot, s/he would sometimes tell the instructor and he would give him/her a high five. Many of the younger children loved to share their experience with the instructor. A student even proceeded to tell the researcher about the shot he just made. They were all very proud when they did well and wanted to share their good news.

Concerning discipline, there were seemingly no major discipline problems. Of course there would be the occasional student who would laugh at another student who missed his/her shot, but because the field area was so large, the instructor was unable to hear every comment. There was one teacher aide who remained with the children in the golf program and she would walk around the course, keeping an eye on the children. Occasionally she could be heard instructing a student to get back on task. For the majority of the classes and for the majority of the time, the students were on task and did as they were told. During the second third grade group which arrived at 10:15 a.m., a few of the students actually did not want to leave until they were finished with a certain hole. A female student in third grade said she was having too much fun and did not want to go back inside the school.

As the classes were leaving, for each period the instructor would shout for everyone to come in, place their clubs in the golf bags, and return the golf balls. He would then ask if there were any questions, encourage students to keep trying, and always tried to let them leave on a positive note even if they just missed their last shot for example. During the fifth grade class, students were asked if they learned any new skills. A girl responded and said she learned she had to “hit down on the ball” to make it go over the hula hoop. Students walked away and some would say “We’ll see you next Monday.” Many students were already looking forward to the next week’s lesson and a few tried to ask what they would get to do next week. Often the instructor would say it would be a surprise, but a few times he would share next week’s plan.
Rural Elementary – Physical Education Observation

Students arrived to the PE classes in the same fashion as the observation day for the golf program at the school. After the PE teacher blew the whistle, she then told students “the story” for the day. “The story” is simply the day’s directions. The teacher had good control of the class and the teacher aides were helping watch also. There are actually two PE teachers at this school but the other PE teacher was absent and had a substitute teacher. On the day of the observation, it was the boy’s turn to play softball and all of the girls had the option of the PE equipment or the playground. “Girlie girls” were dismissed. The teacher instructed them to run one lap around the track and then they could play on the equipment. After the girls were dismissed, the boys were dismissed. They too had to run a lap and then meet on the long bench behind the backstop of the softball field. Conveniently, this bench was under a large oak tree which kept the students cool while they waited for others to finish the lap. Boys in the class left the pavilion much faster than the girls and tried to beat the girls who were still running around the track. Some of the boys did pass a few girls.

The teacher’s aide and substitute teacher remained with the girls, and the PE teacher was in charge of the boys playing softball. As the boys finished their lap, they sat on the bench behind the backstop. It was with the third grade class where the PE teacher spent too much time trying to determine the batting order. The softball game was a continuation from the day before and the students completely forgot their assigned numbers and were arguing. Finally, the PE teacher gave all new numbers and instructed all students to sit on the bench. She divided the class herself and sent half of them to the field. Arguing stopped.

The teacher’s aide was pitching and the PE teacher was the catcher. Two boys were standing up against the perimeter fence because they were in time-out for something that happened the day before. It was rather warm on this observation day but a slight breeze was blowing helping to cool down the students somewhat. None of the students were heard complaining about the heat.

The softball game was modified slightly to help those students who could not hit the ball. This was especially helpful for the younger grade levels. Students in fifth grade did not throw the ball even though they had the option. After two strikes the student at bat had the option of
throwing the ball instead of hitting it. Almost all of the students did that if they had two strikes. Those students sitting on the bench would shout to the batter to “throw it” if they did not hit the ball on the first two pitches. Students in the outfield were spread evenly but most were on the infield. The ball was rarely hit in the outfield so their positions were good.

Most of the students sitting on the bench waiting to hit were behaving. They were all chatting amongst themselves. A few did talk about the student at bat. During the third grade class one student said to another, “He can’t hit the ball he just needs to throw it.” In the fourth grade class, one boy shouted out, “Oh my God you’re gonna strike out!” The PE teacher stopped play on the field, held her hand up to the boys sitting on the bench, and they were quiet. Play then resumed. Because of the distance from the bench to the PE teacher, she did not hear most of their comments of which most were rather derogatory regarding the student at bat. If a student stood up off the bench, the teacher aide who was pitching would shout for him to sit down and he would immediately. Those sitting on the bench were anxious to get up but still remained seated.

This was perhaps not the best PE lesson. Half of the class was sitting on the bench and the other half of the class was just standing in the outfield. The lap around the track was the only substantial physical activity the class as a whole received. Students in the outfield were not paying attention and some were even drawing the sand. Those on the bench were not being physically active and were ready to get up and play. Overall, while the students in each grade level were well behaved considering the activity at hand, the lesson did not allow for optimal physical activity for the students which should be a main goal of all PE programs.

**Rural Middle School – Golf Program Observation**

The number of students in each PE class at the rural middle school was rather low. For example, in the first period class which consisted of both sixth and seventh graders, there were only 14 total in the class. Consequently, the number of students in each period for the golf program was rather low also. In the first period class which began at 9:05 a.m, there were only four participants in the golf program.

Much like the rural elementary school, this middle school had a large open grassy area where the instructor set up his equipment for the golf program. This open area was located behind the main school building and was bordered on the opposite side by a tall chain-linked
fence. Behind the fence was a neighborhood with older, small homes. There were several large oak trees surrounding the open area which provided shade for the students when they were being told the day’s lessons and objectives.

This particular day’s activities were the same as those at the rural elementary school. A mock golf course was set up similarly to the rural elementary school, with the only change being area from the tee’s to the holes were about 5 yards closer together. The same equipment was used including cones, hula hoops, flags, and “Almost Golf” balls. Because the course was so close to the fence, the holes and tee’s (fairway perhaps) were placed parallel to the fence to prevent golf balls from going over the fence.

Unlike the elementary school, students walked themselves from class to class. When students first arrived they went to their locker rooms to dress-out. Those students not participating in the program remained in the gym with the teacher’s aide and played basketball. The PE teacher walked the golf program participants out to the course and remained with the class for the duration of the lesson. Throughout the day the PE interacted with the class and offered his help to the golf instructor. For the majority of the day, the PE helped with equipment and did not offer much instruction to the students who were golfing.

The golf students met the instructor under a large oak tree adjacent to the mock golf course/open area. Like the elementary students, they stood in a semi-circle in front of the instructor as he provided the day’s instructions. During each period the golf instructor reminded students about birdies, par, bogey, and other golf jargon. Typically, at least one student in each grade level was able to answer his questions regarding terminology and there were a few who still became confused when asked to define certain words. Additionally, for all of the classes the instructor mentioned the movie “The Legend of Bagger Vance” and the scene where the main character reported a penalty stroke on himself. The instructor then attempted to tie that scene in with the concepts of honesty. He mentioned several times there were no referees on the golf courses and but students should still not cheat. Most of the students had not watched the movie and it seemed as if they were not really following the story line. Afterward, the instructor took a shot from the closest tee area reminding students of the proper grip and stance. Most were in awe when he placed the ball so closely to the hole. They were reminded to take their time and
how the goal was not to finish the course in the quickest time. Students were then given appropriately sized clubs and were told to each begin play at a different hole on the course.

As the students began play, some congratulated each other when a good shot was made. Additionally, the PE teacher would make a big deal when a student made a great shot that he saw. All of the students were trying really hard to make the shot in as few strokes as possible. During seventh period, two sixth grade boys laughed at another student who made a swing and completely missed the ball. The PE teacher immediately reprimanded the students and asked how would they feel if someone were laughing at them. Because the majority of students stayed on task throughout the day, very little behavioral problems were noticed. The combination of the very small group and the novel tasks seemed conducive for great student behavior.

One of the most rewarding experiences of the day for both the instructor and the PE teacher came during fifth period. In this particular class there are several mentally challenged students. The course was modified by bringing in the hula hoops and flags closer together with the cone (tee area) only 20 feet apart. An aide came to the field with this group and by modifying the course, all students could be watched more closely. Students varied in age and mental abilities. An older male student was gripping the club correctly and made nice swings. Each time he did he was encouraged by all of the adults. A female student who appeared to have down syndrome was gripping the club near the club head. The instructor attempted to move her hands up the club but she would immediately put them in her original position. Nevertheless, the PE teacher commented to the golf instructor that this was only the second time that particular student had even picked up any equipment and tried to do an activity at PE. In the past she sat down or walk the track and just watched the other students. Both the PE teacher and golf instructor were delighted she wanted to hit the ball into the hoop. She had a smile on her face during the entire class.

With the ending of each period throughout the day, the golf instructor again called all students over by the large oak tree. They gently put the equipment away and then stood in front of the instructor and PE teacher awaiting final instructions. On this particular day the instructor presented students with a poster depicting levels of responsibility. He explained what each level meant, with five being the most responsible and one being the least. Students were asked which level of responsibility they showed during the period. Even though most showed really great
behavior, several students in each class said they were only on level three. The golf instructor mentioned how he thought they were on level five and one seventh grade girl responded with, “I’m just being honest and I think I was only at level three because at times I did not pay attention to what I was doing.” She was then asked if she knew how to move up to the top levels and she indicated she knew how to get better.

The responsibility poster was a nice touch to provide students with a visual explanation of responsibility. It was large enough for each student to read without difficulty and looked professional, which held the attention of most students. A group of seventh grade girls were giggling amongst themselves when they were asked to identify their level of responsibility. It seemed as if that particular group did not take the poster seriously. However, the majority of students were attentive and listened to the explanation of the poster.

After the poster session the students were dismissed and walked back to the gym and locker room with the PE teacher. The golf instructor had approximately 15 minutes between each class and it was during this time where he spoke with the researcher regarding how well the lesson went and different students’ performances. He also showed the researcher how to properly grip the club, make a correct swing, and line up properly to the hole. It was evident he knew a great deal about golf and was immediately able to correct the instructor to help improve her skills.

Rural Middle School – Physical Education Observation

During each class period at the rural middle school, the students dressed out and then met the PE teacher in the gym. The gym appeared to have been built in the 1950’s and was very large with pull-out seats on each side with a basketball goal on each end. Floors in the gym were very attractive with the school mascot and name painted in the middle. The hardwood floors looked great and gave the gym a classic feel. As the students arrived in the gym they sat in the seats in front of the PE teacher. The teacher checked attendance and marked who had or had not dressed out and again, because the classes were so small, the students only had to wait for approximately two minutes before they could begin play. Basketballs were then given to the students. The court was divided in half, one goal was used for a half-court game of basketball and other goal was for those who just wanted to practice shooting.
All periods throughout the day followed the above format. An observation of only one period would have most likely been sufficient to get a good picture of the PE teacher’s interaction with the students and student behavior overall. The PE teacher was very relaxed throughout the day but if he needed to raise his voice and tell a student to behave, he did and the student would listen immediately. He had a loud, deep voice which could be heard over the students’ chatter and the bouncing basketballs. Very seldom did the PE teacher need to raise his voice because the students were all playing basketball amongst themselves and seemed to be delighted to do so.

As each period began and students played basketball, there was little or no noticeable change in student behavior from one period to the next. There were of course noticeable changes in skill level but otherwise the overall student behavior was quite similar. Students could be heard complimenting each other on a nice move or shot, shouting directions to each other as they played, and laughing when any student would do something amusing. During third period a male student attempted a shot with his back to the goal and missed badly. All students watching him laughed and then others tried to make the shot as well. Several times in each period the PE teacher would offer some advice on how to improve shots or how to correctly dribble the ball. The teacher’s aide was present all day but just sat in a chair and kept an eye on students from there. She had little interaction with the students.

When it was time for the fifth period to begin the same group of special education students arrived. They very slowly walked in the gym with their teacher aide and unlike the other students, they did not dress out for PE. The PE teacher approached them and greeted them all by name and asked how they were doing. Most of the students smiled, looked down at the ground, and said they were doing “OK.” A few of the students were very intently looking at the researcher sitting in the corner. It was evident they were interested in what she doing in their gym typing on a laptop. The class was instructed to get a basketball and practice shooting. The three boys in the class were shooting the ball at the goal while the only two girls just walked around. Finally, the girl who during the golf program was attempting to get the golf ball in the hoop, sat down and rolled the ball back and forth to the other girl student who was standing. They laughed and rolled the ball back and forth for about four minutes until the standing student walked away with her ball. The girl sitting on the gym floor just sat there the remainder of the
period and watched the other students bounce the ball and attempt to make the goal. Near the end of the period, all students with a ball returned them to the PE teacher, drank water from the fountain in the gym, and left with the teacher aide. They all smiled and waved good-bye to the PE teacher and happily followed the teacher aide back to their classroom.

Throughout the entire observation, which was one full day with the PE teacher and his classes, discipline was not an issue. There were very few behavioral problems and those that did occur were very minor and were handled by the teacher before they escalated into something more severe. Unfortunately, there was very little PE instruction that was actually observed. Aside from the occasional compliment or suggestion on how to improve a particular shot, the PE teacher just supervised. The researcher arrived with only two weeks left of school, which may have impacted the choice of activity by the PE teacher. Most of the students however seemed very pleased to be in the gym and really made the most of their opportunity to play basketball.

Charter Middle School – Physical Education Observation

The physical environment at the charter middle school was by far the nicest school in the current study. Every element of the landscape was linked to the overall color scheme of the buildings. A nice black wooden fence lined the school property. The PE fields were very large, enclosed by the wooden fences, and were well manicured. During the observation day, the PE class was in the gym. The gym was equally impressive with a nice hardwood floor, new bleachers lined one side, a stage on the other, a basketball goal on each end, and the latest architectural advances in lighting. No comfort was spared in the construction of the gym, or the school as a whole.

The fifth graders were all led to the gym by their classroom teachers, but the other grade levels were permitted to walk to the gym without teacher supervision. Because the students were in the gym, they were not required to dress out. As the classes arrived, students sat in the bleachers near the end in a section where they were instructed to do so each day. When the PE teacher walked in the gym, it took him several whistle blows to get the class quiet and ready for the day’s directions.

On that particular day, the lesson plan was a game of indoor soccer. There were two small indoor soccer goals located under each end of the basketball goals. Teams were divided by
counting off students with every other student being on the same team. A few of the students tried to switch seats quickly so they would be on the same team as their friends but the PE teacher told everyone to keep their seat and they did so.

As the students walked on the basketball court, three students ran to the goals so they could be goalie. The first one at each goal was the goalie and there was no argument over who would play the position. Other students spread out with two boys in the center who were facing each other. The PE coach walked on the court, placed the soccer ball on the center line and walked away. He sat on the stage where a microphone was attached to the sound system on the stage. He directed the game from that position.

Once the game began students were running and playing with no problems. During the first period, which was fifth grade, a group of girls on either team did not seem to want to play and were doing more talking and standing with each other rather than playing. They would scream loudly when the ball would come near them and then attempt to hit it. The same situation occurred during the second period class. One girl shouted “Get it away from me” when the ball came near her. The majority of the boys were very active in each class period. It was evident which boys had more skills than others and they definitely touched the ball more than others. When a ball would go out of bounds the PE coach would give directions from the microphone. Also, when a goal was scored the students would return the ball to the center line and the PE teacher would not allow them to begin until everyone was quiet. Several class periods had to wait for one minute or longer because students were talking and the coach could not be heard very well.

As the classes came to a close, the PE teacher would walk out on the court and remove the soccer ball. Students would then line up at the door. In several classes, students ran to the door in a very chaotic manner but no students were hurt and no arguments ensued. There always seemed to be a moment of chaos however when the periods would come to a close. The PE teacher was very laid-back and did not seem to mind when they ran to the door. Throughout each period the teacher did not give any specific skill-related feedback. His sole purpose was to keep the game under control. The games and class exits could be described best as organized chaos. Overall, behavior at this school was not the most orderly but there were no major issues from period to period.
Synthesis of Findings

In the classes that were observed, there were several key findings which help to shed light on the behavior of students and interaction with both the golf instructor and their daily PE teacher. The process of open coding was used to analyze the observational data. The following table (4.2) depicts the categories and concepts which emerged from the data. An explanation of each category is also provided.

Table 4.2
Observation Data Coding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Behavior</td>
<td>Excitement/Enthusiasm</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participative</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rowdy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf Instructor Behavior</td>
<td>Informative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organized</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE Teacher Behavior</td>
<td>Lackadaisical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Active</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Student Behavior – Excited/Enthusiastic**

In the category of student behavior, four important findings were revealed in the observation data. The first keyword clearly evident in all data collected at both schools was excitement/enthusiasm. For both the rural middle and rural elementary schools, students were equally as excited to participate. It seemed as if all students who participated in the golf program
were excited and enthusiastic to participate. Most of the students had a smile on their face for the greater part of each class period. When students would shout to the instructor and/or PE teacher asking if anyone saw the shot they just made, it was clearly evident they were excited and happy. At times, students were seen giving high five’s to the instructor. Several students at both the elementary and middle school students were eager to know what would be done during the next class and most students did not want to leave.

The level of excitement and enthusiasm seemed to be similar across all grades level and both schools included in the observation. However, there did seem to be a slight difference in the level of enthusiasm when students were participating in the golf program versus their daily PE classes. Students were seemingly glad to be out at PE but the actual level of enthusiasm was not as high. For example, there were students in almost every PE class who, regardless the activity, clearly did not want to participate. They avoided contact with others who were engaged in play and did not make an attempt to actively participate. In the golf program that type of behavior was never seen. This leads to the second keyword revealed in the data, participative.

**Student Behavior – Participative**

The level of student participation in the golf program was extraordinarily high when compared to the regular PE classes. This most likely occurred for two key reasons. First, the structure of the activities in the golf program allowed for all students to be active for the entire period. With the PE activities, this was not always the case. In the elementary school, half of the class had to sit on the bench and wait for their turn to bat. The other half of the class was simply standing in the outfield waiting for the occasional good hit. In the charter middle school, students were playing an indoor soccer game with only one ball. Many of the students, especially the older female students did not attempt to play at all. As a result, some stood in the middle of the gym floor for the majority of the period instead of engaging in physical activity. Students at the rural middle school were more engaged than those at the charter middle school, but still they were not constantly active like those in golf program.

The second reason why students may have been more participative in the golf program was again related to the nature of the activities, in this case the novelty of the tasks. In the golf program, students were constantly engaged in novel tasks and seemed eager to participate in something new. It was almost as if each day in the golf program students were introduced to a
new activity, even if the mock golf course was only modified slightly. In the PE classes, students were accustomed to the activities and were not experiencing anything “new.” The students knew the games of both basketball and indoor soccer very well and could possibly have grown tired of the same activities.

**Student Behavior - Rowdy**

Rowdy student behavior was exhibited mostly at the charter school. Students had to be told to quiet down several times by the PE teacher, and this occurred with multiple classes. As the students began play the behaviors improved. However, at different points in the game when students were asked to be quiet, several minutes were spent waiting for them to do so. Also, when the period was over, students ran to the door to line up and again had to be instructed to quiet down before they were allowed to leave. Rowdy behavior was somewhat evident at the elementary school, but this may have also been related to the nature of the activity. Requiring students to sit on a bench for an extended period of time while others were batting was quite a challenge. Students on the bench would stand, touched each other, and made comments about their fellow students who were batting. While this behavior was considerably more structured than the charter middle school behavior, it could still be classified as rowdy. Students at the rural middle school showed very little rowdy behavior. This may be explained by the extremely small class size.

There was a noticeable change rowdy behavior when students were participating in the golf program. Again, the group size was small so this may have attributed to the good behavior. Also, because students were actively engaged and on task, there was very little time for them to become rowdy or unruly. At no time was the majority of the class rowdy or even loud during the golf program, regardless of which school was under observation.

**Student Behavior – Attentive**

The final keyword revealed through the data was attentive behavior. This particular keyword is most applicable for students during the golf program due to the fact that in the PE classes, little or no instruction was being provided. The only instructions the students were given during the PE classes was related to where to line, where to stand, what team to join, and when to be dismissed. At those times most students were attentive and listening to what they should do. Those elementary students who received feedback from the PE teacher regarding their softball
performance were also attentive to her remarks. Students at the rural middle school were attentive when the PE teacher would offer help on how to improve their basketball game, but this help was not offered frequently.

Attentive behavior was most evident during the one-on-one golf instruction. The instructor would walk up to a student on the mock golf course and provide specific instruction on how to improve his/her golf skills. A great example was a student at the rural middle school who seemed especially delighted when after closely listening to individual feedback hit the ball exactly the way he should. Students were also attentive at the beginning and ending of each golf class. However, when the instructor was speaking to students in the groups of six to eight, a few were perhaps not as attentive as they could have been. At times if the instructor attempted to speak for longer than three to four minutes, some students would begin to look around and lose their focus. This usually occurred at the very beginning or ending of each period. Overall, all students were quite visibly more attentive when participating in the golf program.

_Golf Instructor Behavior - Informative_

The observation of the golf instructor’s behavior also yielded four keywords. Informative was the first and most prominent keyword revealed from the data. At each school, for each period, and for all students, the instructor provided copious amounts of feedback and instruction. He addressed issues such as club size, club type, grips, swings, golf jargon, and proper form. The instructor was never observed sitting down but was always up, walking around the field of play with the students, and giving constant feedback. Early one morning at the rural middle school the golf instructor was unaware the researcher was approaching the field of play and he could be seen demonstrating a proper swing to a student who arrived early to class. It was evident the instructor was very skilled in golf and was willing to share that information with the students.

_Golf Instructor Behavior – Organized_

At each school observed, when the students arrived to their PE class and then to the golf area, the instructor had all equipment set up and ready for the day’s lesson. For each class he knew exactly what was to be done and had system in place for which class would do each activity. A great example, which was mentioned earlier, was the special education class at the rural elementary school. The instructor had a modified course waiting for them when they
arrived to class to ensure they too would have a chance to be successful. Also, when addressing
the classes as a whole, the instructor was very organized regarding where each student should
begin play. The introduction and closure for each lesson was also well planned and the
instructor knew which key points he wanted to highlight for the day’s activities.

Golf Instructor Behavior - Attentive

The attentiveness of the golf instructor was alluded to in the previous paragraphs. As
mentioned, the instructor was constantly moving about the field of play keeping an eye on the
students as they advanced from hole to hole. If a student had a question he was always willing to
answer and did his best to help. While students were making their swings, the instructor was
attentive to their skill development and would always offer feedback for improvement. Another
example of the instructor’s attentiveness was the way helped students select the appropriate golf
club for their height. He was attentive to their physical needs and also to their developmental
needs to become better golfers.

Golf Instructor Behavior - Motivational

The last keyword which emerged from the data was motivational. High five’s,
compliments, and other examples of student encouragement were evident during each class
period. Some students would become slightly frustrated perhaps because they missed the ball or
they did not make the hole in par or below. The instructor would constantly remind them how
they are just beginners and they will become better with time and practice. Several times he tried
to encourage students by saying their shots were perfect but the grassy field caused their ball to
stray from the straight path. The most common types of motivational behaviors observed were
words of encouragement and high five’s. The elementary students especially liked the high
five’s whereas the older students seemed to prefer words of encouragement. At the closure of
each lesson, the instructor was always positive, complimented the group, and encouraged more
practice.

Physical Education Teacher Behavior – Lackadaisical

Lackadaisical behaviors were most common at the rural middle and charter middle
schools. The teachers were very relaxed and did not offer much instruction. Both teachers
basically provided instructions for the activity and then allowed students to play for the duration
of the period. At the rural middle school the PE teacher passed out the basketballs and then sat
in a chair near the end of the gym and supervised. Similarly, the charter middle school PE
teacher sat on the gym stage and gave directions to the class through a microphone. No feedback
was provided to any of the students at the charter middle school regarding their performance and
there were only a few instances of feedback at the rural middle school. The rural elementary PE
teacher’s behavior was not categorized as lackadaisical. She participated with each of the classes
throughout the day and offered intermittent feedback for various students. Often times with PE
programs there is a lack of accountability and the observed behaviors are certainly not unique
cases.

*Physical Education Teacher Behavior – Active*

Different levels of physical activity were evident in the separate teaching styles of the PE
teachers. Negative cases of the “active” keyword would be both middle school teachers. The
frequency of physical activity and participation was highest for the elementary teacher, followed
by the rural PE teacher, and charter school PE teacher. For each period of the day, the
elementary PE teacher was the catcher in the game of softball. She actively participated in each
period and was always visible for the students. The rural middle school teacher occasionally
took at shot at the goal during the basketball games but for the majority of the day he was on the
sidelines. The most inactive PE teacher was by far the charter school PE teacher. He sat on the
stage during the entire game of indoor soccer and spoke to the children through a microphone.

*Physical Education Teacher Behavior – Attentive*

Like the level of physical activity, there seemed to be a great variety in the attentiveness
behaviors of the PE teachers. Because the two middle school teachers essentially “rolled the ball
out” and let students play as they wished, they were categorized as the most inattentive. The
rural PE teacher carried on a conversion with his teacher aide at different times during the day
and the charter middle school teacher simply sat on the stage and waited for a goal to be scored
so he could announce the score to begin the next round of play. Once again, the elementary PE
teacher seemed to exhibit most attentive behaviors. She was aware of the students’ actions in her
class and was assisted by her teacher aide in keeping a watchful eye. Between both adults, the
students were watched closely and were not offered much room for unsupervised activity. For
example the PE teacher heard comments made by a student regarding another student’s batting
performance and immediately reacted by forcing the entire bench to sit in silence. Additionally,
the elementary teacher was constantly encouraging students to drink water if they became too hot to prevent any heat related illnesses.

*Physical Education Teacher Behavior – Instruction*

The last keyword which surfaced from the observations was instruction. When compared to the golf instructor the PE teachers as a group offered virtually no instruction. Frequency of this coding was most predominant with the elementary PE teacher, again followed by the rural middle PE teacher and the charter middle PE teacher. When students picked up the bat, the elementary PE teacher immediately corrected their form if needed and would occasionally stop a student before he made the next swing to offer help. On less than 10 separate occasions the rural middle school teacher offered instructional feedback to students practicing basketball. He was heard instructing a student to “get more arc” on his shot. Unfortunately for the students, the charter middle PE teacher offered no feedback whatsoever regarding their performance in the game of indoor soccer. These behaviors are also common occurrences in PE programs. Students are often given equipment and the PE teacher often serves as a babysitter rather than an instructor.

**Student Interviews**

Coding for the student interviews was done through NVivo qualitative analysis program. Through the analysis, keywords and categories were formed based on the collected data. Table 4.3 below presents the results. In the section to follow, an explanation of each category, its keywords, and quotes to support both are provided. The sections will conclude with a presentation of the themes derived from the data.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Category</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>Favorite Subject</td>
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<td>Golf Activities</td>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
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Table 4.3 -- continued

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<th>Category</th>
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<td>Previous Participation</td>
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<td>Golf Program Evaluation</td>
<td>Fun</td>
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<td>Learning</td>
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<td>Recommendation</td>
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<td>Golf Knowledge</td>
<td>Definition (1)</td>
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<td>Identification (1)</td>
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<td>Safety</td>
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<td>Unsure (1)</td>
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<td>Intentions</td>
<td>Athletics Participation</td>
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<td>Life Lessons</td>
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Favorite Subject. For the category of favorite subject, the data were simply coded by subject. Students were asked to identify their favorite subject at school for two main reasons. First, this was one of the first questions asked and it was intended to make students more at ease
during the interview process and hopefully more willing to answer specific questions regarding the golf program. Secondly, data from this question may provide a deeper understanding of students’ true interest, enjoyment, and learning in the golf program.

There were a variety of answers for this particular question. Math, history, and science were the most commonly reported answers, followed by reading, geography, art, and spelling. Of the 23 students interviewed, only three reported PE as their favorite subject. This number may have been so low because students sometimes do not think of PE as an actual subject. For example, one seventh grade student Sam, asked if PE counted as a subject. When the researcher answered yes, then he said that was indeed his favorite subject.

Golf Activities. Regarding the golf activities associated with the introductory golf program, two keywords were revealed from the data: enjoyment and favorite. The interview data revealed the students enjoyed almost all of the golf program activities. Throughout all of the interviews, students commented how much fun the program was and how they really liked it. A charter middle school student Faye said, “I really liked it.” Another student, Pam reported “I just love playing golf.” Trey and Anna, who were not interviewed together both stated, “I just liked/loved being out there.” Jay, a fourth grade student even enjoyed the “golf playing cow” which arrived on the last day of the program and represented Chick-Fil-A.

The second keyword derived from the interview data was favorite. Data coded “favorite” were simply when the students provided examples of various golf activities in the program. Students were asked what their favorite and least favorite activities were and a variety of answers were provided. The majority of students from each school and in each grade level were able to identify various activities as their favorite or least favorite, with only a few who said they did not have a favorite or least favorite.

A common activity, the mock golf course, was identified as the favorite for several students. Kim reported, “I liked it how on the last day we had this golf course thing set up using a small floatie and then there’d be like a flag in it and you had to try and touch the little floatie.” Several other students mentioned how they liked hitting the ball far, driving, practicing, chipping the ball, and even “swinging the golf thing.” Dan, reported his favorite part of the program was simply “most all of it.” When Trent a sixth grade student at the rural middle school was asked his favorite part of the program his stated, “It’s a lot of stuff. I can’t think about just one.”
An interesting finding was from two students at the charter middle school where the PE field had a hill in one area of play. It was there where the golf instructor set up a more challenging hole requiring students to hit the ball down the hill and into the hole (which consisted of a hula hoop and flag). Pam and Greg both reported that was one of their favorite activities. It seemed challenging holes were some of the most favorite activities. Lisa enjoyed an activity where she was required to hit the ball over an obstacle and into the hole. Similarly, Sara liked to hit the ball “real high.” While most of the examples provided for the favorite parts of the program were related to the actual performance of the activities, one student reported his favorite part was “actually learning how to play.”

Answers for the favorite parts of the program were quiet numerous. On the other hand, the answers provided for the least favorite part of the program were rather limited. Most students said they did not have a least favorite part of the program but there were a few who divulged. Some of the students’ answers were not directly related to the program itself. For example, two students said their least favorite part of the program was the sun. A few others mentioned how their least favorite part was when the missed the ball, missed the target, the ball does not go far, or they did not hit their shot straight.

A few specific activities were provided which some students did not enjoy. Two girls who were interviewed together said they did not like a balloon drill. The students were required to hold a balloon between their arms as they swing the club to help “keep the shape.” Lisa stated she did not like “the hand thing.” She was referring to the grip which was taught and mentioned how she had trouble interlocking her fingers. Tina did not enjoy putting and Ali did not like when the lessons were over and all of the balls had to be picked up off of the ground. Lastly, Ellen explained her least favorite part:

My least favorite part is when like when they come out and some people they don’t do it right and they have to come out and tell every single person to stop playing and they have to tell everybody, even if you already know and when you have to concentrate on getting the ball like right where it is supposed to be. Like right in those little hoops. That is so…ugh…

In summary, most of what the students reported as their least favorite parts of the program was mostly out of the control of the instructor. Complaints like the hot sun or hitting
the ball off target are two such examples. Overwhelmingly, the students were able to provide a variety of specific activities which they truly enjoyed and only a few activities which were more challenging than not enjoyable. It a following section on golf program recommendation, this idea is reemphasized by the number of students who reported the program was so much fun.

Golf Experience. In the category of golf experience, participants’ answers led to two set of keyword which goes hand in hand. First, the key phrase of club ownership was revealed. Secondly, previous participation emerged as students were asked about their prior golf experiences. Within the previous participation key phrase, it was also discovered what individual(s) was(ware) the main influence in the lives of the children concerning their golfing activities.

There were several students who indicated they owned their own set of clubs. This is a key finding to include in the study as it will help the researcher to better understand students’ golf experiences, their desire to play golf, and perhaps their intentions to continue playing. Only three of the students interviewed stated they were given golf clubs in the previous year’s golf program. An additional two students owned clubs which were not provided by the school program. In total, only five of the 23 students interviewed actually owned their own set of clubs. This number may increase at the end of the year however because some students, based on their interest and parent consent, will be given a pair of used clubs from the school program.

Additionally, students were asked about their previous golf experiences and/or participation. There was quite a wide range of experience among the students interviewed. Faye, a fifth grade student at the charter middle school, reported she took three or four golf lessons and week and went to the golf course on Saturdays with her father. She also said her father wanted her to be a professional golfer or swimmer. Other students indicated the only experience they had on a “real golf course” was going to the driving range and hitting golf balls. Still others said put-put and the introductory golf program was the extent of their golf experience and some reported no experience at all. The total number of students who had previous golf experience either with the previous school program or with friends/family was 12, although three additional students said they did play golf before but it was on a mini-golf course or put-put. For those students who reported they played golf outside of school, they were asked who took them
to the courses. Family members, and more specifically fathers, were the most common answers. A few students said they played with friends or step-parents.

**Golf Program Evaluation.** Keywords associated with the golf program evaluation included fun, learning, and recommendation. These were all three based from the question, “Would you recommend this program to other students?” Fun was a one of the most commonly keywords found in the data. When students were asked why they would recommend this program to others, the single most reported answer was “because it is fun.” Jan, a second grade student said golf was the most fun PE activity. Similarly, Anna stated, “Just being out there was fun.” Sixth grade Tyler very vividly stated, “You get to hold the club and get the rush of the feeling to have fun and live life!” Sam, a seventh grader at the rural middle school summed up his idea of fun with golf by stating, “Well, once you get past the whole learning how to play and everything, it’s actually kind of fun just hitting balls.”

The second keyword associated with the golf program evaluation category was learning. Not only did students mention they had fun participating, but they also said they learned a great deal. John said he “learned a lot. Like it’s fun. [you learn] How to hold the club, how to swing all the way through, just how to play right.” Fifth grade Greg said, “You get to learn a lot about golf.” Kim, referring to life lessons perhaps stated, “You get to learn a lot of other stuff besides just golf.” She then went on to list responsibility, teamwork, and being together as the “other stuff” a participant may learn in the program. Pam said others should give it a try because “you could learn some new things about golf.” One final quote from the student interviews which highlighted the learning aspect of the program was made by Faye, “You can also learn a lot of different like life lessons and don’t just learn things only about golf.”

Almost all of the students interviewed said they would recommend the program to others. Only a couple of the students did not actually state they would recommend it but instead worded their answers by saying they had fun but did not know if someone else would like the same thing. There were no students who said they would not recommend the program. Lisa said, “Do it. Because it’s fun and you can learn a whole bunch of stuff that you didn’t know.” When sixth grade Trey was asked why he recommended the program he stated,

You come out here, enjoy the view, feel the wind… it might be too hot so you may need to wear a hat or whatever but you could just enjoy it. Like you can be out here and you’ll
be in your own little world because you’d be focusing on hitting the ball in the thing or whatever and miss it and be like dang man, you missed the hole or whatever, but you just keep trying and trying and not like you are in a real tournament, it’s just for fun.

In Tyler’s recommendation to others he said,

I’d be like… it’s up to you, not me and if you want to do it you can come out here and have fun with me. But if you don’t want to do it, you can do something else.

A final quote which offers insight on students’ recommendation was provided by Sam who said,

I’d say you should at least go try it [the golf program] and that it would be a good idea and see if you like it and have a new experience in it, and especially if you don’t know how to play and you’ve never done it before.

A few of the students interviewed went as far as providing recommendations to make the program better. Several students said they wanted more time golfing and wanted to participate in the program more frequently. This request is understandable since the golf instructor was only able to go to each school once per week. Tom said he would like “real golf holes” because the hula hoops sometimes block his ball from hitting the flag and Sara would like to use tees, “because sometimes this ground is kind of tough.” While these suggestions may be unrealistic (such as the real golf holes) it does show students care about the program and know of what they would do to improve it.

*Golf Knowledge.* The category of golf knowledge encompassed a great amount of data. Definition, identification, safety, and unsure were the four keywords derived from students’ interviews. The definition keyword represented students’ definitions of various golf terminologies. Identification included students’ recognition of different terminologies but not the actual defining of the terms. Safety was a common keyword as many students discussed ways to be safe while participating in the program. The final category, unsure, was revealed as some students were not able to clearly articulate the meanings of various terms or simply stated they did not know the answers.

Definition, the first keyword in the golf knowledge category, included a variety of terms. Examples of the terms defined included par, birdie, and bogey. When students attempted to define par, many of them tried to do so by saying “par is two” or “par is when you get it in on the second shot.” On the mock golf for the golf program, the courses were set up with par three and
par four holes so it may have been students were not aware the actual “par” could change depending on which golf course they were actually playing. Pam said par was, “…like three hits and a bogey is two or something, I don’t know.” Fourth grade Ellen had a different conceptualization of par. She said, “…whenever you are counting and you have to get it in there by and you have to like make it.” Later in the interview, the researcher asked what a par three meant and Ellen responded, “It’s when you hit the ball and how many times you get it in the thing, in like three strokes; I mean like two or four strokes.” It seemed students had an understanding of what par meant but had difficulty articulating the exact definition. Sam, a seventh grade student, responded with a similar answer by stating, “I think it’s how many times you’ve hit the golf ball or something like that before you’ve gotten it in the hole…” Another student did not offer any definition of par but only stated she “wasn’t sure about that one.”

Birdie was another term students attempted to define. Like the definitions of par, there were a variety of definitions for birdie. Several of the older students were able to accurately define birdie. Lisa was asked what a birdie would be if par was three and she correctly responded with two as her answer. Dan said, “If you miss one you get a birdie.” Sixth grade John answered, “If it’s a par three and you get it in on the second try, then it’s a birdie.” When Trent referred to a birdie he said, “That one is good because it’s one under par.” Liz answered, “He taught us that a birdie was if the hole was a par three, a birdie would be two.” A student who stated she had a great deal of golf experience said, “He made us do a whole golf course…and make it in so like we’d make our par.”

There were however some students who could not define birdie. In an interview with three fourth grade students, one student attempted to define birdie, provided an incorrect answer, and another said, “That’s not a birdie; it was something else.” But still, no student in that group was unable to accurately define birdie. Scott confused birdie with bogey by saying a birdie was one over par. Jay just thought a birdie was three. Yet another student admitted she had heard the term during the lessons but forgot what exactly it meant.

Similar answers were provided with the definitions of bogey. Lisa, who correctly defined birdie was also able to provide the correct answer for bogey. Jan, a second grade student said bogey was “if you get over a par.” Scott who was previously confused with birdie thought a bogey was under par. Liz said “A bogey is when you miss and go over.” Another student who
attempted to define bogey presented his answer is a question type format by stating, “One over par is called something... a bogey?”

The next keyword revealed in the interview data was identification. Some students identified golf terminology or golf jargon but did not offer any definition until they were asked to do so. Such data was simply coded “identification” because terms were identified but not necessarily defined. Common terms which were identified included birdie, par, bogey, and eagle. When Faye was asked what new terminology she learned, she responded with, “He teaches use like birdies and pars.” Lisa just began listing the words she learned including par, birdie, bogey, double bogey, triple bogey, and a hole in one. Of the 23 students interviewed, only three students did not provide any new terminology. However, those three students were being interviewed with others who answered the question so they essentially agreed with what others said. As evident from the previous section however, simply because students were able to identify terminology did not mean they knew the definitions of those terms. Sue informed the researcher however that, “We weren’t out there a lot; only once a week so we didn’t learn all of golf.” Perhaps with a little more time the students would have been better able to define the terms.

It was quite apparent the golf instructor emphasized safety. Almost all of the students addressed the issue of safety. This was one of the common keywords indentified in the data. In some cases the researcher would ask about safety knowledge and students were always able to provide an answer. In other situations, students associated safety with life lessons such as responsibility and sportsmanship. When Greg was asked if he was taught responsibility he answered, “No, but he always puts a safety zone about four feet behind someone in case they swing.” Kim she was taught to be responsible “to not hit anybody and don’t stand directly behind them; to stay behind the safety cones.” Interestingly, Pam stated, “He told us about safety which is basically the same thing as responsibility.” A second grader, Tina, associated safety with sportsmanship. When she was asked if she learned about sportsmanship she replied, “He said like never swing when somebody is around you.” Lastly, sixth grade Jill stated, “When you are done golfing, hold the club by the metal part, not by the handle and don’t just swing it around or you’ll hit somebody.”
An incident occurred at the charter middle school that made a lasting impression on all of the students in the program. The researcher was aware one of the students at the charter middle school hit another student accidentally with a club, but did not know which students were a part of the accident. Coincidently, when Lisa was interviewed, the first thing she wanted to share with the researcher was how she accidently hit her friend with the club. The student who was struck with the club was not seriously hurt, but did require immediate medical attention because she was hit directly on the forehead with the club. Lisa explained to the researcher that she accidently hit her friend because the friend just “popped in front of me… she didn’t see me swinging.” Throughout the entire interview, Lisa continually made references to safety issues and even defined sportsmanship by saying, “…We need to watch where we are swinging, watch what we are doing, and we have to stay behind the cone.” The golf instructor shared this unfortunate incident with other classes and several students made reference to the accident when they were discussing safety. Students were quick to mention the necessity to remain behind the safety cones when it was not their turn to swing the club.

A final keyword revealed through the data was unsure. Several of the students were unsure of the golf terminology. Greg was asked if he knew what a birdie was and he answered, “I don’t think he told us about that.” When sixth grade Tom was asked what new words he learned in the program he replied, “Yeah, he used a lot of them…like three over and everything but I can’t remember them.” Initially Scott was unsure of new terminology but when the researcher asked about par, he then said “Well, he did say par and bogey.” Unsure was not a common keyword in the data but some students did have difficulty discussing specific golf terminology.

**Intentions.** The category of intentions consisted of two key-phrases: athletics participation and golf participation. Athletics participation included both middle and high school athletics. Students were asked if they would like to participate in athletics to better determine if they enjoyed physical activity enough to continue after the golf program and outside of required physical education and to also determine if golf participation was a possibility. The majority of the students interviewed indicated they did want to participate in athletics. Only three students reported they definitely did not want to participate in athletics and three others were unsure.
While the majority of students did want to participate in athletics, not as many students reported they wanted to participate specifically in golf. Common answers included football, basketball, baseball, and track. Only six of the students interviewed said they wanted to participate in golf in either middle or high school. Greg said, “I kind of wanted to be on the golf team but now I do.” Pam said she wanted to be on the golf team and the researcher then asked if she always wanted to join or perhaps the golf program made her want to join. She replied, “I just always wanted to be on the golf team.” Unlike some of the students however, Pam’s father takes her to the driving range on Sundays. Five of the students said they might join the golf team. Lisa said, “I don’t really care… I mean golf is fun and I play with my dad all of the time… it’s pretty cool… so I might play.” When Jill was asked if she would like to join the golf team she replied, “Sort of… maybe if I don’t have anything to do.” Similarly, Liz stated, “I like to golf, it’s just not my thing.”

**Life Lessons.** A significant portion of each interview was devoted to a discussion on life lessons. This category was based on questions related to sportsmanship, decision making, goal setting, honesty, and responsibility. Application was a unique keyword derived from the data. Students were presented with a scenario related to honesty and responsibility in the golf setting. They were then asked how they would respond if they were in the given situation and what they “should” do. A variety of answers were provided and students seemed to be quite honest in their answers. The following scenario was provided to students:

> You are playing golf and hit the ball away from everyone, kind of off the main path. You are in the “rough.” When you approach the ball to hit it, your foot accidentally touches the ball and causes it to move from its original position. What is the right thing to do in this situation? What do you think you would do?

As the interviews continued and it was apparent almost all of the students did not know what the correct action would be for the situation, the researcher attempted to explain a penalty stroke needed to be called. Students were then asked if they would call the penalty on themselves or tell others they accidently moved the ball.

Even though most students were not aware of the correct action, they tried to answer in a way they believed was right and just. For example, Faye stated she would move the ball back to where it was. The researcher then explained a penalty stroke should be called and asked if she
would call the penalty. Like the other students, she said she would tell others she moved her ball and take the penalty. Pam informed the researcher she did not believe her golf class was taught the proper action but instead the instructor said to put the ball “right back” if it was accidently moved. Most stated they would be honest and call a penalty stroke on themselves or explain to others what happened so they were not cheating or dishonest. Kim stated, “I would say that I moved it and then I would explain like what happened and how I moved it.”

An interesting answer was provided by Lisa:

Well, I would tell because you don’t know if they have cameras out in that corner. Cause some people bring their cameras around and try to steal golf balls.

The researcher then emphasized there were absolutely no cameras in the incident described to which Lisa replied she would still tell anyway. Sara answered quite honestly also. She answered, “…More than likely I wouldn’t say I hit it but if people were out there… I’d just take the penalty either way because I wouldn’t want to take the chance of somebody seeing me and plus you’d be disqualified if you tried to move it back.” The notion that students may still be caught even though they were assured others did not see the incident was enough to cause them to take the penalty stroke and/or tell. Ali said she would be honest and emphatically stated, “I can’t live with guilt.” Ellen who was also interviewed with Ali echoed her fellow student’s remarks and said, “Yeah, it’s really hard… I’ve tried that before and it kept eating me alive.” Even second grade Jan said, “I’m telling.” Tina said she would tell because, “I think it’s playing fair.” A response provided by Trey was essentially the main idea communicated by most students:

Really, to be honest. I’d be like hey, my foot made the ball move. It was a mistake and my foot hit the ball or whatever. Because in golf, either way it go, they are going to ask you if you are being honest or not and I’m just gonna be honest and be like yeah, my foot hit the ball.

The researcher did not use the phrase “life lessons” in the interviews, even though such questions were being asked. Faye and Kim were asked if they believed what they learned concerning honesty and sportsmanship could be used outside of golf – in real life – to which Fay responded, “Oh yeah, that’s like life lessons.” At one point in the interview Jay said, “It teachers you life lessons,” referring to the golf program as a whole. So even with the researcher avoiding
the phrase “life lessons,” some students had a general idea of what was really being asked of them.

Students were asked if they were taught about boundaries and answers related to this questions were simply coded boundaries. According to the curriculum material, boundaries in both golf and life were to be addressed. However, when students were asked about boundaries, most referred to physical boundaries in the golf program activities, rather than boundaries in life. Tina said they did learn about boundaries and said they should not hit the ball out of bounds and past the concrete. Jill was asked more specifically if she learned about life boundaries in the golf program. She indicated her health class addressed such issues but life boundaries were not discussed in the golf program. Tyler also said, “We only talked about that in health.” Likewise, John said his class was not taught about boundaries. Those answers were coded “not taught.” No students attempted to provide any specific definition of boundaries, other than an explanation of physical boundaries such as those for a golf course.

Student responses coded “decision making” included various conceptualizations and explanations of decision making. Students were first asked if they were taught about decision making in the golf program and if students did not offer an explanation of what decision making meant, the researcher then included a probing question to determine if a definition could be provided. Again, this was a part of the curriculum material so it was assumed the instructor addressed effective decision making in the classes. Anna said while decision making was not taught in the program, she knew it meant “to do what you should.” Fourth grade student Jay gave an example of decision making and said, “Not to walk backwards to somebody while they are not looking.” Ali defined decision making by stating, “Decide before you do.” Her friend Ellen agreed with the statement so both students were asked if this was learned in the program or was something they knew. Both students said, “We just knew it.” Jill offered the following explanation for decision making:

Good decisions… Oh he said that it’s your choice to see if you did something wrong. If you want to keep on cheating or if you want to do it right. Tina said, “You know what you are supposed to do, so you do it” and Faye answered, “You make good decisions so nobody gets hurt or get hurt.” It seemed the students found it easier to define decision making by providing an example of a good decision. There were six students
who reported they could not remember anything concerning decision making and their answers were coded “unsure.” Another six students said decision making was not taught and were therefore coded, “not taught.” The majority of the students did indicate decision making was taught in the program.

Participants in the golf program were also asked to discuss what was learned regarding goal setting in the golf program and these answers were coded accordingly. Student responses were a combination of physical goals related to golf skills for example, and then also future goals they may have for themselves. Faye mentioned goals could be related to the driving range, where you want to hit the ball, and a goal of hitting it farther next time. The instructor encouraged her to “try and try harder until you get it.” Faye also mentioned she would like to be “very successful in college and work really hard throughout my life until then.” The researcher then asked her how she could reach that goal and she responded, “stay hardworking and make good grades in school.” Kim said her class was also taught about goal setting and “he talked a little bit about that and how you should set a goal for yourself on like how well you want to do in like the lessons and stuff.” Sixth grade student Jill said she did learn goal setting in the program and “we were talking about what your goals are and who you want to be and if you want to do golf afterwards… You have to try hard and don’t give up.”

Pam mentioned what she learned most about goal setting was to keep practicing, as did Sam and Jan. As the interviews progressed, several students were asked to provide an example of a goal and how they might reach that goal. Anna said she would like to be a scientist and the way to reach her goal is to stay in school. Dan mentioned if someone would like to go to a golf college that s/he must play well in high school to be awarded a scholarship. Trey, who was one of the most informative students interviewed, answered a probing question by the researcher. He was asked if he believed goal setting was important. He responded with, “You know, to me, I think it does because I want to become a football player really so me, goal setting is important.”

There were eight students who said they were not taught goal setting in the golf program, and their answers were coded “not taught.” Jan indicated although she was not taught about goal setting in the program, but she knew what it meant regardless. Tyler said he was taught goal setting in health class but not in the golf program. Four students reported they could not remember or were unsure if goal setting was taught.
While there was some discrepancy in student answers concerning whether boundaries, decision making, and goal setting were taught, 21 of the 23 students interviewed reported they did learn about honesty in the program. The other two students said they could not remember if honesty was addressed in the program. Students provided a variety of conceptualizations of honesty but all were consistent with what being honest truly entails.

Several students attempted to explain honesty by providing examples of the golf program activities, and data was coded by simply using the keyword “honesty.” Faye said she was taught “that when you hit it [the ball] in the hula hoop to not lie and go oh and put it in and say we hit it in… that we need to be honest if we make it.” Kim reported she was learned to “don’t lie” in the golf program. When Lisa was asked what did she learn concerning honesty she said, “He [the golf instructor] was walking around with us and he said that if you don’t keep your honesty then day it’ll come right back on you.” She was then asked if she thought that was a true statement. Lisa answered, “Yeah because that happened to me before… I’ve learned my lesson.” Second grade Tina provided an example of someone being dishonest by stating, “… if you hit a ball and there’s another person’s ball out there they forget to put a chip down and theirs is closer, you might say that one is yours.” The researcher asked Tina if she would hit her ball or someone else’s and she replied, “own ball.” When Ali was asked if she learned about being honest while playing golf she replied, “Yeah, a lot.” The researcher asked if she should always be honest when playing golf to which she replied yes. Yet another question was posed to Ali asking if she should still be honest in the real world and Ali answered, “Still honest and you can ask her [referring to her friend who was also being interviewed].”

Fourth grade Jay said he also learned about honesty in the program but he added, “It’s one of the 10 commandments” and “I never lie.” Jill reported “Golf is a really honest game … you have to keep track of everything and you can’t cheat.” Trent said the instructor taught him, “… when you are keeping score that you need to be honest and say that you have this many or that many [strokes].” A comical statement was made by Liz, which was related to honesty. When the researcher read the earlier scenario and asked Liz what she thought was the right thing to do, Liz also answered, “You know when we did our little golf thing…I didn’t cheat…I said I missed all of them.” Even though Liz knew she was not a great golfer, she was honest and still reported she missed all of the shots.
Students were also asked what they learned about responsibility, and data was coded using responsibility as the keyword. The golf instructor showed some of the classes in the program a responsibility poster. This poster had different levels of responsibility on it with five being the most responsible and one being the least responsible, which impacted students’ answers. It was based on Hellison’s (1995) model. Students at both the rural elementary and rural middle schools were somewhat familiar with the poster but students at the charter middle school did not remember the poster. The charter middle school had the largest number of students per group and there were some discipline issues so the instructor may have omitted the poster presentation due to the extenuating circumstances.

As previously mentioned, some data which was coded “responsibility” was linked to safety issues. Many students associated responsibility with practicing safety in the golf program. Faye insisted she learned, “…to be responsible of where you are standing and be responsible for your actions.” Lisa said she learned responsibility was, “…to watch where you are swinging.” Similarly, Ali responded, “Well, he said if nobody is watching us, we still have to be responsible and make sure that nobody is around you so that you don’t hit them when you hit the ball.” Jay informed the researcher that responsibility was one of his character education words but he did remember the responsibility poster also. “Take care of your golf clubs mostly,” was what Dan referred to as responsibility. Trey mentioned golf equipment also and said “…be responsible for your own golf clubs…some people they like to when they get a golf club in their hand to go to swinging or whatever but if you are responsible for it, you’ll keep it in one spot until it’s your turn to hit…” Anna said she remembered something about responsibility but just could not quite articulate exactly what she learned. The majority of the students however, 15 students, did indicate they learned something about responsibility and most were able to give an example or discuss the responsibility poster.

A few students shared with the researcher what level they believed they were on with the responsibility poster. Tina thought she was on level five, showing the greatest amount of responsibility she could. The researcher asked Ellen what level of responsibility she was able to show and she said was a number four. So, the researcher delved deeper and asked why she was not on level five, in the “real world” not just in the golf program. Ellen’s response was, “It’s hard… it means you have to be perfect and nobody is perfect.”
Answers related to sportsmanship explanations were also coded. There were two students who reported they did not learn sportsmanship through the golf program and four students said they could not remember. The remaining 17 students all provided some explanation for sportsmanship which they said was mentioned in the golf program. Again, just as several students linked responsibility with safety, some students associated sportsmanship with safety. Tina said to “never swing when someone is around you.” Tyler said it was “not hitting someone with a club or with a golf ball.” Lastly, Lisa who was a part of the only accident in the program emphasized sportsmanship was that “…we need to watch where we are swinging, watch what we are doing, and we have to stay behind the cone.”

Other students articulated sportsmanship in the more traditional manner. Faye believed sportsmanship was fair play and not gloating when a good shot was made. Sue said the golf instructor gave an example of sportsmanship by telling the students, “Don’t hit the ball and go gah!” One of the more candid answers was Jay’s answer: “Sportsmanship is when you don’t throw a hissy fit when somebody beats you.” Ellen reiterated, “Yeah, and he [golf instructor] said hissy fit” and “… not to brag… be proud of yourself but you don’t need to get in people’s faces and brag.” Ali added, “… he [golf instructor] said like if we lose, not to get mad or anything like that.” Dan believed sportsmanship was when someone was nice and not rude. The researcher asked John what he learned about sportsmanship and he replied, “Yeah, like how to show good sportsmanship and stuff… he didn’t give a lot of examples but I understand what sportsmanship is… it’s treating people fairly, being nice, that type of stuff.” Sara had a unique idea of sportsmanship and stated, “to just be a team… to be a team in yourself and don’t put yourself down… if somebody else hits it and it goes way off to just not come down on them way hard because… they might now want to play golf because they don’t know that they aren’t good…”

The final concept addressed in the life skills category was teamwork. Teamwork was a familiar concept to many of the students. Because it is a common term used in sports and physical education, the research emphasized what was learning concerning team work through the golf program. Student answers were quite similar so perhaps students were mainly basing their answers on the golf program only. There were five students who could not remember if
teamwork was taught (coded unsure) and four students said they were not taught about teamwork (coded not taught).

A common answer provided by students for teamwork was the idea of helping others. Pam stated, “…Try and help somebody if they are doing it wrong… to just help out.” John said, “You have to work together and stuff.” Likewise, Trey answered:

Yeah we learned you need to just help everybody. Help them learn if maybe you know how to do it and they don’t. You could show them. And just try to help.

Faye said her class learned, “You should work with your friends and not argue and fight… we can help pick up balls even if it’s not our ball.” A great answer was provided by Liz who stated, “Team work is just not being selfish… he [golf instructor] said to encourage your our friends and to help them if we can.” Tom provided an answer quite similar to Faye: “I think he said teamwork is just working good with everyone and not arguing all of the time.”

Other students had different conceptualizations of teamwork. Anna stated, “You can’t always be the one who hits the ball.” Trent answered, “Yeah, he said if you are running late then both of you get a penalty.” The game of golf is often considered an individual sport, but overall, students were able to conceptualize what teamwork meant even though they were not necessarily taught in a team setting.

Physical Education (PE). The final category for the student interviews is Physical Education. Within this category, two keywords were revealed, PE activities and enjoyment. The students were asked what their favorite PE activity was and then also to what extent they enjoyed PE, if at all. A wide range of answers were given for favorite PE activities. Common answers included games, running, jump rope, basketball, kickball, football, softball, and hula hoops. Sam said his favorite part about PE was, “Running, getting exercise, and just having fun.” Sara mentioned she enjoyed PE because diabetes is common in her family and she wanted to exercise to prevent any future complications she may experience. Ellen enjoyed playing with the equipment, including the hula hoops and said, “…I’m like the queen of hula hoop.” One student, Scott, however did not like any activities in PE and PE was one of his least favorite subjects. This was a rare answer however as most students seemed to enjoy PE activities. Golf was the favorite PE activity for three of the students interviewed.
Data coded enjoyment represented students’ enjoyment level or ranking of PE. Only two students, Liz and Scott gave PE a low enjoyment ranking. Liz stated, “It’s at the bottom of my top 10 list.” Tom enjoyed PE but said, “I don’t like coming outside… I do sometimes.” He apparently preferred the cooler environment in the air-conditioned gym. Greg, Trey, and Sam all enjoyed PE so much and said it was indeed their favorite subject. Tina reported PE was “pretty fun,” Ali and Ellen both said they liked it, but fourth grade said he did not like PE because, “I’m not athletic.” Overwhelmingly however, the majority of students did report they enjoyed PE.

**Physical Education Teacher Interviews**

The PE teachers at each school were interviewed to better understand how they structured their PE curriculums, to determine their thoughts regarding the golf program, and to ask if they noticed a behavior difference in the students in the PE classes versus the golf program. First, a common finding at all three schools were none of the PE teachers included golf instruction in their programs, mainly because they did not play golf and did not feel comfortable teaching it to the students. The rural elementary PE teacher stated, “I don’t know anything about golf.” Further, the rural middle school PE teacher commented, “this is the first time we’ve taught golf in the eleven years I’ve been here.” Even though the PE teachers were not familiar with the game of golf, they were all very thankful and positive regarding the introductory golf program and were delighted that the program was incorporated into their curriculum.

Regarding the behavior differences in the PE classes compared to the golf program, each teacher thought the students were slightly more behaved during the golf program. They seemed to be more excited and the teachers thought because the program was seen as a privilege, the students did not want to risk their privileges being revoked. While discussing the behavioral differences, the researcher asked the teachers if the parents seemed to be excited as well. Mixed answers were provided. At the charter middle school and the rural middle school, the parents did not seem to be quite as excited as those associated with the elementary school. The rural middle school PE teacher stated he did not talk with parents much and “It’s really not a big deal [to the parents],” referring to the golf program. Likewise, the charter middle school PE teacher did not have much contact with the parents regarding the golf program, even though parents were aware
the program was being offered to their children. Parents at the elementary school were “very excited” and were supportive, according to the rural elementary PE teacher.

Another interesting finding as a result of the PE teacher interviews was their discussions regarding the life skills lessons incorporated in the PE curriculums. All three PE teachers mentioned they taught life skills to their students, such as honesty, sportsmanship, responsibility, and teamwork. However, none of the PE teachers tested the students on this material. The rural middle PE teacher simply stated, “It’s just verbal and we remind them every day.” He also mentioned how he emphasized sportsmanship at the beginning of the year as a part of the overall class rules and that “we want to be good sports.” Similarly, the rural elementary PE teacher said she reminds the students before each class period to “watch how they are behaving” and reminds them of safety issues. The elementary PE teacher, who was very excited about the program overall, stated, “Well, you know, the big thing is you just hope it [life skills and lessons learned in the program] carries over.” The charter middle school PE teacher said he tried to encourage the students to show good sportsmanship but again, he did this verbally and as situations arose which he felt as if were good opportunities to talk about sportsmanship.

**Golf Instructor Interview**

The instructor of the golf program provided valuable insight regarding the implementation of the program activities and his personal experiences. The golf instructor was first asked to describe his overall experiences in the program. He discussed how he felt a great sense of accomplishment and said program was very rewarding. The instructor was amazed at just how many students had no experience whatsoever with golf. Because two of the schools were considered “rural,” many of the students had no opportunity to participate in golf, unlike those at the charter middle who were quite familiar with the game. The instructor was impressed with the number of students he was able to reach in his given time frame.

One of the main goals of the program was to introduce as many students as possible to the game of golf. He stated, “We were very successful in this goal in that we were able to expose approximately 237 children to golf in the grant period.” The instructor did mention there were many areas for improvement but he feels his initial goal to expose children to the game of golf was met. He felt very successful in recruiting a fair number of golfers and said, “While we
are not able to provide golf equipment in conjunction with the grant, we were able to gather names and measurements of at least 50 students who expressed an interest to continue and wish to be involved in future golf-oriented program.”

An additional goal of the golf program was to teach children life skills through the game of golf. The instructor mentioned that by using a responsibility poster as a visual aid, lesson plans from the PGA’s First Swing program and SNAG Golf instructor manuals, he was able to interject life lessons at different points in his lessons. This was done both in group settings and individually with the students. The instructor did mention he believed the life skills portion of the program could have been more effective with longer class sessions and by distributing materials and/or props linked to life skills. Each session of the program was structure to teach a specific golf skill. During the warm-up part of each session, the instructor highlighted the benefits of golf and discussed the selected life lesson/skill of the day.

The researcher also discussed the corporate aspects of the program with the golf instructor. Essentially the financial support of XYZ Golf Management Corporation allowed the instructor to confidently leave his previous position and pursue a livelihood with junior golf programs. He said none of the golf activities and program development would have been possible without the assistance of XYZ Golf Management. “The program would not have been possible without the support, encouragement, coaching, and financial backing from XYZ Golf Management.” Support included access to company email, telephone discount, office copier, computer use, and the assistance of various corporate employees.

Regarding CSR, the golf instructor believed corporations were wise to invest in community-based programs. He commented:

After all, it is the children of the owners, managers and employees of those companies whose children are in the schools. Not only does a company develop a local sense of loyalty to their business or product, they positively affect the community they serve by providing opportunities maybe not otherwise available. It could be considered a responsibility of a corporation to invest in the community by supporting youth programs. I believe many do already. Especially in baseball, football, soccer and many other team sports. In this case, where the corporation(s) supporting me wish to remain anonymous, I
look at the leadership for having a generous heart and just a sincere wish to share their wealth for worthwhile projects such as this.

While the golf instructor believed the program was a success, there were certain aspects of the program he believed could be improved. First, he would like to minimize the group sizes to no more than six per group. While this number is quite small and would limit the number of children able to participate in the program, those who participated would receive a greater benefit. Next, the instructor would like to provide students with more materials to review what was previously covered in the lessons and to serve as reminders of what was discussed/worked on during the lessons. Volunteers are a great help to the program but this is another area the instructor would like to improve. He would like to become better prepared in approving volunteer applications, recruit more volunteers, provide volunteers with a full uniform rather than a hat only, and would like to obtain a written time commitment from each volunteer. In addition, the instructor would order more golf equipment and games to enhance the structure of the program and skill development for the participants. Small improvements such as installing teaching grips on each during the initial sessions, include more visual aids, and prepare the teaching area of each school with hitting mats rather than hitting from the grass (which is at times uncut and uneven).

As the interview came to a close, the researcher asked why he believed an introductory golf program of this type is needed in public schools. The golf instructor mentioned, “Normally golf is only available to those children who 1) have parents who play 2) are already golfers and search out the clinics/tournaments or 3) are financially capable to afford golf.” The intent of the program was “to take the game to them” referring those students who are unable to golf. He also said this program was unique because the golf professional brings his equipment and expertise to the school campus, rather than simply providing PE teachers with a lesson plan and equipment. In the current introductory golf program, the golf professional, with the help of qualified volunteers, is the teacher. “Public schools are our venue of choice because we are now reaching students who definitely would not otherwise have had this opportunity.”
Corporate Owner Interview

The owner of the XYZ Golf Management Corporation, who helped fund the introductory golf program, was also interviewed. Throughout the interview, it was evident the owner strongly believed in the golf program and was most proud to provide support. He stated, “I’m very proud of it because it’s my way of giving back to golf what it has provided for us.” The introductory golf program was the main cause XYZ corporation supported and like the golf instructor, the owner was adamant about exposing those to golf who would not have the opportunity otherwise. Golf has been the core of the owner’s involvement in the industry and has granted him many opportunities. In turn, the owner would like to provide students exposure to the game of golf so they too may be awarded similar opportunities which may affect them for the rest of their lives. The owner mentioned students may become interested in golf, not only the actual game play, but perhaps they may seek out a career in golf whether that be club and equipment sales, representing the golf industry in some form, or using golf as a means of networking.

One of the main reasons the owner decided to support the introductory golf program was he felt there was a need to do so. Not only do the students benefit but also, the program itself will gain considerable attention by incorporating the program in the schools and consequently, others may use this program as a model. Positive results were expected. The owner believed if the program was deemed successful, and he feels it was, then other schools may want to join and the program could grow considerably.

While the corporate owner felt a need to give back specifically to the introductory golf program, he also felt as if corporations in general should do their part to support or give back to local communities. On why he felt compelled to give back to the community, the owner stated: Well, this is what I say. I think there is nothing more rewarding than giving. We’ve all received presents, we’ve all received gifts and it’s fun. But what makes you feel better is when you are giving. And I think that is why we do what we do is that… I want to donate and give back to the community and to society in general for the benefits that I’ve had and that was something that was near and dear to me now so that was a natural good fit.
The researcher commented to the owner during the interview that this seemed like a special case. The owner then mentioned how he preferred “to stay under the radar… because that’s not really what we are about.” He did however mention he could see potential benefits. Because he operated in a golf community, some of students in the program may become interested in golf and perhaps want to work with him someday. Or as he mentioned, students may become so interested in golf that one day they too will decide to pursue a career in golf and “we are going to need to continually replace, replenish, refurbish, refresh, all the things that we do in golf as people like me continue to age up and age out, we’re going to need people to replace us so that’s a potential benefit for us.”

The introductory golf program is not the only cause the owner supports but he believes it is the most beneficial for both his corporation and the community in general. “We are creating opportunities for young people to perpetuate what we have started here.” He even mentioned how his corporation is taking steps to become more “green” by using turf on the courses which require less water, environmentally friendly fertilizers and insecticides, and also recycling. In the past he has supported the Relay for Life and has been quite successful in raising money for the cause, but the golf program is where he believed the most opportunities lie. Also, he has made personal charitable donations prior to the start of his current company, but now he believed “we’ve got all the ingredients” to make a difference.

Ultimately, XYZ owner believed corporations do have a duty to give back, but thought many companies only do so for “window dressing.” Nevertheless he said, “…Even though if their heart isn’t into it and their intention aren’t quite as honorable as they proceed to be, they are helping so you at least have to say hey, good job.” He believed there were so many things corporations could do for society if they only cared and did not engage simply for the sake of enhancing their image. The owner strongly believed he and his company had much to offer to society and in summary he stated:

I think, you know, this is a process. This is a work in progress right now and once we establish the grassroots of the foundation [the introductory golf program] itself and we establish a board of advisors and people that are kind of bell cows in the community in the local area, we are going to be able to fundraise more, do more activities, get more
parents involved, more companies involved, and through that synergy I think grow into something really special.

**Document Analysis**

XYZ Golf Management corporate documents were analyzed to determine the specific mission and goals of the corporation. Those goals were then compared to the mission and goals of the introductory golf program to determine the alignment between the two entities. Documents for the introductory golf program included a program overview document in addition to curriculum materials used. Curriculum materials used for the program’s curriculum development were: *First Swing, Professional Guide, Golf: Special Olympics Sports Skills Program*, and *SNAG: Golf Professional’s Edition*. This analysis will be presented in two sections: mission statements and goals/objectives.

**Mission Statement – XYZ Golf Management Corporation.** The mission of XYZ Golf Management is to “create exceptional guest and member experiences, delivering extraordinary services, superior products, and the finest playing surfaces and amenities.” As such, the company’s daily activities focus on providing a wide variety of golf related products and services to clients. The organization is led by an individual who has worked in the golf industry for over 30 years and understands golf’s importance to so many individuals. In addition to golf related services, the company also manages swimming pools and tennis court facilities and activities.

**Mission Statement – Introductory Golf Program.** The ultimate mission of the introductory golf program was to introduce as many children as possible to the game of golf. In addition, the program sought to deliver quality instruction of basic golf skills and important life lessons. A key part of the mission was to provide opportunities for growth and support through the game of golf.

**Mission Statements – Comparison.** The above two sections highlight the main tenets of the mission statement for both XYZ Golf Management and the introductory golf program. In reference to Porter and Kramer’s (2002; 2006) idea of corporate and support-cause alignment, both mission statements above were reviewed for any similarities. First, the main business of the XYZ Golf Management Corporation is golf management. The company’s mission indicated the emphasis on delivering superior products and services to clients. Likewise, while the mission of
the introductory golf program was introduce children to golf, it was also to provide quality instruction (service) and life lessons to children. Both of the aforementioned services is/were carried out by expert golf professionals. Providing the highest quality golf services is the “business” of XYZ Golf Management. The “business” of the introductory golf program was essentially the same but carried out on a platform.

Goals and Objectives – XYZ Golf Management Corporation. Review of the company’s goals and objectives revealed five categories of goals: delivery of impeccable service, providing quality products (playing surfaces), outstanding facility/premise maintenance, developing lasting relationships with clients and employees, community contribution, and environmental care and awareness. The goals are all related to the mission of the corporation which is to provide the best quality services and products for clients. Providing these quality services and products includes developing a lasting, positive relationship with both clients and employees. In addition, the goals highlighted the corporation’s desire to improve the lives of those within the community while simultaneously operating in an environmentally responsible and proactive manner.

Goals and Objectives – Introductory Golf Program. The goals and objectives of the introductory golf program led to three main categories: education, curriculum improvement, and support. First, the program sought to educate students in the game of golf. The founder of the golf program hoped to introduce the game of golf to as many children as possible, especially those who perhaps would not otherwise be exposed to the game. Also, program goals were to teach fundamental golf skills and important life lessons. Yet another goal was to help improve the physical education curriculums at participating schools by incorporating quality golf instruction and activities. Finally, the program’s goal of providing support to students involved personal encouragement in golf, school, and life, and to provide interested students with their own set of golf clubs so they may continue golf after the program was completed.

Goals and Objectives – Comparison. XYZ Golf Management corporate goals were compared to those of the introductory golf program. The following section highlights key similarities and differences. Obviously, the key differences in the goals and objectives are based on the nature of XYZ Golf Management and the introductory golf program. XYZ Golf Management’s goals were concerned with providing clients/customers with the highest quality service and products. On the other hand, the introductory golf program’s goals were related to
educating and supporting students. In the review of the various corporate and program documents, there appeared to be more similarities than differences in the comparison of the goals.

Improving or positively impacting the community was an explicit goal for XYZ Golf and was more of an inherent goal with the introductory golf program. For example, the program’s goal of support students in the public school system and improving physical education curriculum would understandably help the community also. Goals of both entities were focused on provided golf related services to the various stakeholders, even though the primary stakeholders may have differed for each entity. XYZ Golf Management had a goal of developing lasting relationships with clients. Similarly, the introductory golf program had a goal of providing support to the participants which would entail developing a worthwhile relationships with the students. Even though the products of each entity would differ in quality (the golf management corporation would provide the newest golf equipment while the introductory golf program provided used golf equipment), both were still concerned with delivering golf related products to their stakeholders. Like the mission of both XYZ Golf Management and the introductory golf program, the goals of the organizations are directly related to the business of each organization which is the delivery of golf services and products.

**Descriptive Themes**

Descriptive themes were created based on participants’ reactions to interview questions, the researcher’s observations, and the review of corporate and program documents. Each of the descriptive themes is presented below:

1. The introductory golf program is fun.
2. The introductory golf program is educational.
3. Most of the participants did not have previous golf experience.
4. Participants had different intentions for athletic participation.
5. Participants had different attitudes toward physical education.
6. The mission of XYZ Golf Management corporation is similar to the mission of the introductory golf program.
7. The goals and objectives of the XYZ Golf Management corporation are similar to those of the introductory golf program.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship of a sport based company’s CSR practices and social impact. Also, the researcher attempted to understand if and how the alignment of a sport organization’s core business principles and CSR activities influenced this relationship. This chapter will be presented in five sections: (1) summary of results, (2) discussion of the results, (3) implications, (4) limitations and delimitations, (5) future research, and (6) conclusion. The summary and discussion of qualitative results is presented in the following sections: observations, interviews, and document analyses.

Summary of Results

Observations. The observations in the study were characterized into three separate categories: student behavior, physical education teacher behavior, and golf instructor behavior. Within those categories, several keywords were derived. Keywords in the student behavior category included: excitement/enthusiasm, participative, rowdy, and attentive. In the category of physical education teacher behavior the keywords were found to be: lackadaisical, active, instruction, and attentive. Lastly, keywords associated with the golf instructor behavior category included: informative, organized, attentive, and motivational.

Interviews. Interview data for the current study was presented in four separate sections: student interviews, physical education teacher interviews, golf instructor interview, and the corporate owner interview. The large amount of data associated with the student interviews necessitated the use of NVivo Qualitative Analysis program, and several categories were derived from the data. These categories included: favorite subject, golf activities, golf experience, golf program evaluation, golf knowledge, intentions, life lessons, and physical education. Based on the student interview data, keywords were derived from the categories. The keyword associated with favorite subject was simply, subject. The category of golf activities included two keywords, enjoyment and favorite. Club ownership and previous participation were the two keywords associated with the golf experience category. There were three keywords with the golf program evaluation category including fun, learning, and recommendation. Definition, identification,
safety, and unsure were the keywords associated with the category of golf knowledge. The intentions category was linked to the keywords, athletics participation and golf participation. One of the larger categories, life lessons, included the following keywords: application, boundaries, decision making, goal setting, honesty, responsibility, sportsmanship, teamwork, not taught, and unsure. The final category, physical education, included only two keywords, PE activities and enjoyment.

Data from the physical education teacher interviews revealed consistent results. All three physical education teachers reported they did not include a golf unit or golf skills as a part of their physical education curriculum. This was primarily due to the golf inexperience of each teacher. The teachers were not comfortable teaching skills they were not proficient in themselves. It is not uncommon in physical education curriculums to overlook golf instruction. In a nation-wide study with both state and district level data, only 25.9% of schools from kindergarten to twelfth grade included golf instruction in physical education curriculums (Burgeson, Wechsler, Brener, Young, & Spain, 2003). Even with the lack golf instruction, each teacher in the current study reported students were excited about the program, eager and willing to learn, and did not receive any negative feedback from students’ parents. In fact, it was reported most parents were also very enthusiastic and supportive of the program. The physical education teachers said students’ behavior in the golf program appeared to be somewhat better than when they were a part of the regular physical education classes. Also, the student selection process for the golf program was identical at each school.

The golf instructor interview data results were used primarily to better understand the program goals and objectives, what he would like to improve on and/or change, and if it was believed the program was successful in meeting the established goals. It was reported the main program goals were to expose as many children to the game of golf while at the same teaching them valuable life lessons. The instructor would like to improve on his life lessons teaching effectiveness, including the use of props and handouts. Overall, the instructor was positive in his responses and believed the program was successful.

Lastly, the XYZ Corporate Owner was interviewed. The interview revealed the owner is concerned with giving back to the community, especially through the game of golf. He believed there is a need in the local community for the introductory golf program and essentially believed
he had a responsibility to contribute through the program. It was also found the owner truly believed corporations had a duty to give back to the community and even though some corporation perhaps did not give back for altruistic reasons, they were still helping the community. It has been argued that the motivation for engaging in CSR is always driven by some sort of selfish purpose (Moon, 2001). As Rollinson (2002) mentioned however, it is difficult to differentiate between those who are behaving ethically toward external stakeholders with altruistic motives from those with more self-preservation intentions. Conversely, in the current case study, it was clearly evident the Corporate Owner had a very self-less approach to his CSR practices. He was quite proud of the introductory golf program, had high aspirations for the future of the program, and felt as if the golf instructor was well prepared to carry on the program’s mission.

Document Analyses. The documents analyzed for the study included the XYZ corporate documents and the introductory golf program documents. The mission statements and goals of both sets of documents were compared to determine the alignment between the two entities. In its most basic form, mission statements state exactly why an organization exists and what that organization would like to accomplish (Campbell, 1993; Campbell & Yeung, 1991; David, 1993; Ireland & Hitt, 1992). It was determined that while the XYZ Golf Corporation and the introductory golf program differed in the type of services provided, both still had striking similarities. Both the entities were concerned with delivering superior golf related services to their respective stakeholders and were also concerned with giving back to the local community.

Discussion of Results
Themes.

The introductory golf program is fun. One of the prominent themes which emerged from the data was participants’ perception that the golf program was fun. Without exception, each of the students interviewed said the golf program was fun. Students reported they enjoyed participating in the various activities and were able to provide examples of their favorite activities. One student simply said her favorite activity was “everything!” When students were asked if they would recommend the program to their friends, they always responded positively and thought others should participate because the program is so much fun. Not only was the
concept of fun evident in the interview data, but also in the observational data. The researcher observed students who were enthusiastic, excited, and almost always seen with a smile on their face.

There may be several explanations as to why students enjoyed the golf program. Obviously, the golf instructor created the program curriculum to allow students to have fun while at the same time learning the game of golf. It could be argued that goal was met through the program. Also, for many of the students, this program was their first exposure to golf. A novel activity such as this, where a visiting instructor comes to the school bringing new activities and equipment, could be considered fun for most students. As previously mentioned, no golf activities were incorporated into any of the PE curriculums in the study. Many students, for the first time in their lives, were able to pick up real golf clubs and play golf. This was certainly a treat for so many students and added to their excitement. Additionally, the students were pulled from their regular PE classes to participate in the program. Because they were separated from other students and participation in the program was viewed as a privilege, students may have enjoyed the program even more.

It is important to understand why the students believed the program was so much fun and how this may impact their learning, their potential to continue golf participation, and the impact the program may have on the students. The corporate owner discussed how he, through this golf program, wanted to help introduce as many children to the game of golf as possible and perhaps give back to the game of golf what is has given him over the years. He also mentioned that perhaps one day, children who were exposed to golf though this introductory program may be able to work with him and his company, all because they became interested in golf as a result of encouraged to continue participation in golf as they grow older. As a result, the program would have been just another school activity with relatively no impact on the students whatsoever.

So many corporations and social programs purport their goal is to “change the lives” of the participants or receivers of the CSR efforts. In this case, if the students do not “have fun” in the program, it would be less likely they would become involved in anything related to the game of golf or experience any “life changing” events. For example, Steinbeck (2001) suggested regardless of the physical activity approach used to improve the health of children, an essential factor in the program is fun. Children may be more inclined to participate and positively benefit
from physically active programs when those programs are perceived as being fun and enjoyable. One of the goals of the introductory golf program was for the participants to have fun while learning the game of golf. It can be argued participants did have fun, and as a result, the sponsoring corporation potentially may reap positive benefits years later, all the while having the positive social impact desired by both the corporate owner and the golf instructor.

The introductory golf program is educational. A second theme derived from the data was the introductory golf program is educational. Again, this was evident through the interview data and observational data. Students were asked various questions to test their golf knowledge and most were able to provide correct feedback. Some students of course had trouble differentiating between a birdie and bogie for example, but most were capable of providing correct answers and examples. However, with this program being the only exposure many students ever had to the game of golf, it is understandable that they may confuse some of the golf terminology. Considering the short session of the program, which only lasted for six weeks for any one group of students, and with only one meeting per week, students may not have had ample time to memorize the definition of the terms. An additional factor which may have impacted student learning was the lack of testing in the program. The instructor did not test the students’ learning at any point during the golf program. If students knew they would be tested on content and terminology, perhaps they would have put forth more effort in learning the presented material. During the researchers’ observations, while the instructor did use golf jargon and asked the children about their scores (used terms such as birdie or double bogey), more emphasis was placed on the physical skills of golf rather than terminology and even the life skills component of the program.

To a much greater extent than golf terminology knowledge, students were quite knowledgeable regarding physical skills and were able to demonstrate the various skills they learned, such as the proper grip and stance. In particular, students were able to explicitly describe and explain the proper grip position. Several students attempted to physically show the researcher during the interview how to correctly grip the golf club and were confident in their answers. The notion of social impact indicates individual and group attitudes, values, and/or behaviors may be changed by specific influences i.e. social programs. Students’ physical behaviors were in fact changed in that many of them previously could not correctly grip a golf
club or correctly address the ball. As a result of the golf program, behavioral changes related to
the game of golf were evident, highlighting one of the successes of the program. This in turn
may be seen as a success for the corporate owner who will most likely derive personal intangible
benefits knowing he has aided in students’ learning, as well as a corporate benefit as potentially
new golf consumers and workers are being cultivated. While the corporation may eventually
benefit from the impact of the program, such as new employees and/or consumers by creating
interest in the game of golf, no immediate benefits will be gained because the corporate owner
chose to remain “under the radar.” According to Porter and Kramer (2002; 2006) this is not in
the best interests of the company, as no competitive advantage may be gained from such
corporate behavior, regardless of how altruistic and noble it may seem.

Concerning life skills, students were not as confident in their answers. The curriculum
document analysis indicated students would be exposed to a variety of life skills. Accordingly,
the interview questions were structured to determine if those listed life skills were indeed
presented and/or mastered. Some students could not remember if particular life skills were
addressed in the golf program, such as boundaries and team work. Students were asked if they
were taught skills including honesty and sportsmanship, most would attempt to answer the
question but could not confidently say the concepts were directly taught in the program.

One particular life skill students were most familiar with was responsibility. Often, they
tied the idea of responsibility to safety, indicating responsibility of their actions was important in
order to prevent injury to other students. Observations revealed the golf instructor used a large
responsibility poster in teaching the skill so this may have had a lasting effect with the students.
It is important to note not all students could remember the poster, but still were able to discuss
responsibility and emphasize its link to safety.

It is not possible to report the life skills were taught through the golf program only, as
some students provided their own conceptualization of the skills and others reported they were
introduced to the skills in other educational settings. Also, the answers provided for most of the
life skills were not consistent, except for responsibility and safety. The lack of consistency with
students’ life skills answers seem to indicate the instructor was not very effective in his teaching
of the skills or perhaps did not teach the skills at all. This idea was reiterated when the golf
instructor indicated during his interview with the researcher that he would like to improve on his life skills component of his lessons.

During a conversation with the corporate owner, near the end of the research project and after his formal interview with the researcher, the owner mentioned that if the golf instructor was not successful in teaching so many of the life skills afforded by the game of golf, then the program essentially had not taught anything at all. This shows the importance the corporate owner placed on the life skills portion of the program. It would not be appropriate to make the assumption that life skills were not effectively taught, but at the same time however, it would be inappropriate to assume life skills were effectively taught. True, some students were able to correctly define important life skills terms such as sportsmanship and responsibility, but there were several students from each school who were unable to simply define sportsmanship, much less provide an example. There were even a few instances where students said sportsmanship was not taught at all.

The life skills portion of the introductory golf program arguably has the most potential to create positive social impact for the participants. Social impacts are defined as specific environmental, cultural, political, economic, spiritual, psychological, and physical influences which affect individual and group attitudes, values, and behaviors. The life skills which were to be taught during this program included sportsmanship, responsibility, teamwork, and honesty. These powerful life skills do have the potential to influence individuals’ attitudes, values, and behaviors, and would provide validity to the corporate owner’s assertion that the golf program does have a positive social impact. Just as the Nike corporation desires to know if they have truly improved the conditions for their workers on the factory floor (Nike, 2007), so too does the golf management corporation in the current study. Unfortunately, the students’ answers do not provide sufficient evidence to support the idea that as a result of the golf program, students have learned valuable life skills. So, while the corporate owner may say with confidence he has helped to positively impact the lives of the students in the program, he has done so only through the physical golf skills portion. The life skills portion of the program is still lacking in the ability to positively and definitively provide life skills instruction to the participants.
In summary, it appears as if the instructor was more effective in his instruction of physical golf skills, but he was perhaps not as effective with the life skills portion of his program. Students were able to provide some type of response to questions regarding various life skills, but it was evident they were somewhat perplexed. It was difficult to confidently determine if students were taught the skills in the golf program or if there was an overlap from previous instruction, even when explicitly asked if the skills were taught in the program. Ages of students may have been a factor in the ability to answer. Certain life skills were more familiar to the majority of the students, such as responsibility and honesty, but key skills which were supposedly emphasized through the program (i.e. sportsmanship) were not as clearly answered. Changes may need to be made in the delivery of these life skills lessons.

A suggestion may be for the golf instructor to provide “real-world” golf examples showing individuals demonstrating great integrity and sacrifice. A recent example that would be most applicable would be the J.P. Hayes incident. In November, 2008 J.P. Hayes was playing in a tournament to earn a PGA Tour Card. However, he mistakenly played with an unapproved golf ball on two shots. He did not realize his mistake until the tournament was over and decided he had to disqualify himself (ESPN, 2008). This is a perfect example highlighting the culture of golf in general and the great importance the players place on honesty and integrity. Communicating this incident to the students in the introductory golf program would provide a real-world example of valuable life skills, both on and off the golf course.

Also, more time may need to be devoted to the development of the skills, which may be difficult with the time constraints of the program. Because the program was only in its first full year of operation, the golf instructor carried out all of the lessons alone, with the occasional help of a few volunteers. This is yet another area where the XYZ Corporate Owner could offer his services. Incorporating some type of formal employee volunteer program, where employees of the XYZ Golf Management Corporation could volunteer with their appropriate skills to improve the delivery of both physical golf skills and life skills instruction. Such employee-volunteer programs are not uncommon and research has indicated more organizations are supporting corporate employee volunteer efforts because of the perceived benefits of such activities (Miller, 1997; Romano, 1994; Smith, D.H., 1994). This is but one of the many types of CSR (Moir, 2001), but could arguably be one of the most useful for positive social impact and a sustained
competitive advantage for the golf corporation. Further suggestions to improve this portion of the program will be provided in sections to follow.

Most of the participants did not have previous golf experience. Another theme of the study was the idea that most of the students who participated in the golf program did not have prior exposure to the game of golf. There are several factors which may have played a role on students’ golf experiences. First, the schools which were a part of this study included two rural schools and one charter school. Locations of both the rural middle and rural elementary schools undoubtedly impacted the rate of students’ exposure to the game of golf. The area surrounding the school was primarily farm land and blue collar businesses. As such, many of the students did not have easy access to golf facilities. Secondly, both rural schools were located in a city with an estimated median household income under $25,000 (City-Data.com). Considering the price of golf equipment, apparel, and course fees, families in this area may not have sufficient disposable income allowing them to participate in golf. As such, student’s golf exposure is no doubt limited. The charter middle school is located in the heart of a golf community and each of the students interviewed from the school reported they had previous golf experience (a total of six students were interviewed from the charter school). This comes as no surprise because due to the location of the school and the availability to many holes of golf.

By exposing so many students to the game of golf who had no prior experience, yet another goal of the introductory golf program was accomplished. The golf instructor and the corporate owner both mentioned in their interviews that one of the main goals of the program was to introduce as many children as possible to the game of golf. Indeed, the program did introduce many new students to the game of golf and it was apparent students both enjoyed the program and learned new skills as a result.

Participants had different intentions for athletic participation. Students were asked about their future intentions for athletic participation. Specifically, the researcher was interested in determining if students were interested in participating in athletics after the introductory golf program came to an end, and also if students had a desire to participate in golf perhaps as a result of the program. This would help to understand if the golf program influenced students to participate in golf and further supported the notion of the positive social impact of the program. Most of the students interviewed indicated they did have a desire to participate in athletics in
either middle school, high school, or both. Commonly however, students preferred to participate in athletic activities such as baseball, football, basketball, and track. Only six of the students reported they would like to participate in golf at the middle or high school level.

Typically in middle and high school athletics, golf is not the most popular sport. When compared to other sports mentioned by the students in the current study, golf participation intentions were considerably lower in number. According to the National Federation of State High School Associations, there were 159,747 boys and 66,283 girls participating in high school golf in the 2006-2007 school year (NFHS, 2008). Furthermore, in 2006-2007, track and field (outdoor) had 544,180 boys and 444,181 girls participating, football had 1,104,548 boys and 1,035 girls, and lastly, basketball participants included 555,269 boys and 456,957 girls (NFHS, 2008). Consequently, the popularity of sports may still have impacted students’ decisions to participate in golf, regardless of much they actually enjoyed the golf program.

Just as the short duration of the golf program potentially impacted students’ golf knowledge retention, the time element may have played a role on students’ decisions. Perhaps if students participated in the program more than only once per week, they would have more time and experience in the program and more opportunities to enjoy golf. Family influence is yet another factor which may have influenced students’ athletic and/or golf participation. As previously mentioned, students at both the rural middle and rural elementary schools did not have prior golf experience and did not live in an area conducive to golf participation. This too may have influenced students’ golf and athletic participation, more so than the introductory golf program alone. Extraneous factors do play an important role in program results and research findings. The current study is no different, and the extraneous factors no doubt impacted both the program and study findings to some extent.

Participants had different attitudes toward physical education. It was found through the data that students had different attitudes about physical education. For some students, physical education was their favorite class and for others, it was their least favorite. The researcher hoped by understanding students’ attitude toward physical education, it would offer insight into why students may or may not have enjoyed the golf program. As previously mentioned however, all students positively responded to questions concerning their enjoyment of the golf program. It could be assumed then, student attitudes toward physical education did not greatly impact
students’ enjoyment of the golf program. For example, one fourth grade student named Jay said he did not like physical education at all because he did not believe he was athletic. Interestingly, he reported the golf program was fun and he enjoyed the challenges posed from various golf activities.

The researcher had previous experience as an elementary PE teacher. It was evident also during her time as a PE teacher that countless students preferred PE class when compared to other subjects they were taking. This same phenomenon was shown with the students (particularly the elementary students) in the current study. Not only did most students indicate they enjoyed PE but they all stated they enjoyed golf program as well. As such, it is not clear if students’ preferences for PE impacted their learning and/or enjoyment of the golf program. The purpose of asking students’ opinions of PE was to hopefully eliminate yet another extraneous factor potentially influencing the impact of the golf program.

*The mission of XYZ Golf Management Corporation is similar to the mission of the introductory golf program; The goals and objectives of the XYZ Golf Management corporation are similar to those of the introductory golf program.* According to Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006) businesses and society will potentially reap great benefits as a result of CSR, if the business of the corporation and the social cause supported are in alignment. Based on this idea, the mission and goals of the XYZ Golf Management Corporation was compared to the mission and goals of the introductory golf program. The mission statements and goals of both entities were found to be quite similar.

The first key similarity between XYZ Golf Management and the introductory golf program was the central focus of both – the game of golf. XYZ Golf Management and the introductory golf program were both concerned with delivering golf related services to their various stakeholders. Porter and Kramer (2006) stated, “…each company must select social issues that intersect with its particular business.” Certainly, golf is the common link between both entities.

Yet another similarity of the two entities was the notion of giving back to the community which is a goal of both the XYZ Golf Management Corporation and the introductory golf program. This idea was supported by the interview with the XYZ Golf Management owner. In
addition, documents of both organizations indicated there was a need to give back to the community.

The interview with the corporate owner offered the first insight into his ideas the role corporations play in giving back to society. Porter and Kramer’s (2002, 2006) discussion of strategic CSR assumed corporate executives engaged in CSR to create a competitive advantage for their companies, while at the same time benefitting society. The XYZ Golf Management owner was more concerned with giving back to the community through the introductory golf program because he felt it was something he needed to do rather than a means for competitive advantage. This altruistic notion is not to be understated or demeaned in any way, but according to Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006), it is vitally important for corporations to recognize the potential benefits strategic CSR may have on the corporation’s business.

During the interview with the corporate owner, he stated he would prefer to “stay under the radar” in order to keep the focus of the program on the participants rather than emphasizing the corporate involvement. Again, based on Porter and Kramer’s (2002, 2006) ideas, this is perhaps not the best attitude for the company, but it is certainly statement which shows where the corporate owner’s heart lies. The owner may not want to be recognized as a contributor to introductory golf program for a noble cause, but he may not realize the potential benefits he is foregoing as a result. Perhaps the results of this study will convince the corporate owner, and similar others, to become more strategic with their CSR objectives so they may benefits in tougher financial markets.

The corporate documents and introductory golf program documents highlighted the corporate and program goals to give back to the community. The XYZ Golf Management Corporation explicitly stated the corporation was devoted to giving back to the community. Likewise, the introductory golf program documents indicated the primary concern of the program was to help students in public schools learn the game of golf and life skills. Helping the local community was a key similarity of both entities, but what really makes the similarity important was the fact both entities wanted to do so through the game of golf.

Corporate and introductory golf program documents were quite similar, but what was also striking to the researcher was the closeness and synergy between the corporate owner and the introductory golf instructor. It is almost as if the two individuals most responsible for the
success of both entities – the XYZ Golf Management Corporation and the introductory golf program, were “in alignment” with each other’s goals. For example, XYZ Golf Management Corporation is a privately held company with its mission and values derived from the vision of the owner. The introductory golf program was created by the golf instructor who had a very similar vision regarding the necessity to give back to the community. It is this synergy and vision alignment which allowed the corporate owner and golf instructor to work together so easily. Throughout the entire research process, the researcher was able to see both men as being very courteous, trusting, and respectful of each other. This may be a key piece to understanding just why the program was successful and why the corporate owner believed so strongly in the mission and potential of the program.

Presently, the field of sport management is lacking research on CSR. CSR has increasingly become a part of almost every sport organization in the world, but researchers have not kept pace with the exponential growth of this emerging construct. Consequently, one of the goals of this dissertation was to contribute to the limited scholarly work on the construct and to provide a solid foundation on which to begin a new line of research focusing on the social impact of CSR. It is hoped that with this dissertation, more researchers will be encouraged to and better able to understand the social impacts of CSR. As Porter and Kramer (2006) so boldly asserted, researchers should be concerned with measuring social impact, rather than what stakeholders demand. Arguably, business and society will both benefit with positive social impacts as a result of CSR practices. In theory, businesses will gain a competitive advantage while society will experience the greatest benefits also.

**Implications**

Based on results from the current study, several important implications for practitioners emerged. First, corporate owners and executives (or those otherwise responsible for CSR efforts) should adopt a CSR program which is in alignment with their core business practices. Because the XYZ Golf Management Corporation dealt solely with the management of golf and supported a program which was concerned with using golf as a way to improve the lives of children, it could be said both were in alignment. As a result, had the corporation promoted this valuable relationship, perhaps the corporation could have witnessed a substantial competitive
advantage. If an organization is to use CSR efforts as a means of competitive advantage, stakeholders must be aware of the organization’s CSR efforts. Otherwise, the CSR efforts may be only categorized as a value chain social impact (Porter & Kramer, 2006), where the organization’s efforts do help society, but the organization itself does not experience any added advantage.

A second implication for practitioners is corporate managers do have the ability create positive social impact - they have the ability to impart social change. However, for this to occur, several important steps must be taken. As previously discussed, corporations must seek out those social causes to support which are in alignment with their core business practices (Porter & Kramer, 2002; 2006). This will help to ensure a competitive advantage for the corporation. Also, when selecting causes to support, corporations must support only those causes which are well organized and capable of delivering what is promised. In the current study for example, the corporate owner worked closely with the golf instructor for several years prior to the start of the golf program. Therefore, the corporate owner knew the golf instructor personally and was able to confidently support the program based on the instructor’s strong work ethic. Of course not all corporate owners will have this luxury. Instead, they must complete some type program evaluation as a prerequisite to any corporate support. With the current state of the economy, with corporate stakeholders demanding transparency and accountability, the extra effort of seeking only the best programs/causes to support will be invaluable.

Based on the findings of the current study, practitioners who intend to work with elementary and middle school aged students should emphasize fun throughout the learning process. The golf instructor purposely created the curriculum with “fun” as a core principle. It was evident he succeeded in this cause with all of the student respondents reporting they had fun throughout the program. Other corporations have taken the same stance such as Nike’s “NikeGO” program with a mission to “to increase physical activity in youths, offering them the support and motivation to become physically active, stay healthy and have fun” (csrwire.com). If positive social impact is to occur, it is essential for the children’s program to be fun and entertaining.

A final requirement is corporations engaging in CSR must implement some type of measurement for results. In the past for example, researchers have focused on the measurement
of financial benefits and/or losses associated with CSR (Rowley & Berman, 2000; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003) and stakeholder responses to CSR efforts or the lack thereof (Auger, Burke, & Louviere, 2003; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Brown & Dacin, 2003; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999). In the current study, neither the introductory golf program nor the XYZ Golf Management Corporation had any type of system in place to determine if participants were learning the game of golf and the life skills presented. In a post-interview, casual conversation with the XYZ Golf Management owner, he mentioned if participants were not learning the life skills and lesson which are inherent in the game of golf, then the program has not succeeded at all. It is important therefore for the program to have some type of measurement program in place to determine what the participants are truly learning. Whether that measurement includes paper and pencil tests, oral quizzes, or self-check questionnaires, the corporate owner should demand some type of reliable measurement. In doing so, he will be able to determine if the program is indeed creating this social impact as a result of his corporate efforts. It stands to reason that the corporation will benefit from such measurements, as will the golf program. As Porter and Kramer (2006) stated, “The best corporate citizenship initiatives involve far more than writing a check: They specify clear, measurable goals and track results over time” (p.9).

For academicians, this research will provide a piece of the foundation to implement a research agenda focusing on the social impact of CSR efforts. Not only has the idea of social impact been missing from the general literature, but it is virtually nonexistent in the sport management literature. The current research will help in filling that gap. Also, an exploratory study such as this will offer insight into this untapped yet fertile area of study. The in-depth interviews and on-site observations offer great insight into CSR and the potential social impact such efforts may have. Future researchers would do well to continue using qualitative efforts in their research in addition to perhaps using a complementary quantitative research design. Furthermore, this study indicated corporations do have the ability to create positive social impact but a competitive advantage will only be gained by carefully selecting the appropriate social initiatives to support and implement. As such, implications for future research indicate a need for the continued in-depth analysis of various factors contributing the competitive advantage corporations may gain as a result of CSR initiatives.
Limitations and Delimitations

The following are limitations of this study:

1. The researcher was only able to interview those students who returned permission slips prior to the beginning of the study.
2. Students may have engaged in socially desirable answering perhaps because they wanted to impress both the researcher and their teachers. Similarly, the corporate owner and golf instructor may have also engaged in socially desirable answering, particularly related to the importance of CSR and creating positive social impact.
3. Due to class scheduling at the various schools, the researcher was not able to spend more than 20 to 25 minutes with each student.
4. The researcher was only able to observe the golf instructor’s program at two of the three schools included in the study because the program ended early at the charter middle school.

Delimitations of the study are as follows:

1. The study was limited to three schools in the southeast United States which were participating in the introductory golf program sponsored in part by XYZ Golf Management Corporation.
2. Although XYZ Golf Management Corporation participated in other CSR initiatives, only the introductory golf program initiative was included in this study.

Future Research

The results of this project indicate there is merit in the continued research on the social impact of CSR. Without doubt, in today’s economy with the increased demand by the federal government and the public for corporate accountability, claims by corporations indicating they are changing lives and making worthwhile differences through CSR must be substantiated by sound outcome measures. This pressure, along with the need to expand our knowledge base on CSR and sport necessitates continued research on social impact to better understand the intricacies and effects of CSR.

In the current study, the researcher only investigated the immediate results of the program. Moving forward, what may beneficial is to conduct similar research but with a more
longitudinal design. This longitudinal design may be applied to a variety of CSR initiatives which purport to create social impact. Research documenting changes and attitudes throughout the lives of participants/receivers of various CSR initiatives would be invaluable in the overall study of the construct.

Yet another avenue for future research concerning CSR and social impact would be the incorporation of CSR initiatives varying in size and scope into scholarly research. For example, in the current study, the corporation was a large privately held organization supporting a rather small, grassroots type program. Factors such as corporation size and the size and scope of a social initiative would offer greater insight into the potential effects/results of CSR. The PGA for example sponsors a program called “The First Tee.” While this program also focuses on golf as a means to creating positive social impact, the delivery, size, and scope of the program are considerably different when compared to the introductory golf program in the current study. Also, “The First Tee” program is unquestionably more popular, due in part to the status and notoriety of its parent organization, the PGA, and the fact the program began in 1997 (FirstTee.org). Research focusing on the efficacy of one program versus another and the competitive advantages those programs may or may not provide to the sponsoring organization would add much to the current knowledge base.

Exploring sport teams’ CSR initiatives and relationships to social impact represents another line of research. All professional sport teams have at least one type of CSR initiative in place. Barney (1991) discussed the resource based view of the firm, indicating corporations must have rare resources as means of competitive advantage. In the case of sport teams and CSR, with so many similar CSR initiatives in place, pertinent research would explore how CSR initiatives may provide a competitive advantage to the sport team. More specifically, the research could perhaps help to differentiate the types of CSR initiatives that would offer the greatest competitive advantage and social impact for each distinct sport team. For example, unique aspects of the Atlanta Braves would perhaps be more closely aligned with one type of CSR initiative while the mission of the Tampa Bay Rays may be in alignment with a completely different CSR initiative. Practically, research could help identify what unique aspects of various sport teams fit best with certain social initiatives, thereby creating a competitive advantage for the team. Theoretically, Barney’s (1991) resource based view of the firm and Porter and
Kramer’s (2006) framework for sustained competitive advantage could be further applied in the sport setting. Similarly, this same research idea may be applied to minor league teams as so many of those teams also support various social initiatives and community programs.

One final suggestion for future research is the use of Porter and Kramer’s (2002; 2006) framework as basis for a model corporate owners’ may use to help select those initiatives which would offer the greatest competitive advantage for their organization. In the sport industry, this model may be tailored to sports specifically by incorporating Pitts, Fielding, and Miller’s (1994) sport segment model. Based on the particular segment of the sport industry, the organization would then select the social initiatives that would fit best with the “business” of the organization. On the other hand, research may indicate regardless of the segment in the sport industry, all organizations should follow the same process in selecting the ideal social initiative to support. Because so little is known about CSR and social impact, it is of utmost importance researchers continue to implement qualitative methodology to explore and gain a solid understanding of this relationship. Continued qualitative methodology in a variety of sport settings will provide the foundation needed for an extensive line of research.

**Conclusion**

The current research indicates corporations do have the ability to impart positive social impact through CSR efforts. Participants in the introductory golf program learned the basic fundamentals of the game of golf but the same could not be found for the life skills section of the program. Also, the mission of both the XYZ Golf Corporation and the introductory golf program were found to be similar and in alignment. This alignment of both entities allowed for a greater social impact through the introductory golf program and a potential competitive advantage opportunity for the XYZ Golf Management Corporation. However, the XYZ Golf Management Corporation did not obtain a competitive advantage because the corporate owner did not publicize his CSR efforts.

Using CSR as a means to create a competitive advantage and positive social impact should be one of the priorities for corporate owners, presidents, and CEO’s. This competitive advantage cannot be realized however if the CSR efforts are not communicated to the organization’s stakeholders. In the present study, had the corporate owner communicated his
CSR efforts to the stakeholders, undoubtedly he would have realized a competitive advantage. As emphasized by Porter and Kramer (2002; 2006), it is imperative corporations select the appropriate social initiatives to support and then effectively communicate those initiatives to the corporate stakeholders.
APPENDIX A

HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL LETTER
Date: 8/22/2008

To: Brooke Forester

Address: 4280
Dept.: SPORT MANAGEMENT

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
The Social Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility: A Case Study

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the research proposal referenced above has been reviewed by the Human Subjects Committee at its meeting on 08/20/2008. Your project was approved by the Committee.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 8/19/2009 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the Chair of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving
human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Robert Kent, Advisor
HSC No. 2008.1004
APPENDIX B

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM
Dear Parent:

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor Aubrey Kent, Ph.D. in the Department of Sport Management and Recreation Management at Florida State University. I am conducting a research study, which is part of my dissertation, investigating the social impact of corporate social responsibility practices. More specifically, I am looking at the impact of your child’s Introductory Golf Program at his/her school to determine how it influenced the students, if at all.

Your child's participation will involve an interview with the researcher. He or she will be asked questions regarding his/her participation in the introductory golf course. For example, the student will be asked if they enjoyed the program, if they feel as if they have learned both golf and life skills (i.e. sportsmanship, responsibility), and if they intend to pursue a future in golf.

Your child’s participation in this study is voluntary and information obtained during the course of the study will remain confidential, to the extent allowed by law. If your child chooses not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. In addition, the answers provided by the students will not affect their grade or standing in the class whatsoever. The results of the study may be published, but your child's name will not be used. The benefit of your child's participation is an opportunity to provide valuable information which may help improve the course for all participants. Students will be able to voice their concerns about the golf program and what they think would make it a better experience for them. The risk of injury or any harm to your child during this interview is virtually nonexistent and the interview will be limited to less than one hour although most will probably be much shorter. The interviewer will use audio recording only for accuracy of the study. This recording will be deleted after the study is completed and will not be made available to anyone except the current researcher, Brooke Forester. If you have any questions concerning this research study or your child's participation in the study, please call Brooke Forester at (850) 572-1998 or Dr. Aubrey Kent at (850) 644-7174.

Sincerely,

Brooke Forester

I give consent for my child __________________________ to participate in the above study.

Parent's Name:________________________________

Parent's Signature _________________________________ (Date) ________________
If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board, through the Vice President for the Office of Research at (850) 644-8633.
APPENDIX C

CHILD ASSENT FORM
CHILD ASSENT (third through eighth grades)

Hello, my name is Brooke. How are you doing today? I would like your help in an activity that I am conducting. I want to ask you some questions about the golf program you have been participating in with your PE class. You may answer all of the questions, just a few, or if you do not want to answer any at all that is perfectly OK. This should not take long at all. Just answer the questions as you feel, keeping in mind that there is no right or wrong answer. I only want to know what you think. We can stop the interview at any time you want to, just let me know.

Are you ready to start?
*If Yes* - Great, let’s get started.
*If No* - If the child says “no”, the researcher will not include the student in the project. The child will be free to leave, thanked by the researcher, and dismissed from the study.

Written by Brooke Forester

Graduate Student in College of Education

Florida State University
Interview Guide

Note on sequence: The interview guide is just that, a guide. During the regular course of conversation with participants, the order of the questions may change depending on the answers provided.

1. What’s your favorite subject in school?
   a. If the student says s/he loves physical education (PE), then ask why and what is his/her favorite part.
   b. If s/he does not mention PE, ask if physical education is enjoyable.

2. What about PE do you enjoy?

3. Would you like to participate in athletics/sports when you go to high school or college?
   a. If the student says that they would like to play golf, then ask him/her what it is that created this desire to play.

4. You recently were taught various golf skills within your PE program. Have you ever played golf before this program?

5. What is your favorite part of playing golf?

6. What is your least favorite part of playing golf?

7. Is there anyone close to you who plays golf who perhaps introduced you the game prior to the golf program?

8. How did you like the golf program?
   a. What was your favorite part? (which activity or lesson)
   b. What was your least favorite part?

9. What are some golf skills you learned (particular shots or strokes for example)?

10. What are some new terms you learned (golf jargon)?

11. What are some life skills you learned in the golf program?

12. Which life skill do you think is most important to follow no matter what?

13. What does sportsmanship mean to you?

14. How can you become a good sport?

15. What does integrity/honesty mean?

16. In the golf program you were taught about golf etiquette.
   a. Could you give me some examples of golf etiquette?
b. Which of these etiquette examples do you think you should use in real life when you are not playing golf?

17. I am going to read you a short story and I want you to answer a few questions about it when I am finished:

   a. You are playing golf and hit the ball away from everyone, kind of off the main path. You are in the “rough.” When you approach the ball to hit it, your foot accidently touches the ball and causes it to move from its original position.

      i. What is the right thing to do in this situation?

      ii. What do you think you would do?

18. What are goals?

   a. How do you set good goals?

   b. Why are goals so important in sports, such as golf?

   c. Why is goal setting so important in life?

   d. Can you give me an example of a goal you would like to accomplish in your life?

19. What were you taught about team work and being a good team player in the golf program?

20. What does it mean to be responsible for your actions?

21. How do you make good decisions when you are playing golf?

22. What about making good decisions in everyday life?

   a. What’s an example of a good decision?

23. What do you do to show that you are responsible?

24. What is a boundary?

25. Why are boundaries/rules important in golf?

   a. Why are they important in real life?

26. Would you recommend this golf program to your friends?
APPENDIX E

XYZ GOLF MANAGEMENT CORPORATE OWNER – INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
Introduction: I would like to ask you a few questions regarding your company’s corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices. This is only to help me gain a better understanding of why you feel your company should engage in CSR and what you hope to accomplish. If you have any questions for me at any time, please let me know and I will be glad to answer. Also, if at any time you do not wish to answer a specific question, we can skip that question and/or stop the interview at any time. I will be using an audio recording device only for accuracy in the transcription process. The recording will be deleted after the study is completed. Are you ready to begin?

1. What CSR activities does your corporation support?
   a. Probing question: Which of these are you most proud of?
2. How did you select those activities?
3. Why do you feel compelled to “give back” or help the local communities?
   a. Why do you feel it is necessary for your corporation to be socially responsible?
4. Ultimately, what would you like to accomplish through your company’s CSR efforts?
5. How do you feel your company will benefit through the CSR activities?
   a. Probing question – Which of your company’s CSR activities do you believe are most beneficial for the company itself?
   b. Probing question – Which of your company’s CSR activities will benefit society the most?
   c. Probing question – Why do you feel certain CSR activities will be more beneficial than others? <for the company?> <for society/community?>
6. In past jobs/careers what CSR activities did you or your company support, if any?
7. Do you feel as if all corporations have a “duty” to give back to society or to positively impact society?
   a. Probing question – <If yes, ask why he feels this way> <If no, ask why he feels this way>
APPENDIX F

GOLF INSTRUCTOR – INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
Introduction: I would like to ask you a few questions pertaining to the Introductory Golf Program. The interview will be audio recorded only to ensure accuracy during transcription. I would like to ask about your experiences with the Introductory Golf Program, its effectiveness, and how you believe the participants benefitted from the experience. If there are any questions you do not wish to answer, we may skip those and go on, or we may stop the interview at any point you feel necessary. Are you ready to begin?

1. Could you describe your overall experiences with this program since you have implemented it within the schools?
2. What goals of the program do you feel you have met since its implementation?
   a. Probing Question: Do you feel as if there any goals you have not met?
3. One of the goals of your program was to encourage students to participate in golf later in life, perhaps in high school or college. Do you feel as if students are encouraged to do so?
   a. <How do you know?>
4. Another one of the key goals of the program is to teach students “life skills.” Again, do you feel as if you have effectively accomplished this?
   a. <How do you know?>
5. How helpful were the contributions by XYZ Golf Management Corporation in the creation and implementation of this program?
6. What role do you think corporations should play in impacting society or their local communities?
7. Without the contributions of XYZ Golf Management Corporation, could the Introductory Golf Program be implemented effectively?
8. Now that the program is over, is there anything you feel you should change to make it more effective for future participants?
9. Why do you feel it is necessary to implement a program of this type in the public schools?
REFERENCES


**BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Brooke E. Forester</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place of Birth:</td>
<td>Pensacola, Florida</td>
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<tr>
<td>Date of Birth:</td>
<td>March 13, 1980</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Pine Forest High School, 1998 Pensacola, Florida</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor of Science – Physical Education, 2002 University of South Alabama Mobile, Alabama</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master of Education – Physical Education, 2003 University of South Alabama Mobile, Alabama</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Doctor of Philosophy – Sport Management, 2009 The Florida State University Tallahassee, Florida</td>
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<tr>
<td>Current Employment:</td>
<td>Visiting Professor – Sport Management The Florida State University Tallahassee, Florida</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research Focus:</td>
<td>Brooke has focused her research efforts in the area of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), but more specifically, the social impact of CSR in sport.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching Focus:</td>
<td>Brooke’s teaching is concentrated in the areas of Human Resource Management and Sport Finance. In addition, she has taught Sport Ethics classes in addition to Graduate level Foundations of Sport Management.</td>
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