

Stakeholder created value:
Outcomes of CSR programme in the community
a case study of the Business Class programme in Wales

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ABSTRACT

This thesis primarily informs how activities carried out at the intersection of business and society in the form of corporate community programmes — create value to multiple stakeholders, and suggests how to measure it comprehensively, accurately and appropriately.

The thesis is framed by the fields of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and stakeholder theory. Both of these have a moral component and therefore foundational work informing business ethics. This thesis also evaluates how impact is currently measured, finding that the vast majority of frameworks are corporate-centric.

The overall philosophical position of this research is pragmatism and the research strategy is case study. Data collected from the Business Class programme in Wales and analysis have qualitative approach; drawing on and synthesising variety of data from diverse sources. The main sources of data were in-depth interviews with diverse participants.

The outcome of this research challenges the notion of value creation, a language shaped by businesses – to show that all stakeholders including businesses and community participate, co-contribute, draw and can co-valuate corporate community programme often in a multi-stakeholder setting; thereby expanding the stakeholder theory. It further challenges the notion of corporate social responsibility, often characterised as one way gift from businesses to society – by showing that businesses (like other stakeholders) give as well as gain from the society. While these issues are known to an extent from existing CSR research but this thesis goes further to uncover the complexity of the stakeholder networks, relationship and contexts that inform value creation and measurement approaches.

The thesis argues that stakeholders involved in a programme have multiple perspectives and their co-valuation of programme or activity gives an integrated and realistic picture of the amount and quality of diverse value created, beyond the financial outcome of an activity. Furthermore, it develops the concept of net value and evaluation tools to measure value – where multiple factors such as attribution, counterfactual and complexity need to be taken into account – in order to establish ultimate value that is comprehensive, accurate and mutually agreed.

DECLARATIONS AND STATEMENTS

1. This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.
2. This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated and that other sources are acknowledged by footnotes giving explicit references and that a bibliography is appended.
3. I give consent for the thesis, if accepted to be made available online in Swansea University's Open Access Repository and for inter-library loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

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CONTENTS

Topics	Page Number Starting
Abstract	2
Declarations and Statements	3
Contents	4
List of tables and illustrations	5
Abbreviations	8
Chapter One – Introduction	11
Chapter Two – Literature Review	28
Chapter Three – Literature Review	67
Chapter Four – Methodology	96
Chapter Five – Context	125
Chapter Six – Findings	146
Chapter Seven – Findings	190
Chapter Eight – Discussions	235
Chapter Nine – Conclusions	270
Appendices	290
Bibliography	325

LIST OF TABLES AND ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure Number	Description of figures and copyright	Page Number(s)
2.1	Strategic Triangle © Moore (1995)/ANZSOG	49
2.2	Two dimensions of inter-organisational hybridity and their connection with social value creation © Quelin et al. (2017)	61
3.1	CR Value-Chain Process © Ferguson (2009)	71
3.2	CSR Cycle EU IMPACT (2012)	72
3.3	Corporate Impact Assessment and Management © EU IMPACT (2014)	73
3.4	Four Aspects to Quantifying Social Impact © BCG (2009)	74
3.5	Flow of stories and feedback in MSC © Dart and Davies (2003)	78
3.6	Impact Value Chain © G8 Social Impact Investment Taskforce (2014)	80
3.7	Value Creation Process © IIRC (2013)	82

3.8	Value created for the organisation and for others © IIRC (2013)	83
3.9	Conceptual Model – business & society and impact (my work)	93
4.1	Convergence and non-convergence of multiple sources of evidence © Yin (2009)	103
4.2	A streamlined codes-to-theory model for qualitative inquiry © Saldana (2013)	119
5.1	Four purposes of the curriculum © Donaldson (2015)/Welsh Government	129
5.2	National Approach to Professional Learning © Welsh Government (2017)	133
5.3a	Six Comparators (percentile) © Grant (2010)	142
5.3b	Six Comparators (radar chart) – schools © Grant (2010)	142
5.3c	Six Comparators (radar chart) – businesses © Grant (2010)	143
6.1	Business Class investment © Business 1 (2016)	172
6.2	Activities for Schools in Business Class (my work)	175-176

6.3a	BC Multi-Stakeholder Value Input and Creation Mechanism (my work) [6.3a, 6.3b when combined is referred as 6.3 value ecology]	185
6.3b	BC value drawn by stakeholders (my work)	186
7.1a	Benefits to Pupils from Business Class Activities (my work)	202
7.1b	Benefits to Businesses from Business Class Activities (my work)	207
7.2	Increasing Brand Awareness 2015-16 © Business 1 (2017)	208
7.3	Value Areas and Quality of Value (my work)	214-215
7.4	Practices in Measurement of Outcomes in Pupils (my work)	220
7.5	Measurement of Outcomes in Businesses (my work)	220-221
7.6	Methods of Measuring Outcomes (my work)	222-223
8.1	Benefits to Pupils Comparison between BC in England and Wales (my work)	248-249

ABBREVIATIONS

ABIS	The Academy of Business in Society
ANZSOG	Australia and New Zealand School of Government
BC	Business Class (programme)
BCG	Boston Consulting Group
BHS	British Home Stores
BITC	Business in the Community
CCI	Corporate Community Initiative/Investment
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CMO	Context-Mechanism-Output
CSP	Corporate Social Performance
CSV	Creating Shared Value
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CV	Curriculum Vitae
CW	Career Wales (organisation)
CWW	Careers and the World of Work
DCF	Digital Competence Framework (curriculum)
DJSI	Dow Jones Sustainability Index
EITI	Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative
ESG	Environment, Social and Governance
ETI	Ethical Trading Initiative
EU	European Union
FSC	Forest Stewardship Council
FTSE	Financial Times Stock Exchange
GAAP	Generally Accepted Accounting Principles
GAVI	Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance (formerly Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization)
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GRI	Global Reporting Initiative

G7	Group of Seven (countries)
G8	Group of Eight (countries)
IAIA	International Association for Impact Assessment
IFRS	International Financial Reporting Standards
IIRC	International Integrated Reporting Council
INSET	In Service Training (in schools)
IR	Integrated Reporting
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
LBG	London Benchmarking Group (standard)
MSC	Most Significant Change (method)
MSCI	MSCI Inc. (formerly Morgan Stanley Capital International and MSCI Barra)
MSI	Multi Stakeholder Initiative
NEET	Not in Education, Employment or Training
NGOs	Non-governmental Organisations
NHS	National Health Service
NPC	New Philanthropy Capital
NYPD	New York City Police Department
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PwC	PricewaterhouseCoopers
PR	Public Relations
PRI	Principles for Responsible Investment (international network)
RSPO	Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil
SME	Small and Medium-sized Enterprises
SROI	Social Return on Investment
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
ToC	Theory of Change
UCRI	Union of Indigenous Communities of the Isthmus Region (Mexico)
UK	United Kingdom
UKCES	UK Commission for Employment and Skills
UN	United Nations

UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
WBCSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
WIMD	Welsh Index of Multiple Deprivation
WG	Welsh Government

CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION

Business society relationships, corporate social responsibility, research question, theoretical framing, context and the structure of the thesis

INTRODUCTION

This thesis is concerned at the most fundamental level with the relationship between businesses, society and the stakeholders with whom they interact. To investigate this, research on activities at the intersection of business and society – specifically the practice of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in businesses and various stakeholders – is conducted using an empirical examination.

The novelty of this thesis is that it focuses on the experience of the recipients of socially responsible initiatives supported by companies. The vast majority of the existing research has been conducted from the point of view of the companies involved (for example Ferguson, 2009; Porter and Kramer, 2011; Athanasopoulou and Selsky, 2015). Similarly, there is a significant body of work paying attention to the question of whether business success is underpinned by CSR (Carroll and Shabana, 2010), and this is predominantly written from the perspectives of business organisations. In addition, the ‘voice of the recipients’ is absent in the vast majority of the measurement tools and techniques created to measure the impact of social (and environmental) responsibilities; this will be addressed in the literature review and throughout the thesis.

In this context, the overarching purpose of this thesis is to establish the impact of a CSR programme on all stakeholders from the perspectives of all stakeholders, including business organisations and the communities involved.

By using this approach, can we arrive at a more holistic understanding of how value is created by CSR activities and this shared among the stakeholders? This notion of ‘value’ brings into play language akin to creating shared value (CSV), a construct devised by Porter and Kramer

(2011) that has gained substantial traction in the broader CSR and related fields, yet with significant critiques; this will be discussed in detail in chapter two. Similarly, the role of stakeholders in value creation is well developed in stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010) which will also be critically discussed in chapter two.

The practical context of this thesis is the secondary education sector in Wales, specifically focusing on the implementation of a programme called ‘Business Class’. This programme is designed to foster constructive partnerships between businesses who wish to engage in CSR and schools who have a need to participate in such partnerships to build skills and confidence in pupils among others offered by the programme. This is a fertile area for research, in that there are multiple stakeholders involved in various roles, namely Business in the Community (BITC) as overall managers and also owners of the Business Class (BC) programme’s intellectual property; Careers Wales as operational deliverers of the programme, and Welsh Government as the main sponsor for it. However, although many interviews were carried out with these organisations, the main data comes from interviews with the firms and schools participating in Business Class, among other sources. This thesis seeks to contribute to the practice of CSR as well as to the development/advancement of theory.

The rest of this chapter continues with a brief overview of CSR (to be expanded upon in chapter two) and a particular focus on CSR initiatives in the community. This will be followed by informing the theoretical positioning of this thesis. Social, economic, education and other aspects of the context surrounding the programme where this research took place, are presented toward the end of this chapter. Finally, a brief synopsis of the overall thesis structure is outlined.

1.1 CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in recent history arose from the debate over ownership and control of firms, which led to the seminal work of Berle and Means (1932). This debate had a moral aspect to it in that the responsibilities of the businessmen were argued by some to include responsibility toward groups and individuals other than the shareholders.

This debate led to areas of research that we now attach different labels to, for example– CSR, corporate governance and stakeholder theory (see for example Davis, 1960; Carroll, 2008; Frederick, 1960; Freeman, 1984). For CSR in particular the economist Milton Friedman started a debate over the use of CSR for economic purposes in the firm (Friedman, 1970) which is almost a doctrine within the CSR area. This discussion of whether there is a link between CSR and business benefit has been a key aspect of the CSR literature ever since (Carroll and Shabana, 2010), and has led to influential works such as Freeman’s stakeholder theory of firms (1984), corporate social performance (CSP) by Wood (1991), Carroll’s pyramidal framework of business responsibility (1991) and more recently the concept of creating shared value by Porter and Kramer (2011).

More advances in knowledge and practice within this field and related areas occurred in the 1990s to early 2000s, alongside environmental activism and corporate scandals such as the collapse of Enron, followed by the global financial crisis later in 2008. However, the practice of ethics in business, rules of trade and philanthropy is seen in ancient Chinese, Egyptian and Sumerian writings (Werther and Chandler, 2011) and also during Mesopotamian and Roman times (Asongu, 2007). As far back as 44 BC, Cicero wrote about immoral buying and selling. Similarly, within British business history, the Quakers, Morris, Lewis and socialists tradition of business ethics are examples of benevolent capitalism dating back over 150 years (Chandler, 2017). These developments, in practice and in theory both historically and in recent times, suggest the growing importance of the topic. Most recently, in this century, developments such as circular economy and climate change have become more visible. This short history shows the diversity of areas and concepts associated with the term CSR. Whilst there is no single agreed definition of CSR, I outline some of the concepts here. Carroll (1991) developed the CSR pyramid framework, which includes economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities of the firm. Because of the diverse nature of CSR, some definitions represent this broadness; for example, CSR is believed to be:

“actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001 p117)

With regards to the European Union, CSR refers to “the responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society” (European Commission, 2011 p6). Beyond academic and multilateral institutions, even businesses have their own definitions of CSR; for example, the German

logistics group DHL states this as an “approach to creating economic, social and environmental value for our stakeholders and the planet” (DHL, 2019).

Recent corporate scandals such as the 2008 global economic recession, phone hacking scandal in the UK and increasing environmental degradation have caused mistrust in businesses (Porter and Kramer, 2011), and there has been an increase in government regulation and self-governance as a consequence. Self-governance mostly happens through individual companies choosing to follow certain standards developed within the company or externally from industry peers or others. The latter refers to governance that often comes through public, private and non-profit partnership such as industry code or alliances like Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) or the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (RSPO). Similarly, ethical principles such as UN Compact, OECD guidelines for multinational enterprises or the BITC’s Workwell model and a specific programme such as GAVI for vaccinations or the Global Fund for HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis are examples of such cross-sector multi-stakeholder collaborative initiatives (Fransen and Kolk, 2007).

In this way, business ethics and actions within organisations as well as outside usually involving various stakeholders are carried out often using the umbrella term CSR. Whilst there is much research on ethical issues as well as business benefit of CSR (such as Palmer, 2012; Revelli and Viviani, 2015; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000) but not much research has been undertaken in terms of what recipients get out of CSR – the very purpose of corporate *social* responsibility set up to benefit society/recipients (Brooks, 2008) (emphasis in italics mine). The issue of recipient benefit since the early developments in CSR, for example, the corporate social performance (CSP) model by Wood in 1991 that explicitly asks for outcomes and impact of CSR programme on people and organisation, among others, is explicit. However, not enough attention is paid in research and practice to include the voice of recipients. Margolis and Walsh emphasized this issue, stating:

“if corporate responses to social misery are evaluated only in terms of their instrumental benefits for the firm and its shareholders, we never learn about their impact on society, most notably on the intended beneficiaries of these initiatives.”
(Margolis and Walsh, 2003 p282)

The outcry for inclusion of CSR recipients or the community has been repeatedly emphasized, such as in Banerjee's (2007) book 'Corporate Social Responsibility – the good, the bad and the ugly' and within my own research for my master's thesis.

Most research expand on Friedman's profit maximization concept, as mentioned above, where the business benefit of CSR has become a currency (Brooks, 2010). Some research has been undertaken in recent years, such as Babiak and Kihl (2018), Walker et al. (2017), and Gambin and Hogarth's (2015) Warwick university report on Business Class England; these are some of the useful works that involve recipients. Brooks (2008) points out the issue of the absence of recipients' opinions and perceptions where "assessing the impact or outputs of CSR might be even more problematic than defining and measuring CSR from the standpoint of the company" (p270). In this scenario of CSR, my own experience and that of other researchers highlights not just the gap but a critical task should be undertaken to define CSR and outcomes of it from the perspective of recipients and other stakeholders. This will challenge the current reality of CSR that is solely shaped by the claims of businesses, whether in their own reports or those reports which rank them for CSR activity or research which accept their version of reality about CSR.

As discussed above, CSR is often seen by some as yet another strategic tool for the benefit of the firm; however, if the business were to create benefit or value to society through CSR programmes, there is a real need for more research to understand that value. Furthermore, it leads to a more fundamental debate challenging the notion of the firm – whether it should create wealth for shareholders only or to benefit broader stakeholders, including society at large. In this way, to decide the worth of such value created from the perspective of stakeholders would mean understanding what is beyond the claim of the firm; thereby, using the voice of stakeholders, to decide how best to engage with community in order to bring about the greatest impact. In addition to this, it would also give knowledge on how such a new combined perspective/understanding on CSR could be a proper reference to wider stakeholders such as policy makers and media.

There are several questions that arise out of these discussions and these will continue in the literature review chapters; but for now, in the next section, I progress to specify the focus of my research and central question of this thesis.

1.2 CSR IN THE COMMUNITY AND VALUE CREATION

Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives aim to address multiple issues to multiple stakeholders (as discussed in the last section); among these society/local community is one. A firm's help given to a community, called Corporate Community Initiative (CCI) involves philanthropy, pro bono and in-kind donations as well as increasingly sophisticated programmes that aim to alleviate systemic problems in society such as poverty, poor healthcare and a lack of good education. Examples of corporate giving seems straight forward whereas sophisticated long-term programmes as businesses' response to societal disadvantages often comes in the form of joint efforts from industry peers, government and the non-profit sector. The Alliance on Vaccination (GAVI), labour practice – Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI), palm oil – Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (RSPO) and forest resources – Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) are examples of such joint efforts which can be termed as multi stakeholder collaborative initiative (MSI) (Crane et al., 2014; Quelin et al., 2017). Such joint initiatives at the intersection of business and society, in the form of programmes or alliances, are assumed to create value for multiple stakeholders (Crane et al., 2014; Freeman et al., 2010; Freeman, 2017).

Beyond such external collaborations, basic value creation activities by the firm itself are described as collaborative (Strand and Freeman, 2015). The stakeholder theory of the firm in its descriptive and normative form suggests that firms create as much value as possible to as many stakeholders as possible (Freeman et al., 2010; Bowie, 2012). In this line of approach on value creation, businesses can arguably be considered as multi-purpose entities (Crane et al, 2014; Strand et al, 2015; Freeman, 2017). In a similar vein, recent developments in sustainability and CSR reporting, mainly the Integrated Reporting framework, makes it explicit about value created for organisation and others (IIRC, 2013). However, the current underlying problem generally, in the business world and academia is that the economic, social and other performances are claimed only from the perspective of firms. Concurrently, from the perspective of others such as recipients of CSR or stakeholders, as discussed in the last section, businesses' help to the community in the form of CSR programmes have been criticized for being instrumentally driven for business benefit whilst social misery is overlooked (Margolis and Walsh, 2003; see also Brooks, 2010; Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

In the context of business and society relationships, such as the practice of CSR programme in a community where the society is a recipient of corporate aid, what is the experience of the

recipients? What benefits do various stakeholders receive from such CSR projects? How can we know this?

Therefore, the central question this thesis works on is:

How is value created and measured in CSR programmes?

In order to address the research purpose and question, this thesis critically evaluates the value creation process in a multi stakeholder corporate community programme setting from the perspective of multiple stakeholders, including the recipients, using case study method (Yin, 2009). For this, my thesis examines the value creation process and how value is measured in order to suggest how this can be done better.

In seeking the answer to the above research question, this thesis aims to:

Critically evaluate the outcomes of the programme for all stakeholders.

Offer methods to measure value of such programmes comprehensively.

The above research approach seeks to establish benefit or harm of the CSR programme on key stakeholders.

1.3 THE FRAMING OF THE THESIS

This thesis is a qualitative case study which uses multiple sources of evidence converged together for establishing facts and understanding phenomenon (Yin, 2009). The multiple sources of evidence which are in qualitative form come from various stakeholders who participate in the Business Class programme researched by this thesis. These evidences/data are linked with certain geographic and socio-economic context specific to their experience in the programme and what they have claimed or justified through their own voice that which are true positions in pragmatism (Dewey, 1934; Rorty et al., 2004). Through the voices of multiple stakeholders, this research undertakes an evaluation of the programme based on the experience of the stakeholders' perspectives and outcomes, thus ultimately forming a combined picture of

reality (Rubin and Rubin, 1995) as well as research outcomes that provide utility (Patton, 2008). In this way, what is primarily investigated by this research are the consequences and outcomes of activity on various stakeholders (see Cahill, 1981).

The activity in this case study are CSR projects from firms to schools called the Business Class Programme, supported by other organisations forming a consortium of stakeholders involved within it; this is detailed in chapter five.

I now progress from CSR to discuss the stakeholder theory. As discussed in the previous section both from a defined as well as an application perspective, CSR is inherently contested and its examples such as anything business undertakes voluntarily “...to further some social good” (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001 p117) shows its broadness. In order for this concept to apply to my thesis, I use stakeholder theory and non-utilitarian teleology (Cahill, 1981) as a foundational approach in business ethics and moral laws – where the very field of CSR is situated – for ethical conduct as well as responsibility of firm and managers.

Stakeholder theory of the firm fundamentally asserts that business affects and is affected by individuals, groups or organizations (Freeman, 1984). The early developments during the 1960s came from Scandinavia, in particular Rhenman, and in the US through Stanford Research Institute almost simultaneously. The most recent academic developments across the Atlantic bring together historic and recent stakeholder concepts into three key tenets which are namely: jointness of interest among stakeholders, cooperative strategic posture between firm and stakeholders and rejection of the narrowly economic view of the firm (Strand and Freeman, 2015). In essence, stakeholders including the firm jointly participate in activity and contribute as well as draw wider varieties of value. The wider use and acceptance of stakeholder theory is in its ability to describe real phenomenon of value creation in a business enterprise (Bowie, 2012; Crane et al., 2014). Thus, stakeholder theory serves as a fundamental way of explaining how value creation happens in a multi stakeholder corporate community programme, such as Business Class, which is investigated by this thesis. Furthermore, stakeholder theory both in descriptive and normative form with its pragmatist methodology helps understand and measure value from the perspective of multiple stakeholders. This is an area that has not been explored enough, as argued in the last sections, thus it is important to undertake this research.

Similar to the stakeholder theory, other related disciplines such as corporate governance, corporate social responsibility and social reporting are situated within the wider field of business ethics and moral laws where discussions on Kantian principles, consequentialism and, importantly within this thesis, non-utilitarian teleology (Cahill, 1981) is applied. This specific teleological philosophy derived from Aristotle, Aquinas, and McCormick shows ultimate goal with a morally good life and inherent moral values in communal perspective, thus telos is pursued and not necessarily produced (ibid.). This is discussed in detail in the next chapter. In this line of philosophical inquiry and as mentioned earlier in this section, my thesis focuses on consequences of action that is economic and wider value is created as an outcome of activity or enterprise whilst also applying descriptive and normative prescription that is inherent in stakeholder theory.

1.4 CONTEXT

The issues discussed above are summarised as: value creation for multiple stakeholders including a firm and specifically the benefits of CSR from the perspective of those who receive it, often a local community – which forms the chief area of investigation in this thesis. In line with this problem identified, there were various choices made in terms of what, where and how to research. So, continuing with my task of explaining the background, I will now describe the broader environment where the research took place; mainly the socio-economic landscape of Wales, its education sector and related developments, and the local practices and research on sustainability.

1.4.1 The Socio Economic Context of Wales

Wales has city regions, towns as well as rural socio-economic diversity and similarly a mix of small and large businesses where SMEs are believed to contribute 62% of private sector employment similar to that of the UK as a whole (FSB, 2017). According to Eurostat 2017 data, Wales contributes 3.3% of UK's total GDP showing underperformance economically because of low employment rate, lower wages, low or no qualifications and ongoing concerns

on low productivity reflected in ONS 2018 figures. The economy just before the start of 21st century, which was mainly agriculture and heavy industry such as mining and traditional manufacturing, is changing due to the government's recent attempts to focus on high-tech sectors such as aerospace, automotive and electronics.

The Welsh Government (WG) has created the Welsh Index of Multiple Deprivation (WIMD) to show measures of deprivation for small areas in Wales based on income, employment, health, education, housing and access to service and so on (see Appendix 1). The WIMD 2014 report shows that “there were pockets of high relative deprivation in the South Wales valleys and large cities, and in some North Wales coastal and border towns” (Welsh Government, 2014).

1.4.2 The Welsh Education Sector

Wales' education sector in the last decade has faced problems related to performance and the tensions brought by reforms, among other issues. In addition to these problems, socio-economic deprivation in many parts of Wales, together with issues arising from a lack of sufficient funding, have strained the Welsh education sector. The Welsh Index of Multiple Deprivation (WIMD) and other measures of disadvantages are widely used in the education sector. These indices guide the provision of support such as free school meals and alternative methods of education for pupils. The scale of the challenges due to such deprivation in the Welsh education sector becomes visible through the testimonies of those in schools and outside schools who are affected by it, as investigated by this thesis. Welsh Government as signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) has commitment for all aspects of a child's life such as welfare, wellbeing and education, and also in ensuring that children and young people are not disadvantaged by poverty. However, the impact of deprivation on education and among other aspects such as wellbeing, is significant. The Economist magazine ran a series in 2017 titled 'down in the valleys' with the headline: “The struggle to improve the worst education system in Britain” showing that Wales' performance is far below other regions within Britain and is well behind the OECD countries due to poverty, reform fatigue and the league tables being removed (The Economist, 2017). Research by Burgess et al. (2013) shows that the abolition of school performance tables negatively affected

school effectiveness and such reform markedly reduced school effectiveness in Wales relative to schools in England.

The devolved education system in Wales is mainly regulated by Estyn, the independent education and training inspectorate for quality and standards. The Welsh Government has also set up a new benchmarking system based on a colour coded performance category consisting of (high to low) green, yellow, amber and red to indicate school performance and required improvements since 2014. Administration for schools is organised through the government's established four regional consortia, which are North, Mid and West, South East and South Central whereas funding for schools is managed through the local councils.

In recent years, the Welsh government has put greater emphasis on confidence and pride in Wales as a bilingual nation with the strength and assurance to nurture both Welsh and English language, specifically increasing support for learning Welsh in schools, the workplace and through informal learning. Concurring with this, a report by Professor Donaldson in 2015 suggests Welsh language to be compulsory up to the learners' age of 16.

The secondary school curriculum in Wales contains standard GCSE qualifications but also other Wales specific curriculum such as the Welsh Baccalaureate. The Welsh Baccalaureate qualification provides broader experience and employability skills such as communication, numeracy, digital literacy and various courses for personal effectiveness as an optional module. The Business Class programme, which I discuss in the next section, is closely related to the Welsh Baccalaureate in terms of enterprise, employability and other broader outcomes in pupils. A review of qualifications in 2012 for 14 to 19 year old youths in Wales suggested, among other things, the need to have portability of qualifications gained in Wales, which means standardized qualifications comparable with the rest of the UK and internationally (Welsh Government, 2012). More recently, in 2016, the government in Wales has also developed the Digital Competence Framework (DCF) as a cross-curricular module (similar to literacy and numeracy) to develop digital skills in young learners. The digital competence is a key cross-curricular-skill-based- learning-framework supported by the Donaldson report as discussed below. The Wales Baccalaureate and DCF, specific to Wales, are innovative developments in curriculum.

Education in Wales, similar to many other regions/countries, faces tensions between traditional result-based performance and broader outcomes for pupils, coupled with recent developments in curriculum. However, the Donaldson report says ‘subject against skill/competence’ debate creates unhelpful polarisation (Donaldson, 2015). For many teachers and schools, the key task has become to implement the prescribed external expectations for the curriculum and accountability faithfully, with a consequent diminution of both local creativity and responsiveness to the individual needs of children and young people (ibid.). The Donaldson report titled ‘Successful Futures’ was a result of an independent review of curriculum for learning, teaching and assessment arrangements in Wales carried out by Professor Graham Donaldson. Following his report in 2015, the government is changing curriculum and developing new goals, endeavouring to have a final version in 2020 and for it to be implemented throughout Wales by 2022 (Welsh Government, 2017a).

1.4.3 The Business Class programme in Wales

Amid the context, issues and developments discussed above, the Business Class (BC) programme, as introduced in the introduction of this chapter, aims to address the effects of deprivation and issues that affect school performance and curriculum. Through this programme, businesses’ offer to provide employability, other diverse skills and experience that match the needs of schools in Wales, specifically in the context of deprivation and disadvantages faced by pupils as discussed above. Furthermore, employers concerns on lack of employability and related skills for graduates is echoed through Welsh government and their funding of the BC programme to address these issues. Fundamentally, BC is designed to help prevent a person’s social background predicting their success at school and beyond by improving their understanding of the world of work and their awareness of career choices, and to develop their employability skills among others. BC’s support – mainly in the domains of leadership and governance in school, curriculum, enterprise and employability skills, and joint efforts to tackle wider societal issues – helps build a holistic support for schools. The BC programme offers pupils opportunities to learn experientially, increase confidence, learn about world of work and to learn and practice academic and vocational skills, above and beyond what normally happens in a school.

Business Class Programme's holistic approach helps to engage businesses' with schools in multiple domains of support, ultimately enhancing educational attainment, life chances and employability for pupils; therefore, offsetting the effect of deprivation and multiple disadvantage, contribution to school performance, important improvements in curriculum and other relevant national policies.

1.4.4 Sustainability and CSR in Wales

Beyond school and the education system, a key development in Wales has been about integrated well-being policy for public bodies to improve social, economic, environmental and cultural well-being of Wales called the 'Wellbeing of Future Generations (Wales) Act 2015'. It covers a range of areas such as sustainable development, well-being goals such as prosperity, resilience and healthier communities and other broader themes such as community cohesion, cultural/language and transparency in implementing and achieving these goals.

At the same time, and related to well-being and sustainable development, the Welsh Government has been encouraging CSR practice with its 2015 framework through principles, expected benefits and support. Research suggesting government activity to support CSR practice, mainly SMEs in Wales, by Brooks and Evans (2011) is a useful contribution in this context. Preceding these events, other schemes like 'One Wales : One Planet' for environmental sustainability were put in place by the government in 2009.

Amid these issues of lack of productivity, poor economic performance, socio-economic deprivation, ongoing work to improve school curriculum and some policy thrust towards sustainable and fair economy; there are some responses, such as, among others- WG funding for skills, aspirations and grade improvement support in schools through the Business Class programme. In Wales, both large and small businesses have committed time and support to the Business Class programme in a consortium which aims to help school pupils develop awareness of the world of work and career choice as well as skills and confidence for a smoother transition to employment and a holistic support to school alongside. The programme funded by the government and managed by BITC charity is a public-private/charity collaboration and its multi stakeholder nature, where companies of different sizes (local,

Wales-wide and multinational) demonstrate their CSR in local context, making it an interesting case for research. In this context, as stated at the beginning of this section, value creation for organisation and for others is more visible in such collaborative multi-stakeholder programme settings as well as targeted beneficiaries such as schools who can testify as to the benefits of this corporate community programme.

1.5 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

In this section, I describe the main contents and framing of the chapters in the thesis, beginning with chapter two.

Chapter Two – Literature Review (Ethics and CSR)

Chapter two evaluates critical discussions contained in literatures on moral and CSR theories. In this chapter, I first discuss ethical theories with more details on utilitarianism and teleology as mentioned in this chapter. Secondly, value creation using stakeholder theory, integrated reporting and other models, with specific details of research on value creation and stakeholders' participation, their perception, experience and outcome of the value creation is discussed.

Chapter Three – Literature Review (Impact)

One of the key purposes of this thesis is to analyse value or impact; thus I review different frameworks (and details of technical areas) in this second part of the thesis – in order to investigate how value is measured and leading to synthesising of issues into themes.

Chapter Four – Methodology

Chapter four discusses the epistemological position of pragmatism followed by the case study strategy (Yin, 2009) and use of multiple sources of evidence mainly in the form of interviews as well as documents, video and reports as an evaluation study. Furthermore, I provide details of how this data was collected and analysed using coding and case study protocol. At the end of this chapter, I explain validity, reliability and discuss application of this qualitative research.

Chapter Five – Context

This short chapter details the Welsh context for education and the Business Class context using research carried out on BC England; this provides a generic placement of these contexts prior to the findings chapters.

Chapter Six – Findings (Business Class in Wales)

This is the first part of the findings chapters that gives descriptive and rich details of how the BC programme in Wales operates using three main themes: context, cluster (organisational network) and activity and at the end presents a graphic model to describe the value creation ecology using these three elements alongside stakeholders involved in the programme and benefits to them and others. In this chapter and chapter seven, I highlight the key findings at the end of major sections; this is because the length of the sections coming from presentation of qualitative data helps readers to recall what has been just discussed. I use synthesized multiple data sources to present findings in both chapters (six and seven).

Chapter Seven – Findings (Impact Measurement)

Continuing from the findings in chapter six and using similar themes through context, cluster and activity, this chapter (seven) explains how the value originates, types of value and for

whom (stakeholders). The quality of the value exercise shows how good (or bad) different value areas are in terms of their intensity and effect. The final section shows impact practices among the BC programme stakeholders, such as what and how benefits or outcomes are measured, as well as issues and direction of impact practices.

Chapter Eight – Discussions

This chapter follows a similar structure to that of the findings of chapters six and seven, combined to make specific comparison but at the same time bringing various theories applicable to themes and areas presented in the findings chapters.

I first discuss the stakeholder theory using its three tenets and discuss trade off among stakeholders and application of pragmatism in value creation. The application of the integrated reporting framework, as well as comparison with BC England report by Warwick university, usefully aids the discussion on value creation process and outcome in a multi stakeholder debate. Similarly, theory of change versus complexity makes a critical debate on the messiness of value creation and understanding and importantly measures the value from the perspective of multiple stakeholders. These, together with stakeholder theory discussions, propel the research towards an expanded narrative beyond what stakeholder theory currently is.

Chapter Nine – Conclusions

This chapter presents contributions, limitations and suggestions for future research. Firstly, it presents contributions to stakeholder theory, its application and terminologies and what was not done by this research, therefore some directions for future research. Secondly, the more technical task of measuring value gives interesting insight into plural perspective of value beyond the claim of firms with suggestions to BC stakeholders and policy using a three part value analysis framework and also opening up the possibility of other complementary ways of value measurement. It also presents the methodological contribution in the form of a novel approach to the application of corroboration of data defined as ‘patch’ building exercise.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced the principal area of investigation undertaken by this research, namely CSR in the community with the aid of stakeholder theory with focus on outcomes of such activity. ‘What is CSR to recipients?’ is a key concern as set out here, challenging the claims on CSR solely by firms. Furthermore, various contexts such as socio-economic and education environment surrounding the multi stakeholder programme Business Class in Wales shows where the research took place. The chapter structure presented above helps understand contents and directions in this thesis.

In the next chapter, I will critically review literatures on moral laws, social responsibility, value creation and related areas that have been introduced in various sections above.

CHAPTER TWO : LITERATURE REVIEW

Moral theories, corporate social responsibility, stakeholder theory, value

INTRODUCTION

In the last chapter, I briefly introduced the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), and its development over time, as well as the territory it occupies within academic disciplines. In this chapter, I mainly bring together ethical and moral theories as a background leading to CSR and discuss this and other associated areas such as stakeholder theory and value creation.

It is important to be aware that in this chapter and throughout the thesis, the word ‘values’ (plural) means ethical and moral values, whereas the word ‘value’ (singular) is used to denote economic, social and other kinds of value created through business activities and enterprise. In consideration of such application, for economic, social and other types of multiple value being created, I use terms such as ‘varieties of value’ or ‘various types/kinds of value’, therefore a consistent use of singular word ‘value’ to express economic and other diverse value created and drawn as a result of business activity.

2.1 THEORIES OF ETHICS AND MORALITY

I start the literature review here to create some foundation using moral theories; this is because the relationships and activities at the intersection of business and society, such as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) have both ethical and moral component. The discussions on such fundamental issues will help build and reflect on other topics such as CSR and stakeholder theory in future sections. It thus needs deeper exploration through philosophical, business process and utility perspectives. This will be discussed below.

Here, I first discuss the nature of economy in different countries and regions, and moral theories, as well as economic behaviour. Granovetter (1985) proposed that economic activities are embedded within society. He developed his works from Polanyi's (1957) work on social embeddedness of economy; this gives two distinct approaches to understanding economic activity: substantive and formal (rational choice). A related research by Midttun et al. (2006) examines the old and new embeddedness of economies in Western Europe and America. They relate the old welfare state models in the Anglo-Saxon group where social assistance is low as opposed to European continental countries like Austria and Belgium, which have insurance-based welfare with stronger labour unionism. The Mediterranean countries like Greece and Spain focus on retirement benefits, whereas the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland) – amongst all groups – have the highest social protection and universal welfare, and similarly high rankings in social embeddedness. They report that the Nordic socio-economic model ran first on social corporatism whereas the Anglo-Saxon are polar opposite scoring low on most dimensions of social embeddedness of economy; whereas the European continent and Mediterranean fall in between these extremes. Although this example may be cursory, the importance of economic behaviour in society has impact at multiple levels. They shape national or regional systems in law, society and traditions affecting businesses and their behaviour; thus affecting the everyday life of people (see Morrison, 2006).

My research investigates how businesses create value mainly within those activities which interconnect with society; usually these are in the form of CSR initiatives. To create value, managers inevitably make judgement relevant to their context and organisation (Segal-Horn, 2004), and in doing so ethical dilemmas come in day to day decision making and conduct. In most basic ways, such managerial or human activity in philosophical terms are guided by duty of doing right and accountability for producing right results; the former is known as deontological, and the latter known as consequentialist approach to ethics. The deontological approach to ethics was conceived by Immanuel Kant, an eighteenth-century German philosopher who stated that irrespective of consequences, the morality of an action depends on the action itself and it has universal applicability (Kant, 1793). His notion of categorical imperative – where a person should treat others as himself or consider them as an end and not a means – is considered as undisputable. Some authors affiliate Judeo-Christian morality into this domain; this is mainly based on the theological doctrine of the Ten Commandments where what is right and wrong is determined by God in written words (Bible), or by communicating

to the followers (De George, 1999). In this tradition, the moral actions are governed by law, absoluteness and consistency (ibid.).

Looking through an entirely opposite approach in morality is called consequentialism; rightness is defined by consequences of an action rather than the action itself. The paradigm case of consequentialism is utilitarianism, which was developed by Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill, and later by Henry Sidgwick in the eighteenth and nineteenth century. Though there are huge diversities and disputes, the following classical definition gives some direction on this line of philosophy.

“Utilitarianism is an ethical theory that holds that an action is right if it produces, or if it tends to produce, the greatest amount of good for the greatest number of people affected by the action”. (De George, 1999 p57)

Utility is central to this theory and widely used in business practices such as cost-benefit analysis, whereas, others disagree that utilitarianism adopts a teleological approach (Cahill, 1981). The utilitarianism principle representing the greatest amount of good regarding the greatest number of people is blamed for allowing ‘bad in pursuit of good’ (Connery, 1973). Others critique such philosophy where “values are balanced, exchanged and traded off for one another, the moral judgment becomes a commerce and merchandizing in human conduct” (Quay as cited in Cahill 1981 p613). The greater good becomes problematic when constituents of business like suppliers, community and natural environment outnumber smaller yet closer stakeholders like stockholders, employees and customers with regards to benefiting from CSR (Lantos, 2002).

Secondary variants within utilitarianism are ‘act and rule’; the former being based on outcome from each action whereas the latter encompasses principles to define classes of action that produce greatest good. Richard Brandt (1963) in his article ‘Toward a Credible form of Utilitarianism’ draws from Urmson’s rule-utilitarian approach and Ross’ prima facie obligations furthers the rule utilitarian principle stating:

"An act is right if, and only if it conforms with that learnable set of rules the recognition of which as morally binding – roughly at the time of the act – by everyone in the society

of the agent, except for the retention by individuals of already formed and decided moral convictions, would maximize intrinsic value." (Brandt, 1963 p139)

Beyond the generic rule of utilitarian, Brandt mainly adds learnability and application of rules by general people and the acknowledgement of limitation of social context and time (relativism) in carrying out such moral rule (ibid.). However, this modified utilitarian theory does not go further beyond the utility maximisation approach and accused of being driven from contractualism (see Arneson, 2005).

The utilitarian paradigm of consequentialism is debatable whereas the teleological approach offers a better insight of this theory. Teleological theories derived from the Greek word 'telos' or goal assert that rightness of an action is defined by tendency of an action to produce certain consequences which are also intrinsically good or bad. In this tradition, morality is more about human excellence or virtue; this is called the human telos. Deriving from Christian theology particularly Catholic natural-law ethics, (the work of Aquinas and McCormick); it informs that rightness of action is that "which not only contemplates the immediate consequences of acts but also evaluates their relation to moral values and to the union of all persons in God as the universal common good" (Cahill, 1981 p612). This double effect principle (see Singer, 1980) focuses on final telos and in doing so fulfils human nature which Anscombe terms as 'human flourishing' (see Cahill, 1981; Anscombe, 1958).

A pragmatic approach on deontology and teleology adopted by Knauer states that value (or some good) sought must be promoted in the long run and must seek "the whole of reality" (Cahill, 1981 p619). This links to Kant's categorical imperative of universalisation of moral code "so that no human person is degraded to a mere means" (p620). Beyond the inherent tensions of individual rights with beneficence and net social good in utilitarian theories, however, in natural-law "inviolable dignity of the individual is not seen as incompatible with maximization of the good but is in fact demanded by it as a condition of its possibility" (ibid. p625). This dual concept is being derived from Thomas Aquinas referral of 'common good' meaning a person is dependent upon contributing to the social whole, yet with more fundamental responsibility to God; this conforms to McCormick's teleological consequence-oriented position. These discussions lead to a non-utilitarian form of teleology departing from Bentham and Mill to Thomas Aquinas and McCormick (in Cahill's view) in seeking 'good' (telos) or happiness where the former approach (utilitarianism) limits the social good as

material or dependent on material condition, thus participating in good cannot be universal. For this, utility becomes ultimate criterion and equality being set aside.

The Aquinas et al. tradition discussed above generally focuses on the vision of telos where virtues and activities towards it are good and right. Thus, this tradition of consequentialism (teleology) is not like rule for the sake of rule or outcome for the sake of outcome but pattern of actions towards an ultimate goal (telos) where the Christian tradition refer to it as consistent with the will of God. This gives scope for human flourishing (to use, Anscombe's term), and human beings as an end and not a means (in Kant's term). Thus, the telos becomes something to be pursued and not produced as material or finite, but unlimited, transcendent and identified with God (in religious teleology), or leading to universal common good in general application.

Beyond the traditional theories on consequentialism and deontological continuum, there are contemporary ethical theories, for example, virtue ethics which suggests that rightness of an action is defined by actor with virtuous character. It focuses on actor as a good person doing good and living in a good way by acquiring traits of character (see MacIntyre, 1984). Example of such virtues would be wisdom, friendship, mercy, loyalty and so on. A close development in this notion of ethics is practice based wisdom associated with phronesis; this is an umbrella term for cognitive capacity that coordinates judgment, understanding and insight to result in effective action (Halverson, 2002, see also Rooney, 2013). Such understanding relates with context, using skills (phronesis) and leading to action (Flyvbjerg et al., 2012; see also Segal-Horn, 2004). These derive from Aristotle's integration of reasoning, emotion and ethos (see Kennedy, 1993). In such Aristotelian philosophy, latter developments, such as by MacIntyre (1984) in the context of embedding of economy and society, suggests importance of virtue of an action and importantly the actors involved (see Brooks, 2008).

Likewise, beyond the above discussed philosophical areas and from the praxis perspective, the social contract theory mostly applied in Western tradition is based on the premise that social responsibility derives from moral legitimacy, and, how businesses achieve it in society. Its main proponents Donaldson (1989) and Dunfee (1999) posit that businesses and various economic organisations share implicit, informal relations as part-taker in a moral community. They together developed a framework called integrative social contract theory (ISCT) conceptualising different moral values of different constituencies with which businesses interact and this governs relationship of firm and societal actors (Donaldson and Dunfee, 1995).

Such multiple values at work, specifically in multi stakeholder collaborative arrangements is explored further in section 2.4.

Do these detailed ethical positions matter to manager, business and economy? A philosophy of business usually expressed in vision and mission statements and therefore a mandate to managers to advance them, eventually leads to better economic and social conditions which relates well to the discussions carried out about ‘telos’ earlier. The business ethics, if understood from a people perspective, a pattern of activities that lead to an outcome eventually leading to ‘telos’ or goal or state of vision company aspires to be, provides a long-term perspective able to gauge foreseeable future (Segal-Horn, 2004). The human flourishing happens when fellow human beings are part of the good and not merely for the purpose of producing good (Cahill, 1981). A narrow utilitarian perspective of producing greatest possible good can lead managers in short-termism. Similarly, the short-term efficiency risks the direction to future (for firm). On the other hand, those who rely on duty for doing right (deontological) again can lose direction to future. In this debate, the ‘telos’ does not lead to forgetting the current situation as nearly all ethical approaches refer to social context and time (whether limited or wide) but it is in the interest of ‘everyone’ when ‘telos’ is defined and a pattern of actions follow based on which norms, trust and exchange can take place. The issues of corporate irresponsibility partly links to lack of such ‘telos’ causing lack of trust in economy (see Porter and Kramer, 2011). The ‘telos’ would not only apply to managers seeking direction but also to business, community and society as a whole and all constituents who participate to achieve the highest good (*summum bonum*) – God – the origin and final telos of all finite values in theological terms, and likewise all stakeholders propelling enterprise in seeking the highest good in managerial terms.

2.2 CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The ethical principles discussed above are applied in businesses in different time and context. Corporate social responsibility (CSR) historically has been shaped more by practice than the academic contributions. CSR in its contemporary form evolved from centuries ago. The rules for commerce and trade that ensures wider public consideration is found in ancient Chinese, Egyptian and Sumerian writings (Werther and Chandler, 2011) and also during Mesopotamian

and Roman times (Asongu, 2007). As far as 44 BC, Cicero wrote about immoral buying and selling. In religions such as Christianity and Islam, practice of usury is abhorred.

In British business history, the Quakers, Morris, Lewis and Socialists are examples of benevolent capitalism dating back to over 150 years. The social activism against slave trade and boycotting slave-produced sugar was a major scandal as early as late 1700s (see for example Naidu, 2008). Similar is the legislation in the US – like the Alien Tort Statute in 1789 – holds US firms or people accountable for human right violations and crimes overseas. Werther and Chandler (2011) saw businessmen as stewards to use resources and seek the welfare of employee and community. Its origin focussed mainly on wealthy industrialists who donated through personal or corporate philanthropy. The donating continued in the form of paternalistic capitalism, for example, Cadbury and Rowntree who created villages for the workers during industrialisation. From these practical contexts in business and social life, it was mainly toward the second half of the 20th century that the writings on CSR started to build.

Some of the earliest writings on social responsibility of business were found on Carnegie's book 'The Gospel of Wealth' (1889) which outlined the duty of wealthy merchants to the society. Similarly, the developments in early 20th century broadly touching business responsibility, ethics and governance was that of Berle and Means (1932) in the context of increasing the size of a business, a new breed of executive had power on the running of the business whilst the ownership remained with shareholders; this led to agency problems. Since then, a lot of emphasis on writing has been on the function of these executives or businessman and taming them to be ethical and a moral agent in society where Bernard (1938) detailed the function of executives. These developments offer some foundation for the debate on social responsibility of business and the notion of stakeholders beyond the shareholders of a business.

From this early background, CSR entered its modern stage in 1950s when Howard Bowen wrote the landmark book 'Social Responsibilities of the Businessman' (1953) in the backdrop of laissez faire US economy that failed in 1930s, yet increased the influence of business in a large mass of citizens. The emphasis in his writing and that of others in 1950s was on social consciousness and values that businessmen were expected to have (Bowen, 1953; Selekman, 1959). Progressing from this nascent yet important development, the literatures in 1960s were focussed on voluntary support and stakeholder and public welfare beyond economic interests of a firm (such as works of Davis, 1960; Frederick, 1960; McGuire, 1963). However, they also

induced a tempting proposition that social activity in the long run would pay back economically whereas Carroll and Shabana (2010) argue that it was, rather, socially conscious motivations from businesses and that they did not expect a return. But, the search for business case of CSR continued and further developed during the 1980s. This economic rational perspective on CSR which generally refers to the business case of CSR is widely discussed later in this chapter. On the other hand, it is also important to note that as early as 1960s the consideration of consequences of one's actions affecting the interest of others was another reasoning for the firm's social responsibility (Davis, 1967). The consequence oriented concept of social responsibility was furthered in 1970s by Johnson stating:

“A socially responsible entrepreneur or manager is one who has a utility function of the second type, such that he is interested not only in his own well-being but also in that of the other members of the enterprise and that of his fellow citizens.” (Johnson, 1971 p68)

I have discussed the utilitarian and other philosophical perspectives regarding CSR in the last section, which are relevant in the discussions here. The corporate social performance (CSP) concept dominated the 1970s-1980s with emphasis on results or the outcomes of socially responsible initiatives (Carroll, 1979; Carroll and Shabana, 2010; Ghobadian et al., 2015; Wood, 1991). These outcomes on social impact, programmes and policies in Wood's (1991) work seems counterbalanced by the economic imperative of CSR (Brooks, 2010). Parallel to this development was Friedman's (1970) widely cited claim that the responsibility of a business is to maximize profit. It thus becomes important to know that concept of social impact or outcomes were developed early, such as in the work of Wood, yet they did not gain sufficient traction; however, on the other hand, even for Wood herself, these impacts were tied with instrumental benefit in the CSP concept (see, for example Wood, 2010). The other useful strand of Wood's work is the assessment of corporate impact on stakeholders (see for example Wartick and Wood, 1998) which I will return to later in this chapter.

The focus on businessmen at the centre of ethical conduct of a firm stemming from 1950s continued even in 1970s whilst also increasing the list of stakeholders identification and their wellbeing (such as Heald, 1970; Johnson, 1971). These developments took place at a time when large multidivisional firms were expanding in geography and in an era of strategic planning in businesses (Chandler, 1962; Andrews, 1971). This emphasis is important, given that

corporations were navigated by new breed of managers called the visible hand (Chandler, 1977; see Segal-Horn, 2004); therefore the emphasis is on morality of these individuals as agents supposedly trusted by their principals (ie. shareholders).

During the 1970s, CSR drew the attention of organisations such as the American Enterprise Institute, and the Committee for Economic Development in the US where the latter suggested that the business functions “is to serve constructively the needs of society” (CED, 1971 p11). In those decades, there was wider acceptance of responsibility such as labour, community welfare, environment and as much as systemic order in society (Eells and Walton, 1974; Backman, 1975) beyond what is required by the law. Friedman then stood against such sweeping developments claiming that those who support the notion of such wider social responsibility “are unwitting puppets of the intellectual forces that have been undermining the basis of a free society these past decades” (Friedman, 1970). Thus, redefining and expanding on CSR, and claim for and against it, were prevalent in 1970s.

By then, larger firms had been reporting about their social involvement in their annual report (Abbott and Monsen, 1979). This era also led to the foundation of Carroll’s pyramidal social responsibility elements: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic (Carroll, 1979). The 1980s ushered into new arena of CSR, with broader themes such as corporate social performance (CSP), business ethics and stakeholder theory seeking alternatives to the foundations set up in preceding decades (Carroll, 1999). The notion of corporate responsibility offering business opportunity became stronger with the work of Drucker (1984) and Aupperle et al. (1985) whilst Carroll (1983) based his social responsibility pyramid on economic profitability, thus the moral case was straitjacketed (Brooks, 2008).

CSR progressed incrementally in the academic works of 1990s with furtherance of CSP model by Wood (1991) and also revision by Carroll (1991) himself but transitioned significantly and rapidly into relatively new theories of stakeholder, business ethics, environmental management, corporate citizenship and justice (Blowfield and Murray, 2014). The academic development took place whilst large scale business scandals were witnessed in the UK including Polly Peck and Maxwell, and similar high profile scandals hit the US at the dawn of new millennium such as Enron, Arthur Anderson and WorldCom. As a result, business trust slumped to an all-time low and regulations for businesses were tightened. This period also marked the rise of alliances such as RSPO, FSC, Rainforest Alliance, Fairtrade, UN Global

Compact, Global Reporting Initiative for joint cross-sector corporate, non-profit and government actions on social issues connected with business and trade, which I will return to in future sections within this chapter. Similarly, benchmarking, like Dow Jones Sustainability Index and MSCI social index (formerly KLD) developed.

In the backdrop, there were several colossal corporate scandals in the early years of the millennium, including Enron and followed by global financial crisis in 2008; the progression of CSR in academia was as chaotic as it was in the corporate world. The new concepts broadening the CSR field developed during the new millennium, such as corporate citizenship (Frederick, 2008; Matten and Crane, 2005), where the label connoted corporate rights and responsibilities, as like citizens but it faded away soon. Likewise, new terms such as ‘sustainability’ continue to trend highly both in the business and the academic world (Zadek, 2001; Dunphy et al., 2003) thus trying to stay away from the criticized label of CSR. The more recent label ‘sustainability’ means sustainable business growth and sustainable welfare to society and environment generally.

The increased pressure on public responsibility of firms amid lack of trust resulted in two key developments in the present decade (2010s). One- where the alliances became platform for joint action as well as for self-regulation, through corporate responsibility, certification labelling and reporting. Two- the concept of shared economy was made popular by Porter and Kramer’s (2011) introduction of creating shared value (CSV), and other concepts such as social enterprise, circular economy and sharing economy. Consequently, developments similar to those in past years have lived in the tensions of moral values versus economic and social outcomes.

Economic rationality or the business case strand of CSR, developed in 1980s gained more space in academia in this century. One of them, the first, was helping the poor in the third world with economically viable services and products that could supposedly enhance their quality of living whilst the firms did not have to compromise on their profits – called as the bottom of the pyramid strategy (Prahalad and Hammond, 2002). Second, and in a similar vein, strategic CSR, which enables a firm’s competitiveness through activities where economic and social benefit converge (Porter and Kramer, 2002) and its newer version the ‘creating shared value’ (CSV) called for integration of firm’s social and commercial purpose by aligning strategy and products (Porter and Kramer, 2011). Whilst not without its critics, CSV has emerged as a comparatively

recent concept in the business case strand of the CSR literature which is discussed extensively later in this chapter. Third, the hybrid organisations or social enterprises to whom social and environmental mission is primary, yet they attempt to maintain profitability to run the business sustainably (Billis, 2010; Chakrabarty and Bass, 2015). Despite the change of fundamental business models, such as in social enterprise, organisations with social or environmental mission are failing to create social value (ibid.). Fourth, impact investment as an application of capital to create social, environmental and financial goals has gained momentum in recent years with high growth where OECD has tried to capture its size and impact globally (OECD, 2015). These are discussed later in this chapter.

In recent times, the government has attempted legislation such as making CSR contribution compulsory in India, similarly enhanced ethical standards for Canadian mining firms and sustainable development goals advanced by UN is an influential development. These also received simultaneous response from accounting and consulting firms such as KPMG, BCG, PwC and Accountability to help firms manage the proliferating social and economic policy, standards and reporting requirements. In terms of both standards and reporting, stakeholder inclusion is another growing aspect in recent decades (Freeman et al., 2004; see also Strand and Freeman, 2015).

The economic versus other value created by corporation remains highly debatable. Amid this, the corporate wrongdoing continues in a different manifestation, including recent collapse of large British businesses such as Carillion and BHS. At the end, ethical rules and laws can only guide; but moral responsibility and conduct of a businessman or an individual manager remains with them, which leads us back to the issue where the CSR debate started.

2.2.1 CSR in the Community

As businesses continue to grow, stakeholders have increasingly demanded higher standards of corporate behaviour. Accepting that they should respond to these demands has led companies to develop various CSR programmes. CSR, discussed earlier, refers to the social, environmental, and ethical responsibility and accountability of companies for their impacts, including impacts on the communities where they operate. In this context of firm's relationship

with local community, corporate community initiatives (CCI) are increasingly seen as part of a broader CSR strategy and is often managed within corporate departments. The acronym 'CCI' also refers to 'corporate community investment' or 'corporate community involvement' where the meaning is same and used interchangeably. It is argued that CCI is becoming part of core business activities rather than fulfilling a marginalised philanthropic function (Moon and Muthuri, 2006). This research investigates whether CCI serves the purpose to help the community and other stakeholders including businesses.

CCI is one of the key areas businesses engage in as part of their CSR programme that enables them to engage with stakeholders. Among various stakeholders, local community where the business operations are carried out (such as factory or office) are impacted by businesses and they can have legitimate interest and influence on these businesses. The disastrous oil spills in US and UK by oil companies coupled with social unrest in Africa caused by companies in extractive industries are clear examples of such damaging impacts and consequent reactions from communities. However, Brammer and Millington (2003) argue that community is not always able to influence business or put pressure on managers because this lacks both power and urgency as people in the community may not be organized into groups that will voice strongly nor able to act on their concern. I will return to this discussion on stakeholder relationship in future sections within this chapter.

London Benchmarking Group (LBG), one of the community involvement measurements and rating business membership organisation, defines Corporate Community Involvement (CCI) as "subset of corporate responsibility focussed on the voluntary contributions that companies make to community-based organisations or activities (e.g. charities, non-profits, NGOs, schools, hospitals, etc.) that extends beyond their core business activities" (LBG, 2016). In practice, CCI is about business involvement in social initiatives to meet the needs of the communities in which they operate; this matches with other concepts of corporate involvement in society. CCI provides opportunity for businesses with commitment to act responsibly and make positive contribution within communities; it is also good for business (ibid). Such community initiatives range from philanthropic donations of goods, cash and pro bono support which are mostly altruistic donations at the discretion of management to long-term community partnership and also other initiatives aligned to business strategy (Porter and Kramer, 2006). However, such activities have the possibility of not only creating positive but sometimes negative impact within the community and this can result from greenwashing or failed

community projects (Barkin, 2002; Blowfield, 2007). Having defined and given examples of CCI above, I now explore drivers of CCI in terms of research and practical issues to navigate corporate interest, processes, social context, expectations and norms in business and society.

Firm's Benefit

The dynamic context of corporate community involvement is shaped by the evolving relationship between community and businesses, as corporate managers or owner-managers of SMEs often give mainly ad hoc donations at their discretion or provide other forms of help to the community. However, not only the benevolent desire of managers but also:

“the general preferences and attitudes of society may play a significant role in conditioning the ways in which community involvement initiatives are implemented” (Brammer and Millington, 2003 p224)

Such dynamic relationships with stakeholders, including community, is explained in Arli and Cadeaux's (2014) research in Australia using salience of the stakeholders based on power, legitimacy and urgency (Mitchell et al., 1997). In their research, employee engagement is found to be a key driver and increased alignment between CCI and core business that can increase effectiveness of CCI; this is often referred to as strategic CSR (see Porter and Kramer, 2006). In this context, they use public choice theory to explain why companies are first motivated by self-interest (employee engagement in Arli and Cadeaux's case) which governs managerial choices for CSR activities. In line with this argument, CCI activities can be viewed as supply and demand patterns where the priority of the company is based on stakeholders' salience (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001).

A recent experiment by Chernev and Blair (2015), undertaken using customers for product preference, shows that pro-social activities unrelated to companies can have positive impact on perceived product performance. CSR as benevolent activity is more likely to create positive product image than being motivated by a company's self-interest using the notion of halo effect of a company's social activities (ibid.). Likewise, in their experiment, it was found that customers were likely to trust information about a company's action from an independent

source than from the company itself. This and other research such as Mohr et al. (2001) raised questions about the business-aligned instrumental approach to CSR. Many scholars in CSR have attempted to establish that doing good is profitable specifically when the CSR activities are aligned to core business (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Prahalad and Hammond, 2002; Lantos, 2000; Chong, 2009 and Porter and Kramer, 2011) confirming to this recent research by Arli and Cadeaux (2014). However, there is a difference between what is assumed by academicians or managers to be strategic CSR and presume business-related benefits and what actually happens as outcome of CSR for the firm and stakeholders alike. If Chernev and Blair's (2015) multi experiments with a sizeable population were true, the concept of strategic CSR is futile, at least to the company.

Long-term Value Creation and Disclosure

The big question that is neglected in business and academia remains: how would corporate behaviour be if they were driven by accountability or taking into account consequences of their actions or outcomes? The issue is not that corporations are not concerned about consequences or outcomes – and for this, a simple example would be deciding on projects based on returns and not purely investment; here, the problem is that the same approach is not applied in other decisions, such as how natural resources deplete (sourcing) or how the health of the community is affected by business (pollution and products). Such passive recipients of corporate actions (environment and community) are originally and ultimately the inputs, or are able to influence inputs (IIRC, 2013; Freeman, 1984). Such risks in input factors affect business competitiveness as presented in the integrated reporting framework later. The integrated reporting (IR) framework helps to understand how future inputs are tied to current actions demanding sustainable and responsible practices. Furthermore, reporting such as IR helps towards creating transparency and public trust. However, despite such a holistic view on a firm's value creation process, there is no agreement on whether CSR and sustainability programmes benefits firms, let alone benefit society (McWilliams et al., 2006; Margolis and Walsh, 2003).

Regulations and Morality

Governments in India and Canada for example, and elsewhere, have recently played a role in shaping the CSR through regulation, tax relief, collaborations and incentives. Welsh Government likewise has supported the CSR of private firms by funding the Business Class programme, which is investigated by this thesis. The pressure from civil society organisations, such as Greenpeace and also the market and stakeholder expectations are becoming dominant drivers for CSR (Moon and Muthuri, 2006). However, the roots of CCI as philanthropic action comes from the Greek society (Eberstadt, 1973) and, following that, through industrial paternalism for fulfilling community need in earlier centuries in the UK, and more recently business philanthropy as was introduced in chapter one. Such giving follows the charity principle of Christian tradition expanding into western Europe (Brooks, 2008); thus, making such altruistic giving mandatory can have problems. Other related areas in CSR, like environmental compliance, governance and ethics are at least partly defined and regulated but even the academic or industry proponents of CSR find it hard to argue community involvement as a mandatory activity (such as Carroll, 1991 and WBCSD, 2000). On the other hand, stakeholder theory suggests that it is in the interest of the business to meet the expectation of society; more precisely the local community (Ruf et al., 2001). In this context, contributing to societal welfare largely remains a discretionary moral gesture. Likewise, self-governance such as through subscription of PRI, Equator Principles and ethical guidelines from UN organisations or OECD is also a growing development.

2.3 CSR, VALUE AND RELATED DISCIPLINES

In this section, I discuss academic areas which are closely situated to the field of CSR, such as social enterprise, the concept of creating shared value, along with value creation in public, private and collaborative/hybrid organisations.

2.3.1 CSR and Social Enterprise

The moral theories such as deontology and teleology that were discussed earlier, as well as the examples of CCI above, explicate its impact. The strategic strand of CSR – such as its link to financial performance or CSV concept by Porter and Kramer (2011), will be discussed in the next section; this portrays win-win situation of economic, environmental and social goals. Examples of such strategic blend of multiple value, can be pursued in microfinance has its problems, however the impact of microfinance is found to be wanting even in the case of successful Grameen Bank founded by Nobel laureate Muhammad Yunus (Pearl and Phillips, 2001). A recent research on microfinance industry in Bangladesh by Chakrabarty and Bass (2015) shows that portfolio risk is inherent because of having to lend to low-earning borrowers where such a risk can be mitigated by use of virtue ethics based intervention. They further suggest that consequentialist and deontological CSR have an outward focus on the societies in which they operate and this approach can “negatively impact portfolio risk” (Chakrabarty and Bass, 2015 p505) of microfinance institutions. This again lends to the issue of a firm’s own position of moral standing on social responsibility and less so in being society or stakeholder oriented which is not any different from the approaches of commercial corporations. The panacea of integrating social and economic benefits through social enterprise falls apart, as explored here where taking consequence or impact does not help the firm to be profitable. Thus, linking social goals with firm strategy in pursuit of eventual economic benefit simply undermines the inherent tension between social and economic goals (Crane et al., 2014; Epstein and Yuthas, 2010).

Thus far, the discussion above has been about linking moral values that are applied in businesses in business process and by managers. In the examples above, it introduces the notion of value creation as a consequence of corporate activity and resources with moral values embedded within it. Value creation is traditionally believed as to be a financial return to investors; however expanding from earlier examples, I now discuss various kinds of value created by a firm in association both with and for multiple stakeholders. In this way, the discussion now progresses towards outcomes of corporate activity at the intersection of business and society for firm, natural environment, local community and other stakeholders.

2.3.2 Value and CSV

The most common language within the business world is value meaning value, created or added, as well as destroyed or diminished during any activity. It is important to know what it means, how value is created in business enterprise and its worth. In most basic way, value is defined as benefits relative to costs (Porter and Kramer, 2011). Value, for some, is resources, particularly those which cannot be imitated (Amit and Shoemaker, 1993) and their unique configuration (Rumelt, 1984). These resources, according to Barney (1991) as a unique constellation of resources (physical, human and organizational), and rare and difficult to imitate, are valuable when they are able to exploit opportunities and neutralize threats within a firm's environment.

Yet others such as Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) have emphasized on social capital as a source of intellectual capital or the significance of socially and contextually embedded forms of knowledge, and knowing as a source of value – akin to the resource-based view of the firm (Wernefelt, 1984). A similar seminal work by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) has emphasized on intellectual value beyond financial and other tangible areas of value. The IIRC's Integrated reporting framework supports these new value areas, as well as traditional, categorising into six areas: financial, manufactured, intellectual, human, social and relationships, as well as natural capital; where an organisation's interaction with its external environment and these capital create value over short, medium and long term (IIRC, 2013). It, therefore suggests that varieties of value being created by firm are more than financial return for the investors and others. The worthiness of value is often related to customers (see for example, Prahalad and Hamel, 1990), such as utility of product or exchange value (Bowman and Ambrosini, 2000). In addition, Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004) have forwarded the concept of value co-creation in the context of firm and customer. They accuse the concept of the value chain epitomized as the unilateral role of the firm in creating value (such as by Porter, 1980), thus the understanding and process being company-centric. They contend that value is jointly created by both the firm and the consumer (cf. Vargo and Lusch, 2004; see also Vargo et al., 2008 on value co-creation in service system). The concept of creating shared value (CSV) by Porter and Kramer (2011) as discussed below does not go any further from 'business as usual', such as selling innovatively to the population at the bottom of the pyramid or microfinancing small enterprises wherein its benefits concerning developing countries is contested; this is discussed above (see also Karim, 2011; cf. Habib and Jubb, 2015 in Bangladesh; van Rooyen et al., 2012 in sub-

Saharan Africa). On the other hand, creating shared value concept overtly introduces the language of ‘value’ which is not apparent in CSR discourse. Whether the value is created for the firm or others, the notion introduced in CSV is effectively value created in the intersection of business and society; thus activity such as CSR should not be considered as peripheral but integral in value creation when following value principles (Porter and Kramer, 2011). However, the idea of value discussed above -what can be considered as value – and below (in section 2.4) about who is accounting the value using Quelin et al.’s (2017) hybridity in logic and governance model, shows the challenges of multi stakeholder involvement in value creation and measurement.

This thesis works in the critical space of ethical and moral values, focussing toward how stakeholders are involved in value creation and the outcomes of it. Both the concept and practice of CSR with various labels associated with it form narratives about giving back to the society (a recipient), where the firm is at the centre; and in doing so, it purportedly demonstrates its morality. This is contested as the debate using stakeholder theory in section 2.4 below shows a different story where the so-called recipient (or stakeholders) instead help firm create value as well as share the value.

Porter and Kramer (2011) define CSV as “policies and operating practices that enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates” (p66). They put forward three elements of CSV which are discussed here. The first element being reconceiving products and markets which suggests desirable and socially useful products for customers such as nutrition in food, power saving and environmentally friendly products; for example, GE’s Ecomagination opening up innovation. Other opportunities in this area also come from the inclusion of the bottom of the pyramid market (Prahalad and Hammond, 2002); mobile banking in Africa or microfinance are examples of this. The second element of CSV is redefining productivity within the value chain. It is a progression from an earlier work on CSR which is aligned to enhance value chain and competitive context (the diamond model), creating shared benefits for business and society (Porter and Kramer, 2006) and also involving minimizing natural resource consumption, such as packaging or water use, as well as health, safety and wellbeing of staff. Similarly, supporting environmental efficiency such as in coffee value chains and distribution, e-reader instead of printed books and female entrepreneurs selling at the bottom of the pyramid market are all examples of redefining productivity. These, they suggest, will unlock untapped

economic value. The third area CSV focuses on is enabling local cluster enablement which is close to Porter's several earlier works on industrial clusters (such as Porter, 1998, 2000), therefore influencing competitive context and regional competitiveness (Porter and Kramer, 2002); these follow strategic CSR strands as discussed earlier. Within this, business and supporting institutions including governments, NGOs and other support providers through collaborations, facilitate education/training and transportation services creating opportunities through local clusters. Examples in this area are the North Carolina research triangle on technology and life sciences and likewise, fertilization, irrigation and other logistics in Nestle's coffee chain. In this way, they argue that firms create shared value by building clusters to improve company productivity while addressing gaps or failures in the framework conditions surrounding the cluster.

As discussed earlier, the concept of CSV to create value collaboratively that is shared among the participants brings the issue of "*whose* and *what* values, are represented in business decisions" (Deetz, 2007 p269, italics in original). Concepts like CSV are corporate centric and instrumental in that such efforts tend to primarily create efficiency/benefit for the firm through environmental and social initiatives. Therefore, they do not present a hugely different premise than strategic CSR strand or the instrumental benefit of social initiatives (such as Porter and Kramer, 2006). Crane et al. (2014) argue that solving social problems is not the motive in Porter and Kramer's (2011) article; rather, where economic purpose can be carried out whilst simultaneously solving those problems relevant to the firm because "the most fertile opportunities for creating shared value will be closely related to a company's particular business, and in areas most important to the business" (Porter and Kramer, 2011 p75). This is essentially a company centric version of business and society evident in CSV concept. "Firms create shared value by building clusters to improve company productivity while addressing gaps or failures in the framework conditions surrounding the cluster" (ibid. p72). Thus, it is not about problems that already exist in society (see Fowler and Biekart, 2017) perhaps close to where the company is located but choosing or in effect deliberately designing partnerships towards improving framework conditions of health, quality workforce and so on that the other participants in this might benefit whilst company pursues its economic ambition. "It is not philanthropy but [firm's] self-interested behavior to create economic value by creating societal value" (Porter and Kramer, 2011 p77).

The joint value creation between the firm and its stakeholders, where cooperation is essential and co-mingled goals exist among them, shows focus on conditions and relationships that enable value creation as furthered in stakeholder theory (Strand and Freeman, 2015); this I will return to in the next section. CSV, on the other hand seems to suggest a company centric version of value creation where selected collaborations will produce value for firm and society. It brings to question the purpose of a firm, which Porter and Kramer (2011) claim to redefine but actually they do a disservice. On a practical ground, solving social problems on the basis of ‘benefits relative to cost’ – specifically where these exist outside business sphere and costs relatively higher – highlights a serious question regarding the usefulness of CSV to the society. It does not help advance the business-society relationship further but takes us back toward the same fundamental question quoted from Margolis and Walsh in 2003, as introduced in chapter one – that if the condition for acting on ‘social misery’ was to yield corporate benefit, then what “CSV may lead to are islands of win-win projects in an ocean of unsolved environmental and social conflicts” (Crane et al. 2014 p139). Furthermore, CSV is contested fundamentally because this notion of ‘benefits relative to cost’ can contest managers’ decisions on moral grounds (see also Crane et al., 2014). The stakeholder theorists and those around it (such as Crane et. al, 2014; Strand and Freeman, 2015; Freeman, 2017) see a firm as a multi-purpose entity that pragmatically creates value for all stakeholders. CSV’s company-focussed value creation and this shared among participants or generally is critically different to stakeholder theory of firm suggesting joint activity of value creation because of the stakeholders’ (human groups) needs and not value creation per se. Despite the normative and descriptive issues in CSV concept, it does introduce the notion of undertaking CSR as an integrated value creating activity and the value possibly shared among multiple participants (cf. Day, 2014). These issues make the investigation of this thesis crucial to find out how and why do business managers and school teachers as immediate stakeholders in Business Class programme collaborate to create joint value. I will return to discuss Business Class programme in detail in chapter five.

A thorough review of originality and usefulness of Porter and Kramer’s CSV idea by Crane et al. (2014) has provoked meaningful ideas where the latter claim that “democratically organized multi-stakeholder processes” can be an ideal way of managing collective roles of corporations in society and their examples are as follows: Forest Stewardship Council, Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil or the Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative. Does it lead to the conclusion that “profit-seeking enterprises need to abandon their core purpose for the sake of the greater good” (Porter and Kramer in Crane et al., 2014 p150)?

Whilst CSV does the service of providing umbrella construct for previously disjointed ideas, none of these qualify into a new theory where businesses or business-society relationship would operate differently, thus it is unoriginal (Crane et al., 2014). To reclaim or repair capitalism mainly through re-conceiving products and markets, redefining productivity in value chain and enabling cluster development as they claim is questionable because these primarily managerial or firm-level interventions are unlikely to bring systemic change. The bigger problem is not necessarily on improvements on business practices as shown in three different ways within the CSV but on the fundamental assumption of a business, which is corporate self-interest. This issue of corporate self-interest is evident in Porter and Kramer's (2011) article where cost is repeatedly discussed, as argued earlier. According to them, societal problems can create economic costs in the firm's value chain and this intersection influences businesses to create benefit that normally surpasses costs. If a firm's activity within the society were merely for mitigating risks on them or to create profit out of it, how does it become anything "that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001)?

So, here the precise question is:

"...if corporate responses to social misery are evaluated only in terms of their instrumental benefits for the firm and its shareholders, we never learn about their impact on society, most notably on the intended beneficiaries of these initiatives." (Margolis and Walsh, 2003 p282)

This debate has two main issues: firstly, CSV presents lack of moral conviction for businesses' social responsibility; secondly, how value is created (descriptive) and how it should be created (normative) – where contribution of stakeholders in value creation is not sufficiently acknowledged. In the next section, I explore how private, hybrid and public organisations create both private and public value and the implications on value measurement.

2.3.3 Public Value

The question of who shields a country from foreign enemies, keeps the streets safe and clean, educates children and insulates citizens from man-made and natural disasters makes it obvious

that such work is associated with public sector (Moore, 1995). Such vital functions in society are usually carried out by government agencies and its benefits consumed collectively by the citizenry (Alford, 2011); this may be those who use service, obligatees or combined (Moore, 2013). Definitions of public value such as by Constable et al. (2008 p.9) stating that it is a “comprehensive approach to thinking about public management and about continuous improvement in public services” suggests a broader approach beyond value creation.

Moore’s early work in 1995 draws the essence of the environment that the public sector operates in, to create value as depicted in the below diagram called the strategic triangle. According to the model as presented below, firstly, some benefit is essential for overseers, clients, and beneficiaries. Secondly and subsequently, gaining of authority as well as funds from the authorising environment is important. Finally, as shown in the model, public managers would consider realistic options operationally and administratively in order to implement a strategy. This approach assumes to direct public managers to be proactive and entrepreneurial in value creation (Williams and Shearer, 2011; see also Benington and Moore, 2011).

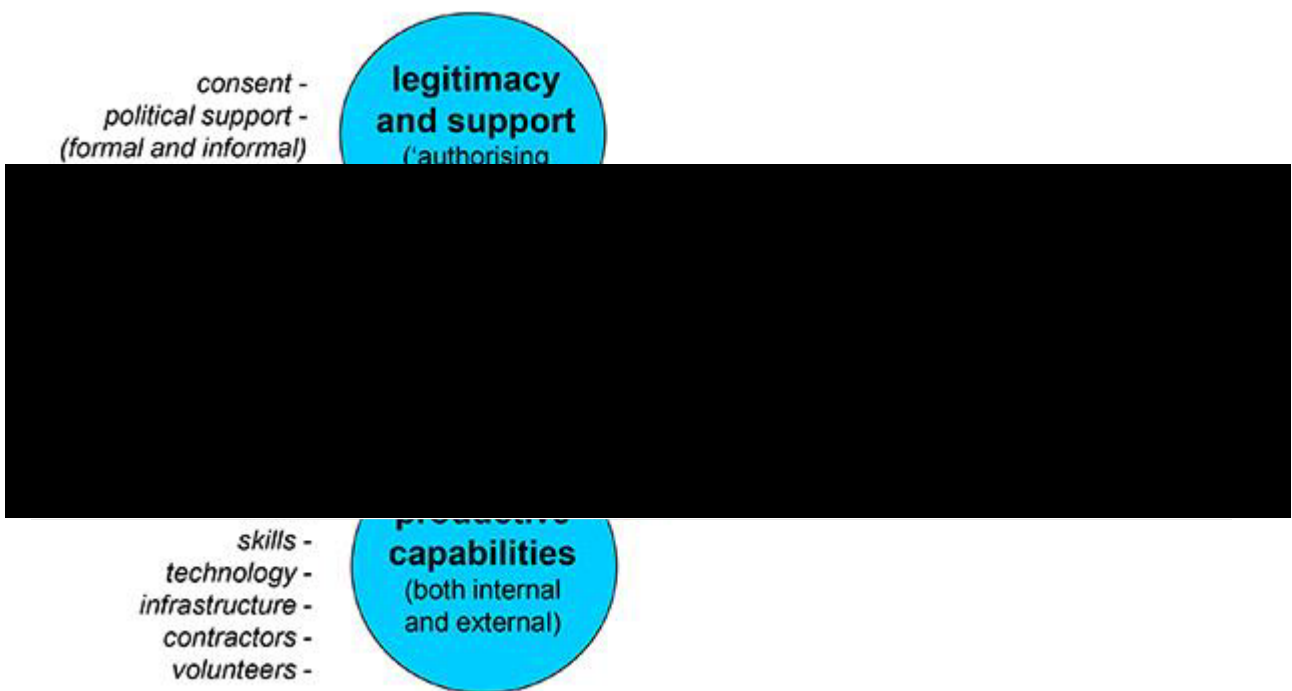


Fig. 2.1 Strategic Triangle derived from Moore (1995) [Source: ANZSOG]

In terms of value creation, the private sector is differentiated from the public sector in that large private sector firms are focused primarily on shareholders and similarly of owner-managers in small firms. However, inputs such as financial, natural, human and social capital and outputs of similar kind are resources not always within a firm; for example global commons which are unowned, unprivatized and mostly free – such as oceans, atmosphere and natural environment (IIRC, 2013b). Similarly, knowledge and social capitals as discussed earlier in the last section are value generally unowned and open. Businesses can produce harm or benefit both in the private and common realm for the firm and multiple stakeholders (ibid.). Similarly, concepts such as creating shared value, as discussed in the last section, show the desirability of creating benefits for a firm whilst also advancing economic and societal progress (Porter and Kramer, 2011). Such jointness of interest between firms and society is espoused in stakeholder theory (Strand and Freeman, 2015). Therefore, it can be argued that private firms both draw and produce value in the public as well as within the private realm.

If the canon of common consumption by citizenry is applied- private, public and other forms of organisations can produce public value (Alford, 2011; see also Quelin et al., 2017; Emerson, 2003). However, there is a fine distinction between citizenry (related to ‘society’ in private sector terms) and the clients who, actually use the service or benefit in public sector (associated with ‘stakeholders’ in private sector terms). Activities carried out at the intersection of business and society, such as CSR, mostly produce value at stakeholder level which can be evidenced in community (Kolodinsky et al., 2006; see also Maas, 2009 on impact level); therefore, there is a need to measure such value from the perspective of multiple stakeholders involved, which is critical to this study. Furthermore, beyond the purpose of the firm (to whom and how it creates value) and the outcome (value created), the process whereby multiple organisations in novel form of collaborations, such as public-private cross-sector partnerships, create value which shows hybridity in governance and logic is demonstrated by Quelin et al. (2017). This is discussed later in this chapter.

The understanding of value creation in private and public sector, beyond the silos of functions and sectors over the last half-century, is made evident and their spheres blurred owing to globalisation and neoliberal precepts, according to Ward (2011). This historic progression is important in order to understand why and what changed over time. One of the key explanations of this is the rise of managerialism. The notion of separation of ownership and control of a corporation where managers discipline the workforce and rationalize economic production for

shareholders, as introduced in the first chapter using the work of Berle and Means (1932) – translates into the public sector as well. Ward (2011) says managerialism took hold of productivity and institutional logic as sole forte in the post-bureaucratic context, a key feature of the New Public Management (NPM). This shift was drastic, such as the application of public choice theory representing various self-interested agents (Buchanan and Tullock, 1962) instead of benevolence or public service provisions from a conceived autonomous legal rational organisation (Turkel and Turkel, 2016). It led to private sector style management that is characterized by creation of a competitive and entrepreneurial environment. This eventually led to accountability through consumer choice and customer satisfaction (Kettl, 2000), objective and outputs and even features such as ‘user pays’ and outsourcing of public services, dismantling them, and the rise of casual work, and professions fragmented to routine tasks such as in healthcare sector (Ward, 2011). In this way, the managed professionals became subordinated to the corporate values and the rise of ease of command and bottom line of the management desktop (Bousquet, 2008). These issues are echoed in the argument that NPM lacks the concept of human dignity, justice and quality of life (Diefenbach, 2009, as cited in Lewis et al., 2017 p309).

I will now discuss the concept of ‘bottom line’; this is central to the debate of Moore’s (2013) work built on these concept. In his case study on New York City Police Department (NYPD), he presents their success of rapid crime reduction during 1994-1995 and the development of the renowned Compstat IT system for comprehensive crime statistics. According to the case study, what Mr. Bratton, the then NYPD chief, claimed as success mostly in private sector terms, becomes the basis for Moore’s analysis of public value. He states that:

“public-sector managers should adopt the perspectives and techniques of private-sector managers, specifically by committing themselves and their organizations to a “bottom line” that defines the value their organizations produce in terms of concrete goals” (Moore, 2013 p31)

The bottom line, in his suggestion, is driven from the vision of an organisation and how accomplishments toward it should be measured. However, it will be discussed in this and the next chapter the concept that firms can produce value (positive or negative) beyond what is stipulated in their vision or objectives. The example of latchkey children in US and expansion of library service for them in Moore’s work (Moore, 2013), and the notion of NHS to work

beyond the healthcare to create health and wellbeing in communities in the UK (NHS Confederation, 2012) shows a need for organisation to be holistic in service. Consequently, such public organisations manifest as a multi-purpose entity adding to the complexity of understanding and measuring value even beyond the territory of organisations and sectors. In this way, the concept of the bottom line can inhibit a comprehensive view of the value being created and measured.

Returning to the notion of consumption by citizenry discussed earlier, what Moore (2013) suggests, using the NYPD case, is measuring outcomes in reference to the goals, or the bottom line, as stated earlier. In this approach, public value is generated, for example, when success of crime reduction happens. However, unintended and opposite effect or negative value can also be created such as abuse of public authority resulting in complaints or other unintended consequences. In this way, averting negative effects also means creating value. The concept of averting negative issues such as medical emergency, unemployment and other value measurement concepts, such as costs of producing value and aggregate outcome, intangibles such as aspirations and client satisfaction, all follow principles that are common to public and other sectors.

Further to what has been discussed above on common consumption of value by citizenry and value created beyond the intention and sphere of the organisation both positive and negative, here the next important issue is – who should assess value. The use of authority, such as policing, taxation and tax money, highlights the notion of justice and fairness, being prominent which differentiates the public sector from others. The actions and outcomes of it through the public agencies are accountable to the public as collective arbiter of all value to determine the worth of any outcome. Rhodes and Wanna (2007) contend the view of public managers as guardians and arbiters of public value, and they argue that the public instead should be the arbiter of value. They contend the managers' version of public value, which is in connection to the political environment (authorization) in Moore's strategic triangle above. Similar to Moore (2013), Rhodes and Wanna (2007) suggest that through dialogue and joint action with citizens, it plays a key role in constructing a shared interpretation of the public interest values instead of the interpretation of public managers. The private sector suffers from a similar problem where, despite multiple stakeholders involved in value creation process, what is currently accepted as value (financial and other) is solely the claim of businesses via their managers as

discussed in this chapter and throughout the thesis. Therefore, assertions of what is valued from a single actor is arguably flawed (Rhodes and Wanna, 2007).

A critical approach is important, specifically where the activity carried out at the intersection of business and society, such as CSR do not follow the appropriate logic of value created jointly. Multiple stakeholders are involved in value creation using private and public resources (inputs) both in the private and public sector. The notion of fairness, justice and use of authority is more specific to the public sector, whilst private sector and hybrid organisations have emphasis on performance; however as argued earlier, NPM has brought performance into the public sector also. The issue of creating and measuring value or performance, using bottom line or organisational aim, is flawed because multiple value, both positive and negative, are created beyond the aim and sphere of the firm. In addition, private or hybrid organisations, similar to the public sector, can produce public value if it is collectively consumed (as discussed earlier), which adds complexity to the issue of value creation and measurement. More fundamentally, it is contested who should determine the value. Multiple stakeholders involved in value creation should also be the arbiters of value both in public and private sectors. In this way, a company's sole version of value or that of the public managers is challenged; thus, by contending such practice and in using Rhodes and Wanna's (2007) position, recipients of CSR activity (eg. the community) as it is in the public sector, can be the arbiters of value. I expand this and other issues on value measurement throughout the next chapter.

The key issue, important to this research as well as generally, is to define and estimate value in multiple dimensions; such as triple bottom line (Elkington, 1998) and multiple capitals used in integrated reporting comprehensively, and from the perspectives of those who are involved or oversee the value creating enterprise; such as collective public in public sector (Moore, 2013; Moore 2014 in EY, 2014 p5) and stakeholders in private sector. This thesis examines value from the perspectives of arbiters, such as community involved in a joint value creating enterprise. In the next section, I explore multiple stakeholder initiatives aimed at creating value jointly.

2.3.4 Multi Stakeholder Collaborations

The democratically organized multi-stakeholder processes, as explained by Crane et al. (2014) come into various forms. Some of them bring together governments, civil society and businesses such as Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil, Forest Stewardship Council and Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative. Other joint initiatives can also be outside their ‘democratically organized’ definition, such as Ethical Trading Initiative, Fairtrade, Rainforest Alliance, ISO standards or the recently formed Tropical Forest Alliance 2020 (see also Frannie et al., 2007; Whelan, 2017 on multi-stakeholder initiative). These multi stakeholder initiatives are considered effective collaborative business solutions to major social problems globally and are based on democratic governing principles and the adoption and enforcement of new rules for all participating companies, according to Crane et al. (2014). There is yet another distinct form of such multi-stakeholder partnership where number of companies and other stakeholders come together to create an alliance for eliminating certain social problems; for example, the GAVI for vaccinations in developing countries. Such collaborative initiatives are broadly termed as Multi-Stakeholder Initiative (MSI) despite some variations in their form and governance.

It is difficult to establish if such externally organised partnerships or the MSI are effective in bringing about responsible business and positive outcome for society (see Taylor, 2005). The green and ethical certification sector for supermarket products are hugely popular such as Rainforest, FSC and Fairtrade, yet their solution in poverty alleviation is contended (van Vark, 2016). The Fairtrade organisation claims to offer premium price for the growers in developing countries and support them with community projects and environmental protection; Porter and Kramer (2011) state that this is of lesser value as compared to CSV approach. However, the question still remains – are such efforts are actually creating social and environmental benefit? Likewise, companies getting Fairtrade or other labels buying or selling products can be driven by commercial motive, rather than ethical and environmental imperative and standards such third party organisations offer.

There is no evidence to suggest that such partnerships have led to better outcomes for the community that it is intended for. The natural resource intensive sectors such as forestry, minerals or palm oil are rather threatened by the regulations coming from government such as Canada in the mining sector and through multilateral organisations like OECD where multi-

stakeholder action has become a necessity. The very nature of multi stakeholder initiatives calls for discussion on stakeholders who form such initiatives. This is explored below.

2.4 STAKEHOLDER THEORY AND PRAGMATISM

The idea and example of democratically organized multi-stakeholder processes by Crane et al. (2014) has been discussed above with various examples. However, the fundamental premise of such a process or a partnership model is 'stakeholdership'. Edward Freeman (1984) popularized a perspective different from the traditional shareholder's wealth maximization model, known as stakeholder theory. The stakeholder theory states that various groups and constituents are affected by business activity and/or they can affect the achievement of business objectives. Despite a vigorous debate for over several decades on whether anyone else beyond the shareholder can have claim on the corporation, the theory has been developed further and continues to influence business practices (Laplume et al., 2008).

Freeman and his colleagues' works on stakeholder theory over three decades have established a different way of understanding how business works and ought to work. Stakeholder theory is primarily a theory of management of organizations with a normative core at its centre (Bowie, 2012). Whilst there are different facets being developed about stakeholders, and notwithstanding critiques (eg. Miles, 2012), but in nutshell, there are three key tenets of stakeholder theory which are of particular relevance to this discussion. According to Strand and Freeman (2015), these are jointness of interest, cooperative strategic posture and rejection of narrowly economic view of the firm. Some of these developments come from the stakeholder theory's historic root in Scandinavia and particularly the work of Swedish scholar Eric Rhenman in 1960s. First, Strand and Freeman (2015) state that firm and its stakeholders share a jointness of interest or interdependence (see also Post et. al., 2002), thus, rather than competition, the firm creates as much value as possible for all stakeholders. However, trade-off between stakeholders is an issue (Bowie, 2012). Second, the dichotomy of competition and cooperation is questioned and has a firm, demonstrate tendency to consider its stakeholders as potential partners in cooperation to part take in ongoing negotiation, which leads to the third aspect of stakeholder theory. Third, stakeholder theory rejects a narrow economic view of the firm which is related to the concept of multi-purpose entity by Crane et al. (2014), therefore

creating as much value as possible for its stakeholders without resorting to trade off (Freeman, 2017). Freeman (2017) states that instead of pursuit of profits as sole purpose of business, “the real purpose [of firm] inspires both employees and other stakeholders who come to share that purpose” (p461). These developments in stakeholder theory apply pragmatic approach with normative core, embodying hope for better lives and human flourishing (Bowie, 2012; see also Rorty et al., 2004).

The enlightened stakeholder theory furthered by Jensen (2001) puts the consideration that a company cannot maximise its value if the stakeholders are ignored, but would need to make trade-offs between stakeholders. The theory confirms to the long-term value maximization property of Freeman’s original stakeholder theory. There is fundamental distinction between such variants of the theory. The stakeholder perspective is based on the tenets that values are an explicit part of doing business and this cannot be separate in pursuing economic activity because economics “is clearly infused or embedded with ethical assumptions, implications, and overtones” (Carroll, 2000 p35). This is opposed to the shareholder perspective who think business as inherently amoral economic activity (see Granovetter and Swedberg, 1992).

Stakeholder theory in Freeman’s tradition has a pragmatist approach in the stakeholders’ role and value creation (see Freeman et al., 2010; Bowie, 2012). Stakeholder theory has been extensively applied in this thesis, thus it is useful to discuss its philosophical underpinning as well.

The philosophy of pragmatism is often associated with action or practice, their usefulness or practical consequences coming from the Greek term ‘pragma’. It gained momentum in United States in early 20th century. The early philosophers of the 19th century, Charles Peirce, William James, and John Dewey were the early pioneers and later in the 20th century Richard Rorty, Hilary Putnam were influential in this philosophy.

Dewey developed experience as a key aspect of the philosophy and understanding as stated below:

“The organism acts in accordance with its own structure, simple or complex, upon its surroundings. As a consequence the changes produced in the environment react upon the organism and its activities. The living creature undergoes, suffers, the consequences

of its own behaviour. This close connection between doing, suffering or undergoing forms what we call experience". (Dewey, 1920 p129)

The more recent developments continue on the element of experience (see Putnam, 1993). Rorty sees culture as ongoing conversation and this attaches to the tradition of context from a classical school of pragmatism from 19th century. In this sense of open and future oriented perspective, Rorty asks the question 'how we should live' kind of question, where the goal of inquiry is increasingly on free societies and diverse individuals. Likewise, Freeman et al. (2010) specifies subjective values of freedom and solidarity (see Bowie, 2012). Rorty operationalises it by suggesting search for adjustment, creating description and re-description of what humans do. In this sense of ongoing practice, sense making (James, 1907) and understanding, the context is valued (see Dewey, 1934). We also evaluate them by seeing how they enable us to achieve our goals and formulate better and more satisfying goals (Rorty, 1995). It thus needs fine grained narratives for how we could live together (Freeman et al., 2010). This essentially calls for language in a collaborative and shared environment such as business enterprise, being equivocal and creating and sharing meaning out of experience (Weick, 1995). It is important to my research to explore experience and meaning of CSR from the perspectives of various stakeholders in a pragmatist approach – that is experience within a context and a communication that is ongoing and in reference to some normative ideals (Bowie, 2012).

Rorty's idea on justification or consensus such as whether a policy is successful is critiqued (Rorty et. al., 2004). However, value creation and plural perspectives based on usefulness is important to investigate success or justification of CSR from the perspective of different stakeholders.

2.4.1 Research Related to Stakeholder Theory

The stakeholder theory of firm recognizes the participation of stakeholders within the value creation process; however, this is not reflected in research by involving stakeholders, particularly community as a beneficiary (in a corporate-social programme). Most research similar to business practitioners view CSR or value creation from the perspective of focal

organisation, which is often a private firm. There has been little research undertaken which goes beyond the focal organisation centric approach and involves stakeholders in research; this I will review below.

Walker et al. (2017) evaluate youth employability programme for marginalized London youths funded by a large multinational bank as their CSR programme and delivered by a foundation of a professional football team. The youths, who underwent a 10 week programme – using sports as tool – developed skill and attitude improvement (termed as ‘soft’ outcomes) and were externally awarded qualifications for it, yet their research states about the programme’s struggle to translate the positive attitudes to long-term outcomes such as employment (‘hard’ outcomes). They employed mixed methods (semi-structured interview, questionnaire and focus group) assessing satisfaction from pre to post intervention (sequential) to gather data from programme administrators, participants and corporate sponsors (bank). They contend, “gathering multiple source [of] data to understand the holistic impact of CSR is not only important, but necessary for future program deployment” (Walker et al., 2017 p68). As remarked by them, gathering of multiple sources of data mainly from participant or the beneficiary of programme is difficult, because scholars lack access to programme, participants and administrators (Hartmann 2003; MacKenzie et al. 2001). Consequently, impacts are being characterized by dollars allocated or participation rates rather than by true beneficiary impact (Walker et al., 2017; see also Maas, 2009). They use participatory evaluation, particularly the transformative approach (Cousins and Whitmore, 1998) as a method to assess the impact. The issue in their research typical to any other traditional research is lack of actual triangulation of different data where qualitative and quantitative data are presented independently, followed by a separate conclusion.

Similar to the above discussed Walker et al.’s (2017) work but using different methods to integrate the evidence, Babiak and Kihl (2018) carried out semi-structured interviews on 42 diverse stakeholders of a professional baseball team doing CSR, sponsored through its charitable foundation for teenage youths supported by city parks and recreation department of the government for programme delivery in United States. Using case study approach (Yin, 2009), they interviewed players, coaches and staff at the government department and sponsors on the perception of the CSR programme regarding involvement of sport teams in the community and norms as perceived by community and stakeholders. Their findings on stakeholders’ perceptions of the sports team in relation to their involvement in the CSR

project show community perceived benefits (suggested strategy) to the team – for example, applying competency of sporting to support youths in the community; a participant who reported social and skills development, friendship and opportunity and to the community who gained “much needed community facilities, coaching education, and sport development” (Babiak and Kihl, 2018, p137) as believed by stakeholders. Furthermore, they see stakeholder dialogue broadly as a learning opportunity, which also supports eventual realignment of corporate values. “How much value creation this type of relationship building provides to professional sport teams” (ibid. p142) is an area of suggested research. Likewise, they suggest building research on local/regional geographic, socio-political and economic context that create a unique tradition of relation among social actors; this is critical to understand the nature of stakeholder expectations.

Similarly, a study involving participants of CSR was conducted in Malaysia by Ismail et al. (2015) where the findings from the interview are not clear but show that the beneficiaries of CSR expected legal responsibility to be of highest importance in the national context. Similarly, other studies like Stirling et al. (2016), where capturing the voice of CSR recipients using a semi-structured interview process in South Africa, are poorly carried out or the recipients may not be the focus for them.

Hansen and Spitzack (2011) used case study method to research on Merck pharmaceuticals’ Thai subsidiary in a corporate-NGO partnership setting for community projects as part of the company’s CSR strategy. They report that whilst the NGO employed detailed and complex impact measurement framework to evaluate such projects – such as increase in household income as a result of the activity and increased resilience to livelihood shocks in the context of tsunami disaster. However, the perspective on impact was different between the company and NGO partner; the former was much simpler and the latter used complex measurement as reported by them in applying balanced scorecard.

A common feature in these research involving CSR participants or beneficiaries is where the CSR programme usually involves one or more for-profit organisations and at times including government organisations such as in Babiak and Kihl’s (2018) case of skill development through sports involving private business, non-profit foundation and government. Similarly in Walker et al.’s (2017) and Hansen and Spitzack’s (2011) cases, it is partnership between business and non-profit organisations. These cross-sector collaborations for executing CSR

programmes relate to multi-stakeholder process (Crane et al., 2014) in an approach as discussed earlier and showing hybridity in logic and governance (Quelin et al., 2017). This is discussed below.

Quelin et al. (2017) suggests that the possibility of hybridity of such ‘novel forms of public-private and cross sector collaboration’ in terms of logic (economic/social) and governance. In this approach, those who follow low hybridity in logics will have unitary belief such as profit-making social enterprise; whereas if the hybridity in logic was low yet with high level of hybridity in governance, it would be like ‘private management and public supervision’. Such organisation present public-private service contract type model. On the other hand high level of hybridity, both in logic and governance for example where there are multiple participants pursue social benefits and economic gains simultaneously as shown in upper right quadrant in the picture below. This category can have specific groups of communities as beneficiaries served through multi-stakeholder partnership and examples being outcome based contracts that create blended value. The issue of hybridity is found in Walker et al. (2017) where the process of CSR in project design, delivery and outcome attainment was not aligned as constituents in partnerships (bank and football club including the participants) had differing understanding to the project.

Hybridity in logics	High	<p>Social enterprise</p> <p><i>Unitary organizations pursuing social benefits along with economic/efficiency objectives</i></p>	<p>(Blended) socially oriented contract/partnership</p> <p><i>Public-private partnerships or cross-sector alliances with emphasis on social benefits combined with the pursuit of economic/efficiency gains</i></p>
	Low	<p>For-profit enterprise</p> <p><i>Unitary organizations focusing on economic benefits</i></p>	<p>Classic public-private contract/partnership</p> <p><i>Procurement-based public-private partnerships or cross-sector alliances focusing on economic/efficiency gains</i></p>
		Low	High
Hybridity in governance			

Fig. 2.2 Two dimensions of inter-organisational hybridity and their connection with social value creation. Quelin et al. (2017)

I continue with the example of research applying stakeholder theory. The logic or perspective of different stakeholders being diverse is captured in a survey method among tourists, local communities, entrepreneurs and local community organisations in Nepal regarding two tourism clusters of protected areas supported by government, non-profit and private sectors in Poudel et al.'s (2016) research. Their research gathers subjective perceptions of diverse stakeholders on the advantages and disadvantages of sustainable tourism (ecological, economic and social) in those tourism clusters and perceptions about these general issues, such as “[does] tourism increases the price of goods and services” (p470) rather than about their actual experience. In other words, their study measured a general phenomenon (tourism activity) than a particular

intervention (programme). The participants in their research essentially ticked to agree/disagree in varying stages (using Likert scale) on statements of effects of sustainable tourism; for example, the increase of price of goods/service rather than what they themselves experienced or gained from it. Their agenda was for a general sustainable tourism outcome in two tourism clusters in Nepal, thus did not necessarily involve participants to share their actual experience in response. They report of contradiction among residents commenting on various merit/demerit of sustainable tourism mainly negative ecological, negative social, positive economic and negative economic impact with the tourists, however their responses concurred in positive ecological and positive social impacts in Poudel et al.'s (2016) research. Their research, thus, suggests some trade offs amongst the dimensions/actors exists. As Bowie (2012) says that trade off is an area unclear in stakeholder theory furthered by Freeman and colleagues, it is reasonable to say that trade offs are, to some extent possible. These again reinforce the discussions made above on stakeholder theory.

A case study on the coffee cooperatives in Mexico by Davila and Molina (2017) reveals how salience of stakeholder group changes over time (see also Tashman and Raelin, 2015). The salience of stakeholders based on power, urgency and legitimacy, as developed by Mitchell et al., (1997) suggests some kind of control mechanism or strategy to manage stakeholders. It is not a surprise that most developments in stakeholder concepts have suffered from this 'managing' stakeholder myopia, both in academia and business practice; consequently dyadic organisation-stakeholder relationship from the perspective of focal organisation seems to be the norm of the day despite research suggesting about its harms. Davila and Molina's (2017) findings show that coffee producing communities in southern Mexico which date back to 1949 had six major stages leading up to early 21st century to 2017, starting from the Mexican government's initiatives and multilateral activities including rural banks, and later emergence of UCIRI (Union of Indigenous Communities of the Isthmus Region) as a farmers cooperative in 1982 and its connections to buyers and international NGOs in Europe and in more recent time with European retailers. According to Davila and Molina, this coffee farming cooperative (UCIRI) which once was invisible has now become a key market player, so much so, that they are able to provide added support to the farming community like healthcare, education, transport and financial services. The explanation of such change, according to the authors is twofold. Organisational relationships with stakeholders based on inequality (power), hierarchy and bureaucracy practices are less likely to satisfy stakeholder needs (owing government's failure in early stages). Conversely, relationships built on strong moral commitment to a

community development form long-term stakeholder relationships as they attain social integration, also partly owed to the role of intermediary persons (priest and social activist) connects the farmers to the market. They conclude that “there is the need to acknowledge a horizontal organization–stakeholder relationship of equals, in contrast to a hierarchical relationship of subordination” (p1217). Their research brings the key issue of identity and role of stakeholders.

Firstly, when stakeholders are organized and managed (using salience and hierarchy) by a focal organisation, it is not only managerial failure, as in the Mexican coffee cooperative case study, but also somehow denial of stakeholders’ participation and contribution in the value creation process. Likewise, horizontal stakeholder relationships suggested as a better approach in Davila and Molina’s (2017) case applies to the notion of democratically organized multi-stakeholder process (discussed earlier), which contrasts with the traditional approach of ‘managing’ stakeholders by a focal organisation. Conversely, when stakeholders are considered an integral part of value creation instead of managing them, it is satisfying and sustainable for all.

Secondly, the underlying factor is that multiple stakeholders came together to solve a common societal problem; farmers’ livelihood in Mexico and similar issues of lack of opportunities and social inclusion in Walker et al.’s (2017) and Babiak and Kihl’s (2018) research respectively. This approach of solving problems in society that are already there is termed as ‘problem first’ as opposed to a firm’s own economic and social aim. The social problems generate interest and thus the participation of multiple stakeholders to solve such problems instead of deliberate design of such collaborative arrangements as perceived in CSV by Porter and Kramer (2011). Finally, the particular case of research on UCIRI in Mexico shows how the position of the stakeholders can change over time.

A common thread found in the above discussions is that multiple stakeholders are involved in carrying out projects to benefit society. However, a key issue in such CSR projects is ‘whose perspectives count’ because in fact, most research thus far shows that practices in accounting and reporting represents the focal view of an organisation. The hybridity in logic and governance in novel forms of multi stakeholder collaborations (Quelin et al., 2017) discussed above brings the issue of ‘perspective’ to be real. In a similar vein, the research discussed above (eg. Walker et al., 2017; Babiak and Kihl, 2018; Hansen and Spitzeck, 2011) involves beneficiaries of CSR claiming their perspectives on benefits and other aspects. In such claims,

Walker et al.'s (2017) focus is in success of the programme for participants; however, with Babiak and Kihl (2018), the success is viewed through the lens of benefits to encompass a range of stakeholders such as the sports team, community and participants. In such research, case study and qualitative methods such as in Babiak and Kihl (2018), Hansen and Spitzeck (2011), Davila and Molina (2017) and Stirling et al. (2016) seem to be widely used whilst others have used quantitative (such as Poudel et al., 2016) and mixed methods (such as Walker et al., 2017). Furthermore, this research is mostly evaluative in nature and involves multiple stakeholders connected to phenomenon in research and who employ stakeholder theory. Other research which has similar evaluative nature, such as van Schie's (2010) doctoral thesis, investigates co-valuation of spatial water in the Netherlands by multiple stakeholders using the case study method.

Research Applying Stakeholder Theory: A Critical Discussion

Research discussed above such as Walker et al. (2017) and Babiak and Kihl (2018) use data of more than one kind. The primary approach applied by this research is programme evaluation. CSR projects related to employability and opportunities for youths such as in Walker et al. (2017), employed questionnaire and semi-structured interviews (individual and focus groups). Babiak and Kihl (2018) used semi-structured interviews with diverse stakeholders involved in the programme using case study design (Yin, 2009). Mexican coffee cooperative research by Davila and Molina (2017) uses case study strategy using various archival, secondary and other diverse data allowing for a longitudinal analysis. Similarly, Poudel et al. (2016) use multiple stakeholders in their questionnaire from a large sample of diverse stakeholders.

In all of these studies, one of the most common approaches is first, to gather data from more than one source (data source, type) representing diverse perspectives of various stakeholders and attempts to combine these, thus, to "piece together a picture of the impact" (Gambin and Hogarth, 2015 p13). Secondly, they have involved stakeholders of the programmes researched (see also Cousins and Whitmore, 1998 on participatory evaluations). Finally, these research are generally evaluative in nature (except Davila and Molina, 2017). Likewise, they've reported on benefits to beneficiaries (Walker et al., 2017) as well as in other cases like Babiak and Kihl (2018) for other stakeholders also. The value is viewed as experienced or perceived benefit or

loss (Babiak and Kihl, 2018 on experience; cf. Poudel et al., 2016 on perception) or a mix of these. Other related strands regarding benefits or success of a programme is also whether the stakeholders involved in the research are talking about their perception, such as in Poudel et al. (2016), or their actual experience, which is expanded upon in Babiak and Kihl's (2018) examining expectations, perceptions and benefits to various stakeholders.

The benefit or outcome of activity is recurrent and critical to the debate of value creation in this thesis. Walker et al. (2017) focus on programme outcomes on participating youths as the primary beneficiary, whereas Babiak and Kihl (2018) see success in benefits to a range of stakeholders including primary beneficiary as discussed in the last section.

The other aspect on benefit is the level of changes: macro (policy, system), meso (social network) and micro (psychological) changes on participants, stakeholders or context (Burnett and Uys, 2000; Maas, 2009). Research which looked into beneficiary benefits fall into the micro category to suggest what changed in them, such as skills and confidence (eg. Walker et al., 2017) whereas Babiak and Kihl (2018) show comprehensiveness on benefits beyond the beneficiary which might fall into meso category showing the potential to influence multiple stakeholders. As opposed to such systemic approach in impact, both practice and research limit benefits to the aims and objectives of a programme.

Methodologically, other aspects of measuring impact or value of an activity on stakeholders (beneficiaries and other participants broadly) is the comparative measure/unit. This was not applied in Babiak and Kihl (2018) who used case study methods whereas Walker et al. (2017) carried out pre and post intervention evaluation using the mixed methods approach. Such comparison methods helps to establish what would have happened to the beneficiaries without the programme intervention (Clark et al., 2004). In this way, it is evident from the discussions above that different approaches have been adopted by researchers in their pursuit to find the value of an activity from being focussed, blended or being broader.

Usually, changes before and after intervention (eg. Walker et al., 2017) employing theory of change and investigation against aims and objectives and single stakeholder (beneficiary) in a process oriented fashion (Walker et al., 2017) and partly comprehensive (benefits to multi stakeholders) show varying approach in capturing value. Yet others who used case study are broad in assessing value creation for multiple stakeholders (eg. Babiak and Kihl, 2018). This

shows emphasis on where the researchers are looking for value such as programme process, outcome or beneficiary and at micro, meso or macro level of changes (Maas, 2009).

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has brought together moral and ethical practices and theory of business within a context of society. Businesses have relationships with multiple stakeholders and wider society mainly through connected societal issues and actions in the form of CSR programme. A critical ongoing debate specific to CSR is whether it should be considered instrumental to gain more wealth for shareholders or whether such relationship and activities at the intersection of business and society should also create benefits that can be shared widely in the society as well as how this should be undertaken.

In such a broad environment, businesses build their purpose, process and outcomes that are results of ethical, economic and social context and exchanges therein. Public sector similarly has co-mingled purposes and involvement of multiple stakeholders and especially outcomes or value that can be consumed by all. However, organisations in the private sector or those which are hybrid, or manifest as collaborative arrangements (such as MSI) can also produce value which is available to all. The contrast is found in how value is viewed and measured, as this chapter argues that they are currently organisation-centric and limited to predefined purpose, aims and objectives of an organisation.

The specific debate in this research is how activities at the intersection of business and society such as CSR, produce value for society or specifically beneficiaries among other stakeholders including the firm. The concept of human flourishing and collective pursuit of ultimate good in non-utilitarian teleology, and the voice of those who involve in social and organisational life (called stakeholders) in pragmatism – supports this research toward investigating processes and outcomes of business activity for multiple stakeholders and that which is defined according to the perspectives of multiple stakeholders.

In the next chapter, I continue the discussion of value, and specifically how those who are involved in such value creating joint enterprise, measure value.

CHAPTER THREE : LITERATURE REVIEW

Impact frameworks, measurement principles and issues

INTRODUCTION

In the last chapter, I established moral theories and their connections to businesses' response to social needs as well as how such responses in the form of CSR programmes work. This was achieved by reviewing relevant research.

It is widely held view that businesses have an impact on society, environment and economy, both positive and negative (see Elkington, 1998; Freeman, 2017). So, how such impacts are accounted determines the evidence of harm or benefit businesses produce from their activities. This chapter critically evaluates a range of frameworks, theories and approaches used in measuring impacts. At the end of the chapter, I draw summaries from last and this chapter to integrate key issues discussed in the literature review.

3.1 HISTORY, TERMINOLOGIES AND DEFINITIONS OF IMPACT

Environmental impact assessment was introduced in 1950s and followed by social impact assessment in 1960s; this matured into strategic environmental assessment in 1990s and sustainability assessment in 2000s and, most recently, (2010s) sophisticated and technocratic frameworks are widely used in impact measurement (Dierkes and Antal, 1986; Reeder and Colantonio, 2013).

The word 'impact' has been widely used in academia, the business world and elsewhere with varying meaning, therefore it is important to define what the word 'impact' is in relation to this research at the outset. Maas (2009) states that similar words such as 'impact', 'output', 'effect', 'outcome' and 'social return' are used by social scientists and entrepreneurs in different ways.

A similar but more integrated strand on this is ‘social value’ which is interchangeably used (Sinkovics et al., 2014). The wider reference of terminologies beyond social programmes are ‘value’ which means value created as a result of business enterprise or ‘capitals’ such as used in integrated reporting for investor audience; this will be discussed in a later section. Here, impact (benefit or harm) and other associated terminologies would still present various contextual meaning but the focus in this thesis remains on social impact as opposed to other impacts such as environmental and economic.

In this research, in saying impact, it means “the portion of the total outcome that happened as a result of the activity of the venture, above and beyond what would have happened anyway” (Clark et al., 2004 p7). Impact also may denote the putative impact of the company performance whether at the organisation or programme level, and whether alone or in partnership with other businesses, government or civil society and as viewed by key actors other than businesses (see EU IMPACT research 2012). Whilst the outputs and outcomes are influenced by business or service/product provider (also called performance in EU IMPACT, 2012; cf. Wood, 1991 on CSP), the impact is associated with the user or recipient (Kolodinsky et al., 2006), thus existing independently; this forms the key issue of investigation for this research. The other connected issue is for whom and by whom is social impact measurement carried out, how it is measured, whether it involves stakeholder participation (see Reeder and Colantonio, 2013) and what is measured – outcome or impact (Maas, 2009). As discussed earlier on CSR, the measurement of impact is mostly on business benefit rather than impact of business on society as the very name ‘Corporate Social Responsibility’ suggests. In addition to this, what is measured has further questions as impact frameworks have different scope depending on, at what level they are used; for example, economy (EU IMPACT research project), society and business (for example reputation ranking, CSV, performance measurement framework by Ferguson, 2009); this is discussed in various parts of this chapter. Maas (2009) refers to such aspect of scope in terms of unit (macro, meso, micro) as ‘perspective’ in impact measurement. Within the following sections, I discuss further methodologies and measurement of social programmes.

3.2 CSR, VALUE MEASUREMENT AND THEORY OF CHANGE

The business benefit of CSR as discussed earlier is a predominant theme in which many scholars and practitioners have created frameworks to establish that doing good for society pays off (see for example McWilliams and Siegel, 2010 for a critical review; see also Margolis and Walsh, 2001; Carroll and Shabana, 2010). This is being highly criticised and often not working (see Rangan et al., 2015 and the debate on CSV in the last chapter) and the social misery remains overlooked (Margolis and Walsh, 2003).

The inclination towards economic incentive of CSR has withheld both debates (see Brooks, 2010) and perspectives (Carroll and Shabana, 2010) towards responsible business that creates value for several stakeholders beyond the firm (Freeman, 2017; IIRC, 2013). Consequently, CSR measurement can be holistic by bringing together stakeholder voices beyond that of the shareholders.

Charity and the international development sector has made substantial progress in measuring social impact as compared to the business sector. For example, New Philanthropy Capital (NPC), a charity advising on philanthropy, suggests a four pillar approach and similarly many organisations use theory of change to link the inputs to ultimate impact (NPC, 2014). However, the key issue faced by this and many other approaches is the ‘causation’ – what creates what – where multiple actors can be contributing to the change and also macroeconomic situations beyond the control of a programme, intangible effects such as emotional influence, or a presence of a champion in the community (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013). On the other hand, benefits for targeted community are not the only effect coming from the CSR programme but beyond this there can be benefits to business itself; environment, society at large, economy as presented in the EU IMPACT project on CSR, IR value creation framework, and as outlined in Maas’ (2009) categorization of social impact framework. Here, caution is needed in understanding benefit as it means both positive and negative because not all programmes can produce positive results despite positive intentions (NPC, 2014).

I will review various impact frameworks in detail below. One of the common features within these frameworks is the use of Theory of Change (ToC) to understand and measure change or impact of an activity. Theory of change is a process of setting up long term goals and then mapping backward to identify changes that need to happen in order to achieve the goals (Taplin

et al., 2013). The required changes are identified, giving causal pathways to outcomes having logical relationships (ibid.); this is often referred to as input-process-outcome method. ToC's causal pathway framework is widely used as the indicator for success, and to carry out monitoring and evaluation (ibid). Many corporate philanthropic foundations or CSR programmes rely on charity partnerships demanding impact of their funds where the theory of change has been applied, thus creating a logic from investment to outcome in the community. However, the present day social problems are complex and do not always offer such an easy approach in identifying intervention and allocating investments hoping for an outcome that is causally linked (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013). Even the proponents of the theory of change acknowledge that social change is inevitably complex and dynamic (Brest, 2010); therefore, there is limitation in its application for impact measurement despite being widely used (Weiss, 1995).

3.3 REVIEW OF IMPACT FRAMEWORKS

This section reviews frameworks relevant to the research area on measuring impact using literature from CSR, social programme, multilateral organisations and reporting.

EABIS CSR Measurement by Ferguson

The below framework for CSR measurement built by Ferguson (2009) for the ABIS (formerly EABIS) shows narrow benefits to shareholders representing the business benefit strand of CSR.

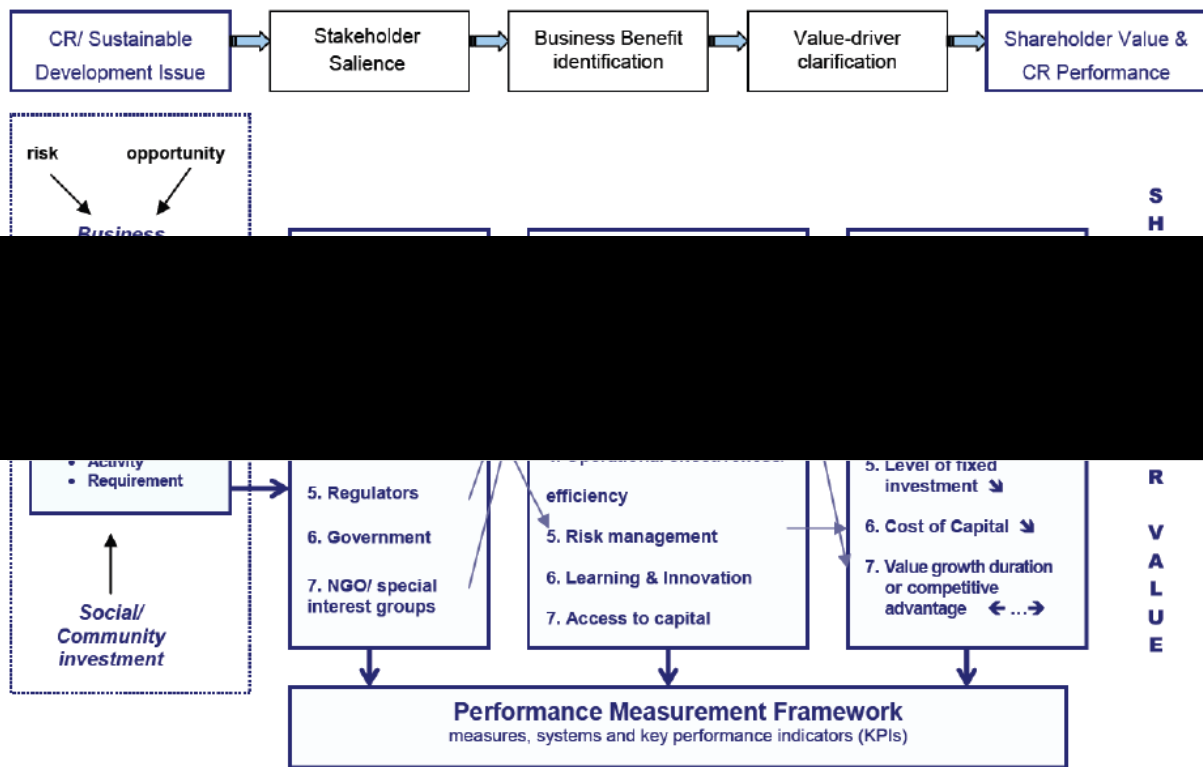


Fig. 3.1 CR Value-Chain Process. Ferguson (2009)

The value chain process framework above by Ferguson (2009) fails to clearly identify community as a stakeholder, unlike many other business outcome driven frameworks. However, it does not provide correlation of how business benefits actually arise from various stakeholders as listed in the framework. It would be misleading to suggest that the consequences of these activities ultimately leads to shareholder value, as many, among the value drivers, can have negative results and yet others neutral or positive as discussed in a previous section (see EU IMPACT, 2014b). Carroll and Shabana’s (2010) article offers help to disentangle the consolidation of causation elements presented in this framework, where activities related to cost and risk, legitimacy and reputation, competitive advantage and synergistic value creation defines the firm behaviour towards CSR and related outcome, and suggests a contingency perspective arising from stakeholders (Barnett, 2007); therefore a question arises on business benefit correlation. The fundamental challenge here, which seems to be ignored, is the very success of CSR in bringing social and environmental outcome that then can possibly lead to other business benefits such as reputation. The other key issue in this and many other similar frameworks is the concept of stakeholder salience being defined from the company’s perspective. Some stakeholders, like community, are considered to be passive recipients and given less importance; however, they can be detrimental and influence the very

license to operate and affect the ability of the firm to gain support and create value over time (see IIRC, 2013).

It is not surprising to see this framework highlighting business benefits of CSR given that the research was supported by various multinational companies and it could have been desirable to give evidence of what benefits their CSR initiatives bring to the firm.

EU IMPACT Project

Some of the research projects that have come close to identifying the differences in company assumed impact and actual impact are EU's impact measurement and performance analysis of CSR called IMPACT; several universities and organisations from Europe came together to carry this out. The actual impact written as CSR impact on the right in the figure below is placed as an external factor, as opposed to outcome experienced within the company or within businesses' internal environment.

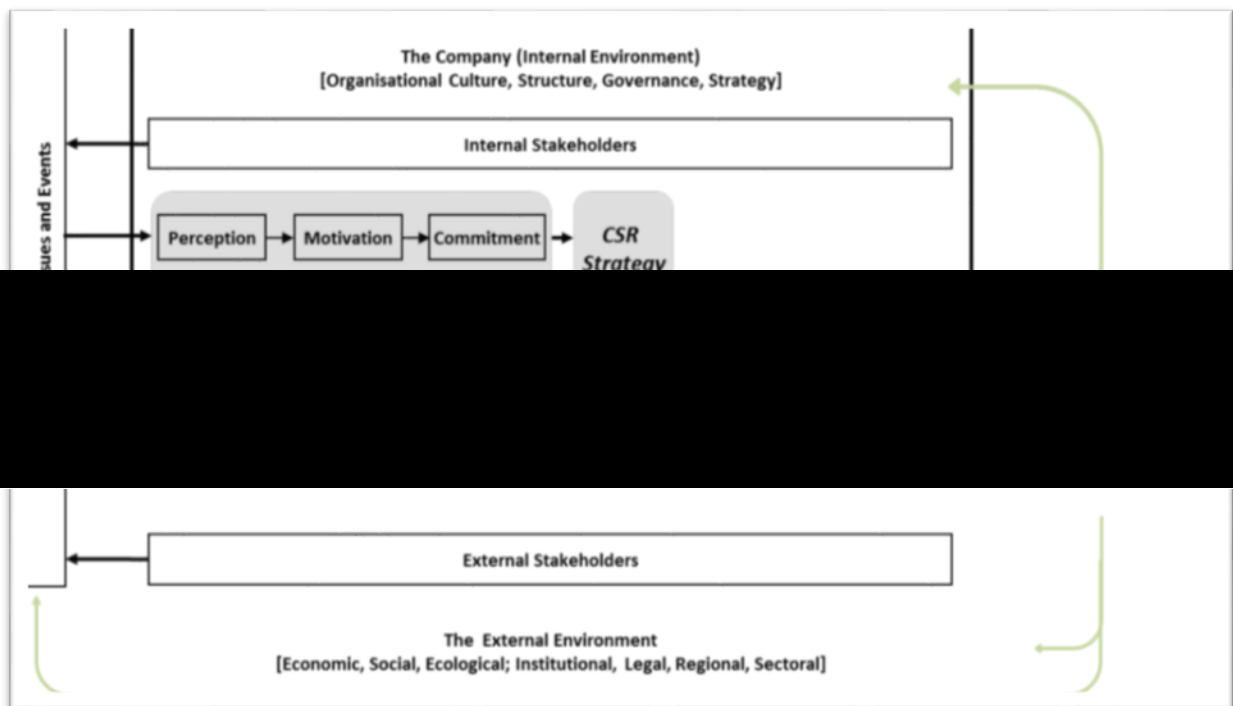


Fig. 3.2 CSR Cycle. EU IMPACT (2012)

The end of the EU IMPACT project summary produced in 2014 provides Corporate Impact Assessment and Management (CIAM) framework for helping practitioners assess and manage corporate impact as presented below.

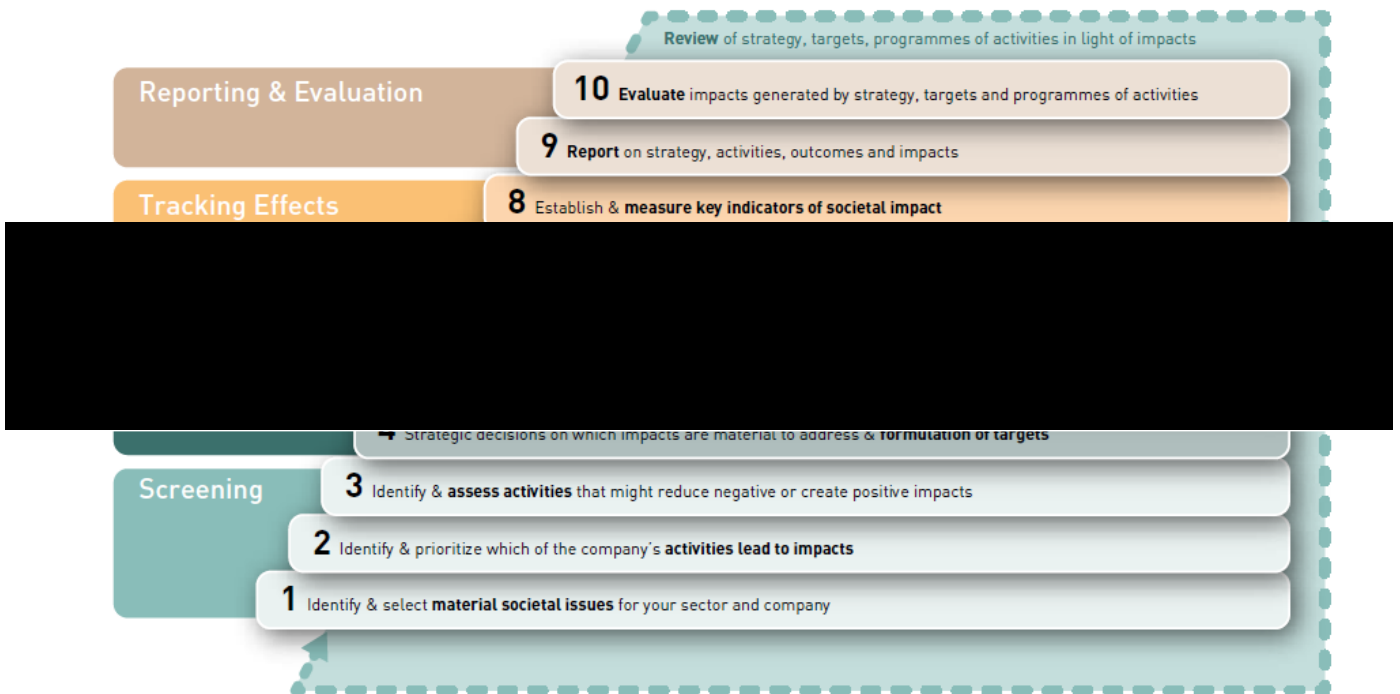


Fig. 3.3 Corporate Impact Assessment and Management. EU IMPACT (2014)

The framework serves as a practical tool for managers to plan, implement and measure the outcomes of CSR. Within the measurement or ‘tracking effects’ domain, it asks to measure company performance and societal impact in relation to the CSR programme. On the one hand, this approach serves the need to understand the effect of impact across society, business and other stakeholders but on the other hand, it suffers from company oriented perspective on impact creation and value similar to other frameworks, including that of Ferguson (2009) discussed above.

In building pathways of impact, the EU IMPACT research acknowledges the context of multi-stakeholder engagement, the need for collaboration to influence impact and the matter of dependency on a company’s ability to manage the pathway towards ultimate impact where some social/environmental issues maybe interlinked or complex. Likewise, the IMPACT

research furthers the idea of strategic CSR by suggesting issues to be identified associated with sector and business, and creating an action towards it. On the other hand, their approach puts societal issues first (yet related to industry sector) as opposed to the notion of core business and related CSR activities which then are expected to be instrumental in corporate benefit eg. strategic CSR. This discussion critically questions what is important – the issue (social problem) itself or the company’s perspective on the issue, or even the outcomes, as discussed earlier.

BCG Framework

The global consulting firm Boston Consulting Group (BCG) has developed an input-output-impact-value creation framework, which is primarily prescriptive, with a focus on quantification of results, in their attempt to advise clients to become involve in the projects that create greatest impact globally.

Examples of a malnutrition programme and some discrete information on education as below.

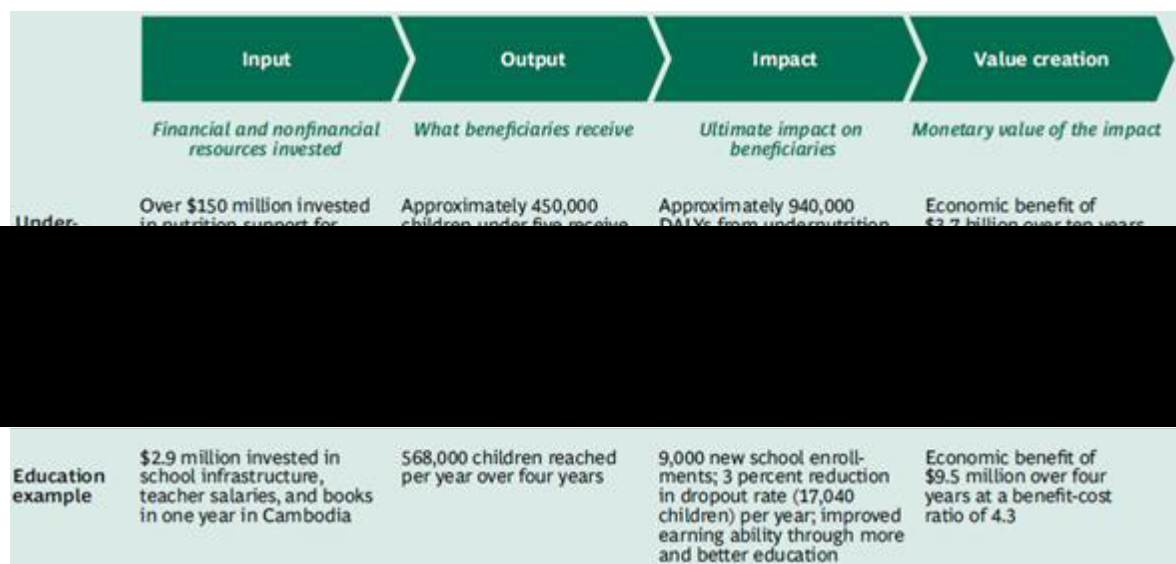


Fig. 3.4 Four Aspects to Quantifying Social Impact. BCG (2009)

The primary metric used for social impact in the BCG framework is DALY (disability adjusted life year); this has been widely used in the non-profit sector but has not been applied in business context. Also beyond that, many other areas of social interventions other than healthcare are not explored. Thus, a lack of a comprehensive framework to measure the impact of different kinds of CSR activities in the community is a key challenge.

There are strong academic debates within the CSR impact area but most are borrowed from the non-profit sector. Ebrahim and Rangan (2010) from Harvard's non-profit institute have drawn from non-profit or development sector. This seems much more useful in enabling development within the business sector, who acknowledge that there is ambiguity surrounding social impact metrics, but nonetheless they have advanced to create the contingency framework for measuring social results, drawing mainly from the non-profit sector. A similar work by Blowfield (2007) in an international development context, shows how non-profit sector has progressed much farther than business community in CSR and impact issues. He states:

“It makes clear that we know most about CSR's impact on business itself and the benefits for business, and least about how CSR affects the major societal issues it was intended to tackle.” (p683)

If the work in international development and non-profit sectors are beneficial in measuring impact, then there is a need to come out of corporate world where the lexicons have dressed up the corporate affairs in the society than actual impact.

Social Return on Investment (SROI)

There are many comprehensive ways of measuring social impact, such as Social Return on Investment (SROI). The SROI framework is a principle based prescriptive model as well as serving as a practical management tool which was developed in association with UK Cabinet Office in 2009. The SROI has applied theory of change and the government treasury's financial value or proxy for non-financial accounting to track and measure the social outcomes of various projects. The development and use of SROI for accounting social impact of non-profit and

public sector projects is growing, however, its application within corporate context as a metric for measuring CSR is scant.

Taliaferro (2012) used the SROI tools to measure the impact of a water project supported by Suzlon wind energy company in India. However, he acknowledges the challenges of this process as being time consuming, costly and resource intensive; there is difficulty in monetization of social value creation and methodological inconsistencies which is similar to the experience of others, such as Robertson (2012) when using SROI in Canada and Kratky and Tetreva (2012) in Czech Republic.

The main challenges linking SROI with corporate activities such as CSR has fundamental challenges, which are: purpose (are businesses willing and able to assess impact beyond its business and capabilities); application (how to quantify intangible impacts like self-esteem and social network/support) and generally lack of clear theoretical positioning. In this way, SROI remains one of the most critical areas of research today (Elkington and Hartigan, 2008).

NPC's Four Pillar Framework

The New Philanthropy Capital (NPC)'s approach to impact measurement, designed for the non-profit sector, uses theory of change as its foundation. It uses a selective approach to measuring outcomes that are important and relevant to a firm or programme developed in their theory of change; it says "what you measure is related to your strategy" (NPC, 2014 p11). However, it also suggests including negative and unintended consequences of the project which helps with learning. The NPC framework serves as a model that can be customized for a particular organisation or project, thus offering flexibility. The causal link to outcome is key to this approach using impact data (using statistical, experimental, case and theory based or triangulation) from various stakeholders by considering baseline or pre-intervention position. The tracking and defining of an ultimate impact on a recipients is a strength of this framework. It recommends using existing technical metrics for measuring impact; for example, psychological distress.

Though the NPC framework has more impact orientation than many other approaches, it focuses too much on demonstrating impact that is relevant to funders, charity or programme. The Flexible approach taken by NPC framework poses risk of being slippery, whilst also evaluation of the programme or impact needs systemic approach beyond the desired outcomes and what is sought after.

Most Significant Change (MSC)

Whilst undertaking his PhD in 1996, Rick Davies developed a monitoring and evaluation technique called the Most Significant Change (MSC) technique. The MSC applies qualitative method in generating dialogue based significant change stories from recipients and stakeholders involved in the programme. The selection of significant stories is decided using hierarchical order of an organisation or programme using continuous dialogue, ordering and methods applied for it and feedback system as shown in the below picture, thereby to learn, adjust and progress towards more valued direction resulting in improvement of the programme

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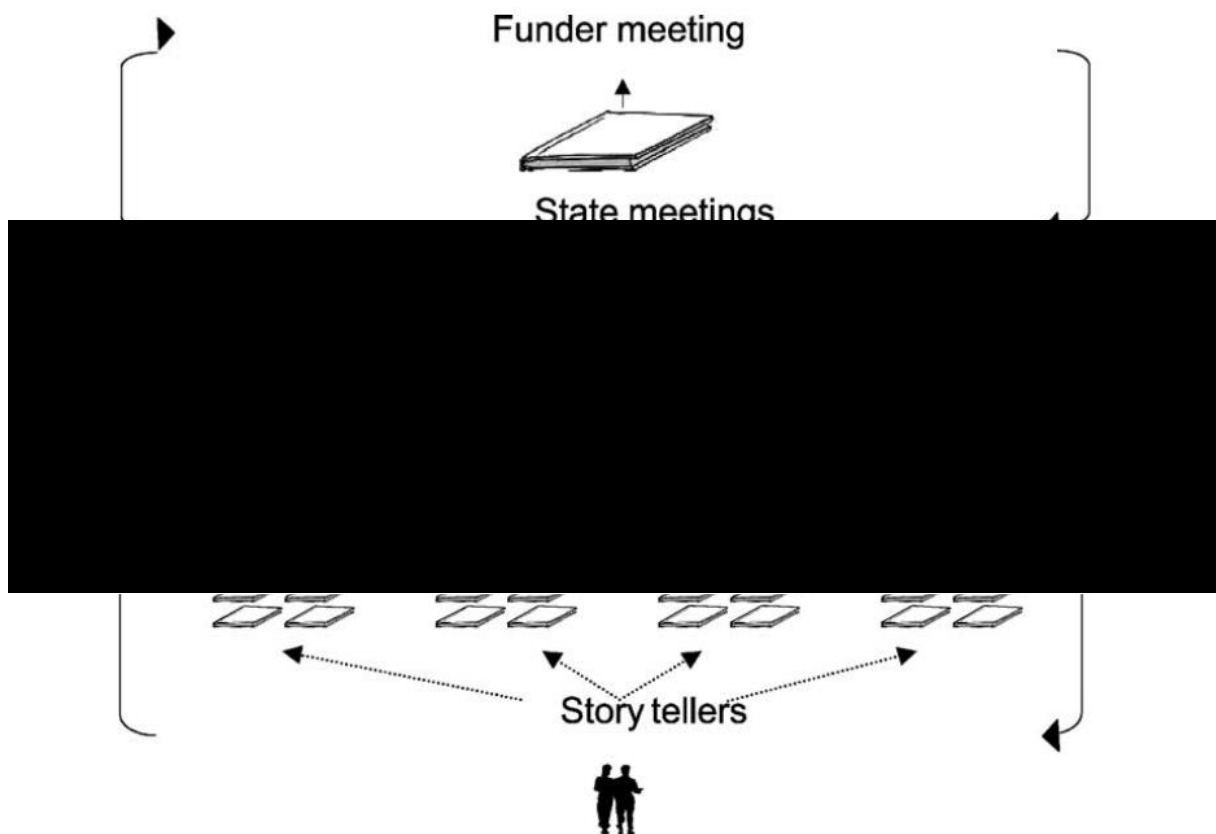


Fig. 3.5 Flow of stories and feedback in MSC. Dart and Davies (2003)

It is widely used for evaluation of international development programmes used across the globe and the technique translated in several languages (Dart and Davies, 2003). The evaluation system helps the learning process not only through story collection and selection but also through embedded feedback system in selecting and also ultimately monitoring the monitoring system itself (Davies and Dart, 2005). They suggest that MSC applies more in a complex system where outcomes can be emergent and they mandate participatory process (having diverse stakeholders and values) with focus on social change; this helps them to capture the effect of the intervention on people’s lives in their terms, assumptions and attitude. The change stories can be from individual, community or sometimes systemic changes, and it defines the focus and scope of impact measurement as discussed earlier using Maas’ (2009) work. Willetts and Crawford (2007) applied MSC to monitor a development intervention in Laos and found that whilst there were many benefits attributed to the use of this technique, “the apparent simplicity of the technique hides a deeper complexity” (p378). The technique – in not using

the pre-defined indicators – instead values emerging outcomes, bringing a richer and fuller picture of impact on a community and individuals despite complexities that comes with it.

Social Impact Measurement in Impact Investing

From the traditional screening of environmental and social implications of projects and businesses, a more specific approach to investing has emerged over the past two decades aimed at creating environmental and social impact alongside the financial return (Saltuk et al., 2013 in Reeder and Colantonio, 2013). There has been a growing interest in this model of business but focus is on increasing size of sector showing the power of finance in reaching the poor but with little evidence of what impact it brings in their lives (see OECD, 2015). It echoes the argument made earlier about the microfinance sector, which are often the investees of such impact investment being unable to create social impact despite their mission of intending to do so. Thus, the financial success can be at the detriment of social change that such finances are supposed to bring but a recent study in England suggests that social enterprises are poor in financial efficiency (see British Council's comprehensive report 2015 on this).

The ambiguity in defining impact investing – and more so, on the social impact creation and measurement despite huge interest for research from large organisations like OECD, European Investment Bank, universities, governments and various industry alliances – emphasizes the importance given in this area. Thereby, it also shows the scope for furthering the work in impact investment apart from charity and business sector as reviewed earlier. I will therefore discuss and build upon the contribution of this discipline of social impact measurement. The impact measurement of investing differs slightly to that of the CSR activities; the impact investment is associated more with “financial investment practice and the measurement of non-financial returns” (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013 p6) whereas the CSR is a voluntary contribution to society beyond what is required by law (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001). Research shows that many impact assessments are made prior to the investment to estimate future consequences of proposed actions, and the impact measurement and reporting generally being the part of social enterprise, microfinance or a non-profit who receives the fund or investment (OECD, 2015; IAIA, 2009). Consequently, the ultimate recipients (community) who bear the social and

environmental impact “may or may not have a connection to the ‘impact investor’” (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013 p13); it will also depend on investors’ intent and goals desirable for them.

Similar to social impact accrued from CSR or business activities, the impact investing should consider the net effect or change resulting from the investment. Such impact/result can be both positive and negative on environment and society, but the current practice does not accommodate such negative impact generally or the negative non-financial return in the impact investment paradigm. A very recent OECD report that investigates broader social impact investment issues in G7 countries and Australia, acknowledges that “developing effective, robust and repeatable measurement of social outcomes is easier said than done” (OECD, 2015 p115). In the absence of impact measurement framework, investors rely on anecdotal evidence rather than real evidence (O’Donohoe et al., 2010).

Similar to various input-process-outcome impact frameworks originally developed in 1970s by Weiss and Wholey, the G8 framework used in OCED report as presented below recommends using ‘primary’ social impact which stems from set prior goals and also broader ‘secondary’ social outcomes (spill over and externalities). In the OECD report conclusions, they state that starting with social needs and beneficiaries is first and not the financial instrument; thus the goals become more meaningful and impacts intended on such beneficiaries.

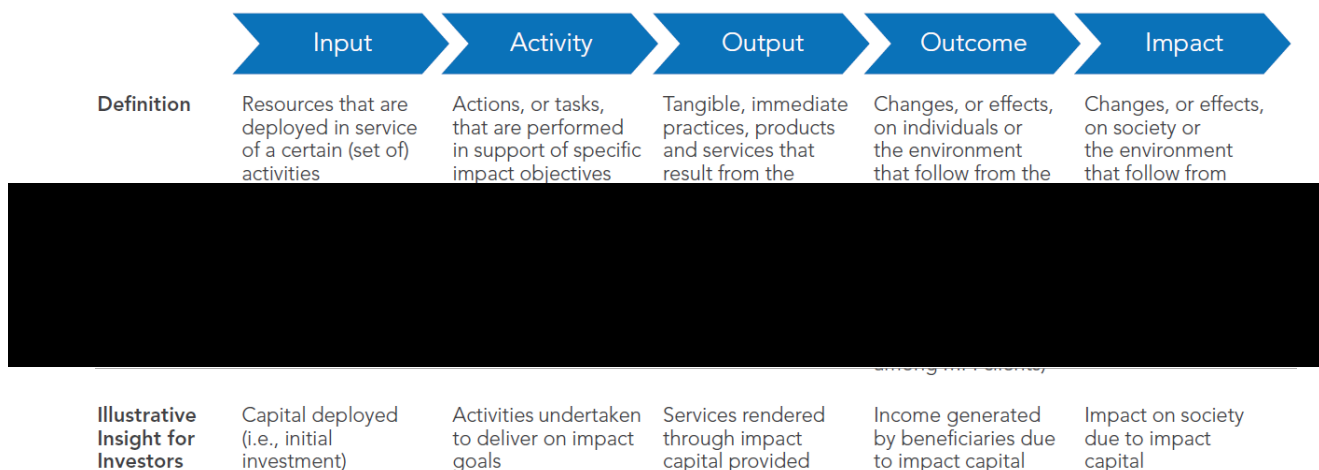


Fig. 3.6 Impact Value Chain. G8 Social Impact Investment Taskforce (2014)

The Perry preschool intervention in the US, a project carried out in 1960s, is widely celebrated evidence showing positive impacts decades later (Schweinhart et al., 2005). Similarly, the Peterborough programme from UK Ministry of Justice for prisoners gives numeric evidence on the reduced rate of re-conviction related to government social programmes. Such scant evidence used in reports like that of OECD posits the challenges of timeline, size and substance of impact creation and measurement, among many other untouched issues. The OECD conclusion says that there is a lot of showcasing but little on true costs, efficiencies and outcomes in social investment, thus highlighting the need for wider collaborations in impact investment market and focussed studies within various themes and countries. The measurement of socio-economic impact of business in the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD)'s framework similarly adopts input-process-outcome approach with metrics attached to performance (WBCSD, 2013).

Reporting and Value Measurement

The public disclosure of accounting and other information through reporting in mainly publicly traded and other firms usually use national or international standards such as GAAP, IFRS is a common business practice. Others such as Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) and Integrated Reporting (IR) have expanded accounting practices into social, environmental areas beyond the usual financial disclosure. The integrated reporting framework, which is newest among these, has been rapidly adopted as well as collaborating on other practices such as GRI. I review these as below.

The International Integrated Reporting Council (IIRC) developed the integrated reporting framework in 2013. It is a holistic method of reporting and shows dynamics of a firm's ability to create value and subsequently reuse them as shown in the diagram below.

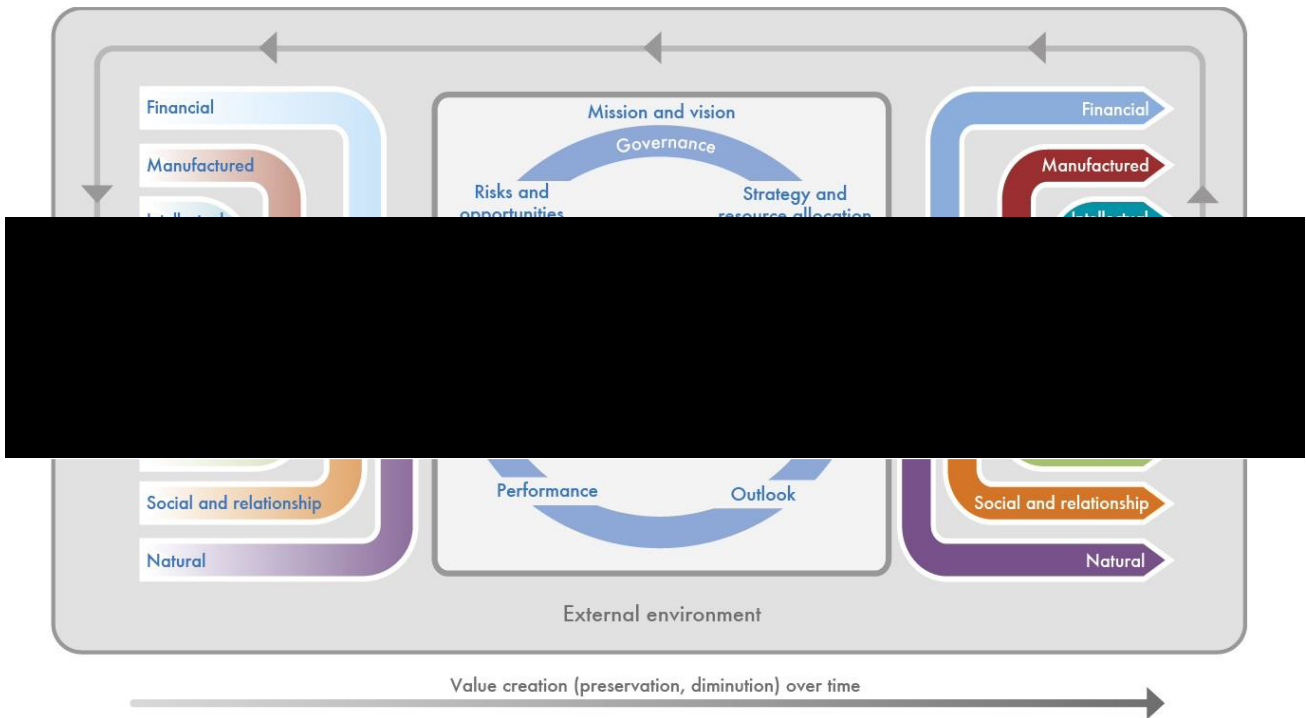


Fig. 3.7 Value Creation Process. IIRC (2013)

This framework helps to understand how future inputs are tied to current actions demanding sustainable and responsible practices as opposed to short term financial outcomes – the latter pursued by many. Integrated reporting, on the other hand, promotes strategic and integrated thinking and long term value creation. It provides a process where inputs which are being used in operations in turn produce outputs which are identical to inputs but either in greater or diminishing value processed through a business model. Similarly, the WBCSD finalized its social protocol in 2017 with the main focus being human and societal capital, suggesting that business has social impact and also dependency thereof (WBCSD, 2017).

IIRC (2013) states that the primary purpose of an integrated report is to explain how an organisation creates value over time and it is important for all stakeholders, also showing interdependencies in capitals and trade offs adding to some complexity. The IIRC (2013) report shows the necessity for the organisation to create value for itself and for others (such as stakeholders and society at large) connected through activities, relationship and interaction as shown below.

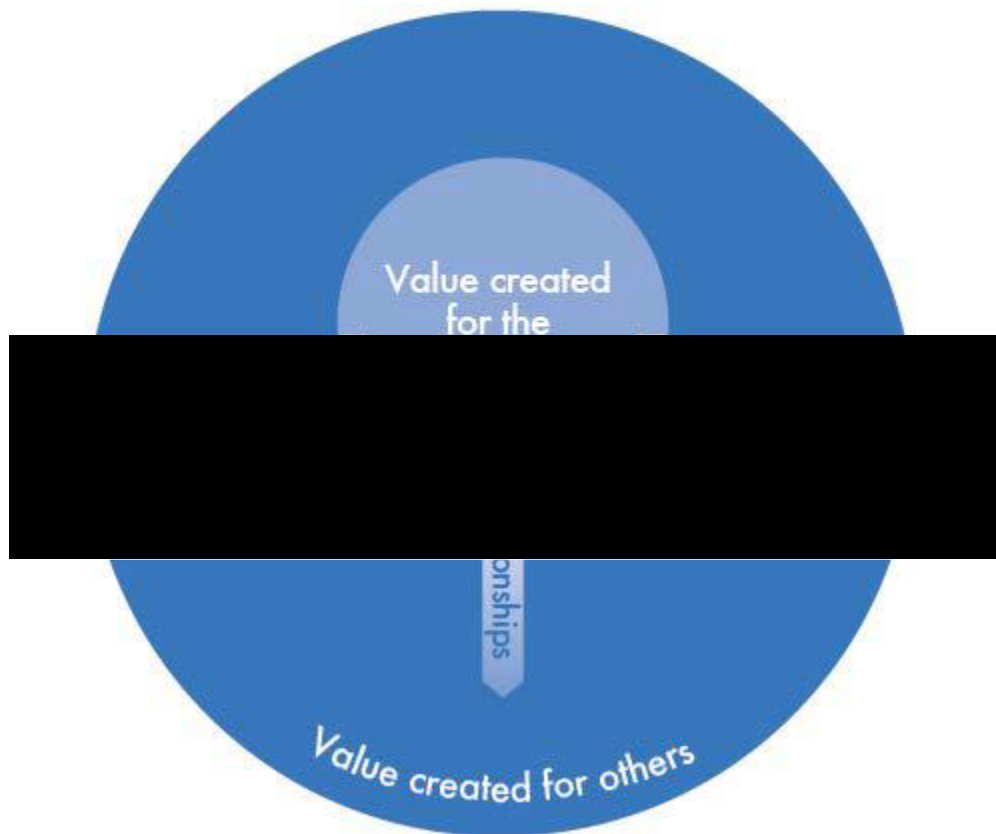


Fig. 3.8 Value created for the organisation and for others. IIRC (2013)

Beyond value creation process, the IR framework looks into the external environment under which business operates, as well as mission and vision of the firm and its governance; this supports value creation and how it carries out strategic intent and resource allocation thereof. Furthermore, the framework looks into how a firm manages risks and opportunities and performance in the context of outlook, challenges and their mitigation. The IR framework is designed to help providers of financial capital through improved quality of diverse information.

One of the major and universally used frameworks for CSR reporting is the GRI, which is based on the principle of multi-stakeholder engagement in sustainability reporting in order to make it widely acceptable. Within the context of community side of CSR, it has laid out procedures related to assessing the risks and managing impacts on local communities. However, GRI's own research on reporting practices in community impact by surveying seventy-two sustainability reports of businesses across different industry informs that less than

70% of companies have a dedicated section for community aspects of CSR (GRI, 2008) which is one of the many issues in the guidelines. Often the examples of such reporting shows inputs such as financial donation or population reached instead of impact; this will be discussed later in this chapter. Likewise, both the GRI and IR reporting system require stakeholder involvement, however these are at a basic level to show how company manages relationship with stakeholders.

Whilst the collaboration between various reporting standards continues, there is also diverse development on its regulatory regime such as the recent work of Sustainability Accounting Standards Board in the US as well as ISO standards on social responsibility and professional bodies such as Institute of Corporate Responsibility and Sustainability in the UK. Many of these developments including IR and WBCSD discussed above are partly connected to the UN sustainable development goals adopted in 2015, which has accelerated developments of organisations and framework for managing and measuring social and environmental sustainability goals.

3.4 COMMON THEMES AND ISSUES IN IMPACT MEASUREMENT

Having reviewed various impact and reporting frameworks and theories above, I now discuss the common themes and issues arising from them and provide explanations as well as offering alternative approaches.

Independence of Value and Perspective

One of the fundamental and biggest issues in community development remains; who defines the value or impact of activity or outcome as discussed in the last chapter. Many frameworks attempting to make a business case of CSR present in such a way that value creation is exclusively for business and depends on their aims and what they claim to be an impact or change that has happened as a result. This applies to impact investment area, Ferguson and the EU IMPACT frameworks, as discussed earlier. Here, impact or the success of an activity is

defined by business mainly for business itself and on societal impacts, based on their assumption or metrics such as investments made and how many people were reached by the project/activity (this is referred as output in the BCG framework). In doing this, the businesses miss how to identify and report how the CSR programmes change lives of people as recipients of the programme. Therefore, many CSR approaches and reports speak of value and success which is in essence defined by company as their own achievement rather than the real value or change these activities create on the ground (Skjærseth and Wettestad, 2009; London, 2009). Therefore, limiting the advantages or disadvantages of CSR to business alone misses many other important elements such as blended value as all organisations, whether for profit or non-profit, create value in economic, social and environmental sphere which is non-divisible (Emerson, 2003). These value areas are expanded in integrated reporting as discussed above. If the value creation process is perceived to be confined within the business sphere, it will not be able to account varieties of value that impact economy, environment and society. However, very often, community are considered weaker stakeholder in their degree of salience as discussed earlier (Mitchell et al., 1997) and also an issue identified in Ferguson's framework; therefore, their experience and views are often ignored by companies reporting impact. An example to illustrate this issue would be the Peterborough prisoner social intervention and reduction on reoffending, where the outcome description is confined to government's intention of lessening reoffending and not necessarily what changes happened in the prisoners and others, whether positive or negative. In this way, it can be argued that value creation and impact must be understood independently (ie. not biased toward a stakeholder) or in other words encompassing the voice of all stakeholders, specifically recipients, rather than the perspectives of just the company or investors.

Problem First versus Organisational Aim

The other issue associated with independent thinking on value creation and measurement is whether a company sees a social problem first or that the social actions stem from a company's existing perspective, issues and strategy. Almost all frameworks above have suggested creating goals for social intervention, therefore the success can be measured against it. However, the OCED 2015 report suggest that 'problem first' attitude can help the organisation act on it rather than being defined by a company's intent or capabilities (Sen, 1999). The company's intent

risks creating its own view on problem, intervention and outcome, as well as its measurement of success, thereby undermining the stakeholders and their benefit. Likewise, concept such as firm's capabilities driven strategic CSR and CSV where CSR programmes associated with core business twinning with social needs, can be addressed by a company bears problem (McElhaney, 2009). As discussed earlier, the convergence of societal and business needs does not necessarily lead to CSR success or social benefit as presented in the case of social enterprises whose very business model presents such opportunity. A NHS Confederation (2012) paper concludes that NHS has traditionally focussed on health outcomes as its primary value but must now focus additionally on creating social value in the communities. It would do so by working across areas beyond healthcare towards creating health and wellbeing for communities. This position of outcomes beyond intention is developed in MSC technique discussed earlier. These examples above present the case towards a holistic approach in solving social problems, rather than being confined to organisational intent and approach, therefore leading towards *summum bonum* (the highest good) in different ways and for many people.

Most businesses and impact frameworks use traditional approach which is to start by setting up aims and objectives for CSR project and then finally measure the success based on these goals; this has several implications. It is likely that many other impacts (such as spill over effect OECD, 2015 or emerging effect in MSC technique) including negative impacts (NPC, 2014) will not be accounted for. This relates to the issue of independence discussed in the last section because if the impact measurement is guided by predetermined goals of the firm, many impacts will go unreported or ignored – that includes community and other levels of impact. This *prima facie* approach may help the managers to create project criteria or intentions, identify and tally the anecdotal evidence at the end but miss the real evidence (O'Donohoe et al, 2010) which comes only through delivering and accounting the fundamental purpose of CSR – which is benefit to society (Margolis and Walsh, 2003). Many sustainability rating methods and award systems (such as by BITC, Dow Jones Sustainability Index) apply this aim oriented and company claimed approach.

Thus, social problems exist which are beyond a firm's aim or intent, thus a holistic approach involving multiple stakeholders is important in understanding value creation and to carry out the measurement of value.

Theory of Change and Complexity

Theory of Change (ToC) has been widely applied in many frameworks such as SROI, NPC and other papers eg. Reeder and Colantonio (2013) and Ferguson (2009) as well as in integrated reporting. It is also applied in other areas like CSR measurement, impact investment and service commissioning, and several methodologies on social impact analysis as reviewed earlier. ToC has many issues such as participation and objectivity, attribution and influence, and causal links to outcome and replication; thus demands a radically different approach for understanding impact creation and its measurement (see for example Blamey and Mackenzie, 2007). A paper by Aspen Institute in US states that our broad understanding follows mechanical paradigm coming from the 17th century scientific revolution attempting to tame problems and assign cause and effect for all things (Auspos and Cabaj, 2014). Such mechanical understanding may well apply in the past when there was stability, low turbulence in business environment and little competition for resources whereas in the present world, none of these conditions are present (Segal-Horn, 2004). Therefore, our understanding and indeed practice needs to shift away from linear fashioned cause and effect or the input-process-outcome approach toward complexity (Eisenhardt and Sull, 2001). The Aspen Institute paper puts forward complexity thinking and learning perspective to community development with geographical focus (called as place-based change). They presume community to be a complex adaptive system (Hartvigsen and Levin, 1997) being characterized by multiple actors and behaviours that are emergent and self-organized, make nonlinear progression to any intervention and that are shaped by co-created evolution through the behaviour and relationship of their own and with external forces (see also Stacey, 2007 and Ackoff, 1974 on complexity science and messy social problems respectively).

The Aspen Institute paper by Auspos and Cabaj (2014) presents the example of food deserts in some parts of the United States where the lack of stores, limiting the choice of people for healthy food, has caused serious societal and health damage. According to the Aspen Institute paper, there are range of economic and social issues causing problems where intervention and outcome, they report, were successfully addressed using a systemic approach. The complexity theory explains such deeper social issues and the community development process. A cause and effect approach, on the other hand, would risk delineating and separating the issues and attempting to solve the singled-out problems through the input-process-outcome method, which has danger of failing (ibid.). The impact evaluation in complexity paradigm is an

iterative process and involves learning, and for this co-working with stakeholders is essential, as opposed to the traditional mechanistic perception of factual external results. Therefore, the community projects and strategy for it become more emergent and adaptive (see Mintzberg, 1987). This approach helps to experiment and craft strategy and project more closely with stakeholders and work continuously in a changing context of society and economy within the community and outside world; thus co-evolving with strategy, practice and evaluation (ibid.). This also provides scope for understanding ‘aggregation’ issue whereby inter-related impacts from a project can be larger than the sum of the activities (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013). This helps towards creating clearer strategy and theory of change and strategic planning. However, others in the theory of change or programme theory paradigm contend that the theory of change can address both the complicated and complex aspects of community intervention (for example Funnell and Rogers, 2011; Rogers, 2008; Brest, 2010; see also Coryn et al., 2011 for comprehensive review on theory-driven evaluation). Nevertheless, the frameworks being reviewed and the discussions above lead us to agree with the claim that the “traditional approaches to strategy, management, and evaluation and learning are ill suited to the realities of complex issue” (Auspos and Cabaj, 2014 p31). This contention of complexity is sensible because human beings who make up the firm are complex, not mere economic creatures (Freeman, 2017; Nyaupane, 2016). The benefit of understanding community as a complex adaptive system also helps to accept all anticipated and unanticipated, positive and negative results (see NPC framework reviewed earlier). This particular way of capturing harmful impacts called pathologies of development (Esteves and Vanclay, 2009) is important, but often neglected in many impact frameworks. The imperative of this approach is to understand a complete picture of outcomes, without which the chance of achieving successful community change is difficult – the traditional mechanistic paradigm does not offer such possibility to capture broad range of outcomes (Cabaj, 2014; Bamberger, 2012 in Auspos and Cabaj, 2014). This also brings a clearer and bigger picture in a ‘journey’ towards outcomes in a varying time horizon, to understand what has been achieved and what has not, along with both anticipated and unanticipated and for whom (stakeholders) and why. Therefore, complexity aids better and fuller understanding of value creation not only for the business but for all stakeholders, and it offers an effective approach to engage with community.

Baseline

Several frameworks reviewed earlier present community involvement as a neat approach, where the input-process-outcome mechanism can be well managed and measured, as discussed in the last section. The issues of this approach such as lack of complexity thinking is evident. Furthermore, typical impact frameworks do not account the current status or the baseline of community in terms of its wealth, wellbeing and other parameters. In absence of a baseline context, it is difficult to establish how/what the outcomes are achieved by an intervention. The community sector organisations offer better understanding of this issue where NPC's four pillar framework asks for baseline data. However, many other frameworks mainly stemming from business case for CSR fail to address this element (such as Ferguson, 2009; EU IMPACT 2014 framework). By taking into account baseline, this approach helps to compare the outcome journey effectively and establish what happened as a result of an intervention above and beyond what would have happened anyway (Clark et al., 2004).

Counterfactual and Displacement

In social programmes, there will always be some base point in order to establish what would have happened anyway or the counterfactual (called as 'deadweight' in Reeder and Colantonio, 2013) in the absence of an intervention. Any claim, a project can make as its own impact, is the difference made over time by deducting the counterfactual.

The other associated issue with measurement of social value is displacement issue whereby original problems can be displaced elsewhere and also that the outcome may have displaced other outcomes that are positive, or better (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013).

Multi-stakeholder Influence on Project and Impact

Even after deduction of counterfactual and taking into account the baseline to measure impact accurately, as discussed above, there will still be other issues. There will potentially be several other stakeholders contributing to the impact; thus the attribution issue. The isolation or

quantification of specific impact is difficult by nature (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013). It is difficult because many companies supporting the same community and likewise activities from within the community, such as presence of a champion within the community (ibid.) – makes it difficult to accurately delineate impact. Furthermore, the linear cause and effect approach of impact mapping makes it difficult to understand such influence outside of project intervention. The EU IMPACT project identifies such influence where the companies can collaborate with other actors to improve outcome and impact beyond their own abilities to influence the impact pathway. Similarly, the issues raised in integrated reporting on complexity of relationship in capitals, supports this issue of multi-stakeholder influence on corporate social initiatives and outcomes.

Impact from CSR and Core Business

This research chiefly investigates the impact of corporate community projects in the community, so for this purpose, various reviews of literature and frameworks have been carried out around this area. Here, I return to the definition of impact; this states that it is the outcome above and beyond what would have happened anyway (Clark et al., 2004) and that it can be both positive and negative. It is not only the CSR programmes that can produce impact but also other business operations. Thus, it would be unreasonable to account the impact of CSR and other business operations as separate. It was also argued in an earlier section that complex social problems can neither be solved by dismantling them nor can they be addressed through single solution such as CSR. As it was discussed above, there are also examples of several stakeholders contributing to social programmes and attain joint outcome. Therefore, measuring impact of CSR (voluntary) and core business operations (commercial) separately is problematic and does not serve the purpose of measuring the total impact of a company on society, economy and environment. A hypothetical example to explain this issue could be– a factory that causes heavy pollution affecting the community but it also gives the community vouchers for healthcare aiming to neutralise the effects of the pollution.

Hybrid forms of organisations, like social enterprise or cooperatives having social mission as a primary driver, apply an integrated approach in measuring social and economic impact. Similarly, the integrated reporting framework discussed earlier provides the model where all

forms of capital (finance, environment, society) are calculated as outcomes. It can be argued that not only corporate social programmes, but all activities including commercial operations of a firm create social and other impacts; thus the suggested resultant ‘net impact’ (see also Nyaupane, 2015).

Impact Level and Reach

Various frameworks reviewed above show the impact, a CSR programme can generate for business itself and for the community, economy and society at large. Within the impact investment sector, the impacts which are beyond desired goals are considered as secondary or spill-over effects or positive externalities. This approach translates into the business sector where the focus is on business benefit of CSR (corporate performance) and associated with the outcome for a company, instead of the positive impact it can create on the society (IMPACT, 2014). The level of impact on various stakeholders will also determine where and how to measure the impact– such as on individuals, community, organisations etc. (see Auspos and Cabaj, 2015). Alternatively, social, economic and environmental outcome of individuals, groups and organizations can also be viewed in terms of psychological mechanisms at the level of the individual who causes the outcome (Money et al., 2015). Furthermore, impacts appear on a different time horizon, so not only what but when it is measured matters. It can be measured in a prospective, ongoing or retrospective timeframe (IIRC, 2013; Maas, 2009; Burrit et al., 2002). Maas (2009) classifies impact levels as micro, meso and macro, depending on the increasing level of reach of the impact to population. Similarly, the level of evidence matters in determining the social impact. The NPC’s four pillar approach takes into account the depth and the breadth of the evidence gathered by using multiple methods in determining the social impact. For example, the EU IMPACT project research has analysed the company, business sector and region level of impact generated by CSR activities.

Quantification

Many frameworks, such as SROI and BCG who use the theory of change guided generic input-process-outcome approach, heavily rely on quantification of outcome such as the level of population reached in the community, or the proportion of wellbeing achieved in their lives, ultimately leading to monetization in order to create a simplified ratio between investment and result (cost-benefit analysis). However, the process of quantification of social value or impact is difficult and controversial in itself. Fundamentally, presuming impact as a linear cause and effect process is an issue, as discussed earlier. Furthermore, because of the risk of missing many facets and complexity of interventions and impact measurements, the argument made in the last section about the need of holistic method for assessing impact is highly desirable (de Colle et al., 2014; Auspos and Cabaj, 2014).

Vision, Leadership and Strategy

The NPC framework bases their four pillar framework on vision, leadership and the case for impact measurement. Such a holistic approach is also discussed in the Aspen Institute paper by Auspos and Cabaj (2014). The integrated reporting framework similarly takes into account mission and vision, governance, business models and risk beyond the capitals and their transformation into output (IIRC, 2013). Much recent research projects, such as the research on regional level, mega-scale multi-method EU IMPACT project, suggests that “impact thinking is relatively poorly developed in companies & other organisations” (EU IMPACT, 2014a, p12). They suggest that the logic needed to consider and measure impact is not embedded in managerial thinking similar to that of the recent international OECD report and LSE paper by Reeder and Colantonio (2013). As argued in the Aspen Institute paper, it is important that managers and practitioners have impact oriented thinking as well as learning strategy and holistic approach to community development that can make CSR projects in the community successful and thereby maximize the impact (Auspos and Cabaj, 2014). In a similar vein, Money et al. (2015) argue that social, economic and environmental outcome for individuals, groups and organizations can be better understood if they are viewed in terms of psychological mechanisms aimed at the level of the individual who causes the outcome who creates and also solves problems. Beyond the task of measurement, the concepts of mission,

vision and purpose, and impact thinking and psychology at individual level – propel the organisation towards future for *summum bonum* and without such support and motivation, the organisation will struggle to seek good for others and for itself.

3.5 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The below diagram draws together the literature components from last and this chapter deemed critical to locating of this study.

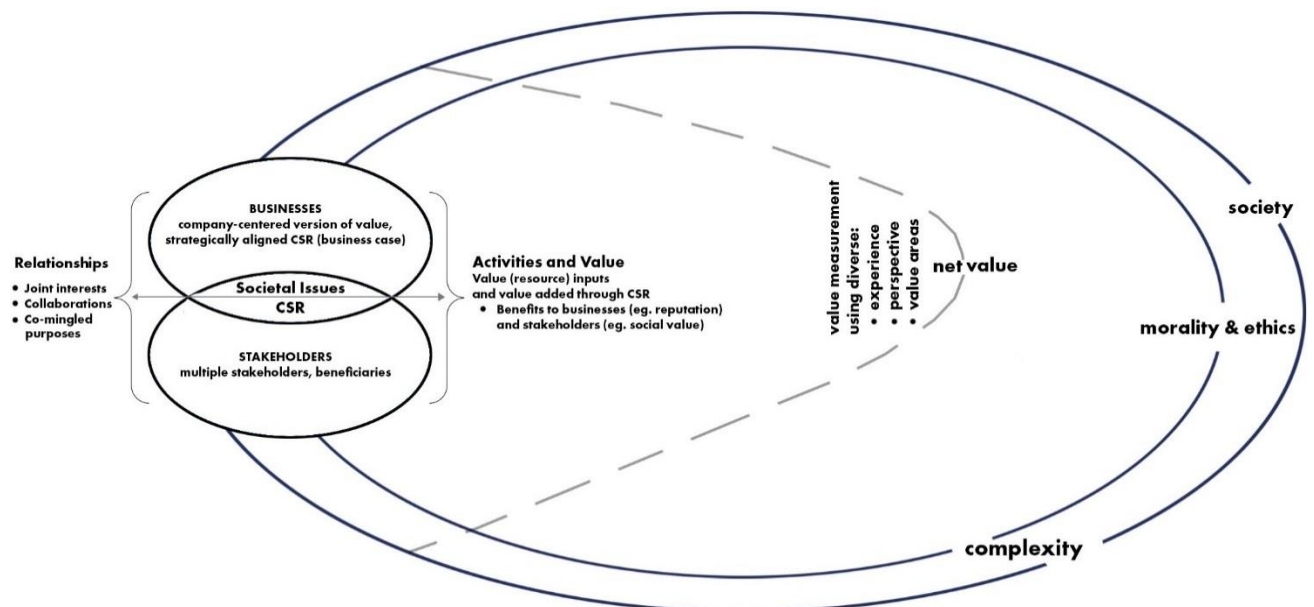


Fig. 3.9 Conceptual Model – Business & Society and Impact

The model above shows businesses and stakeholders connected to society and the moral and ethical values embedded in the society, wherein the general complexity (on the right) applies to all (encompassing outer peripheries). In this context and connections, businesses overlap with stakeholders, mainly in the societal issues and corporate actions and cooperation, such as CSR programmes. This forms the exchange for the business and its stakeholders to have mutual interest, collaborations and intertwined purposes, whilst their joint activity creates value of different kinds for themselves as well as for others. This forms a critical part of my study. How

value created is perceived and measured, critically depends on different approaches taken, such as accounting diverse experiences and perceptions of stakeholders including that of the firms. Likewise, various value created should consider both positive and negative outcomes resulting into ultimate net impact. The diagram suggests that the outcomes of corporate and collaborative activities can manifest beyond the sphere of the organisations involved.

CONCLUSIONS

The deontological position of ethics to adhere to principles and the consequentialist approach towards outcome of action or decision and beyond these ethics displayed in the virtue of a person were explored in the last chapter. These ethical and moral theories have diverse understanding coming from philosophy, religion and social context, yet with some universal relevance. The non-utilitarian teleology was explored in detail; this considers consequences of actions but guards “inviolable dignity of the individual” (Cahill, 1981 p625) for human flourishing in communal sense towards pursuit of *summum bonum*. In this line of inquiry, this research looks into outcomes of activity, acknowledges stakeholders and honours their role in value creation and their voice in its measurement.

The debate on corporate responsibility literature and practice likewise shows ethical tensions, such as the notion of financial benefit of CSR and issues of societal benefit even in novel forms of organisation aiming to help society, such as social enterprise and also in the concept of creating shared value. Private, public and hybrid organisations usually have multiple stakeholders and ability to create value that is available for all, whereas fairness, justice and authority are specific to public sector.

The multi stakeholder engagement in programmes or alliance such as natural commodity, education or healthcare display an interesting case because of their hybridity in governance and operating logic (Quelin et al., 2017) which are aligned to long-term, joint, multiple and sustained value creation. Such collaborative arrangements are aimed at eliminating multiple disadvantages and social ills which can often be complex and not usually within a company’s ability or intent and therefore have a company centric version of value and valuation; in this context, it becomes insufficient. Stakeholder theory has aided to the explanation of such

phenomenon of joint value creation. Research in this area – where non-profit and other kinds of organisations together deliver corporate and social programmes – have used different types of data from multiple stakeholders, including beneficiary, and they are mostly evaluative in nature akin to case study method.

The current practice of value or impact assessment using process or success of CSR and social programmes suffers from mechanist understanding typified as an input-process-outcome model and often show malpractice in measurement of value which are inputs instead of ultimate impact on society and stakeholders. Similarly, measuring impact beyond the aim and intent of the organisation – which are often unreported or ignored – is an important issue shared by both public and private sectors. Similarly, accounting positive and negative outcomes and acknowledgment of multi stakeholder influence on programmes are ways to measure impact accurately. Beyond that, integrated thinking to account for complexity, context and process in organisation is important, whilst also taking into account several technical issues such as aggregation, attribution, baseline and counterfactual in order to calculate value accurately, comprehensively and independently.

The next chapter presents the methods used to gather data to find answers for the questions raised in literature reviews in this and the last chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR : METHODOLOGY

Pragmatism, case study, coding and analysis, reliability and validity

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I will present my philosophical assumptions and how this has guided my gathering of research data, their analysis and the process thereof.

I start this chapter by first setting out the epistemological position as pragmatism. Aligning to the epistemological position and research question, I follow a qualitative case study strategy. I then present a detailed account of data collection tools and the actual process of collecting data mainly through interviews, documents and observations with 50 items of evidence altogether. The data were sorted using evaluation coding and analysed using case study techniques. Toward the end of the chapter, I discuss the reliability and validity of this research, before ending with a chapter summary.

4.1 PRAGMATISM

I first set out the overall paradigm context for this research. Paradigm represents the cluster of beliefs and dictates what must be studied and how research should be carried out and results interpreted (Bryman, 1988). The term paradigm suggests revolution in the sense that research methods in sciences, which were once fixated in methodological investigation, are now challenged by anomalies, thus leading to revolution and emergence of a new paradigm. The broader paradigm underpinning this research is pragmatism, mainly drawn from John Dewey's work and its latter development by others such as Richard Rorty. The pragmatism I apply here is not merely about 'what works', which it is often associated with, but a philosophical stance in understanding social phenomena and truth (cf. Morgan, 2013; see also Robson and McCartan, 2016).

Now returning to the purpose of this research, which is establishing the benefit of the CSR programme on multiple stakeholders from the perspectives of multiple stakeholders including beneficiaries, will help to make right methodological choices. I now discuss the possibility of pragmatism and other philosophical positions to aid this research enterprise.

As one of the early pioneers in pragmatism, John Dewey says our experience is central to understanding the world, firstly because our experiences are constrained by the nature of the world (for example, geographic context or ethnic affiliation) and secondly because our understanding of the world is inherently limited to our interpretation of our own experiences (Dewey, 1934/2008). Therefore, it suggests that we are not free to believe anything we want. This also relates to Herbert Simon's bounded rationality concept, introduced in chapter two, whereby we are limited by our context and ability to interpret information (judgement) and translate them into decisions (Simon, 1947). This now leads us to consider our central experience wherein the ontological nature of the outside world or the world built on our conceptions are just discussions about the two sides of the same coin. Experience of CSR to the firm and stakeholders both is different, as argued in the literature review, thus what is real for them is what they've experienced for themselves, not an objective reality but their perception and experiences (see Easton, 2010).

Producing knowledge in research, according to Dewey's tradition, occurs within a social context (Morgan, 2013). Likewise, the assumption in ontology determines the kind of knowledge where such abstraction is replaced by experience (Dewey's focus) as the continual interaction of beliefs and action. Therefore, knowledge is not an abstract between knower and the known but instead treats social contexts for inquiry as a form of social action, leading to an active and unique process of inquiry that creates a continual back-and-forth movement between beliefs and actions (ibid.). Furthermore, for early pragmatists like Dewey, James and Pierce, it is seeking of the truth and importantly, the uses to which truth is put, thus the practical utility (Easton, 2010).

The Chicago Public Radio debate on pragmatism, which took place in 2002, between Rorty, Putman and Conant was interesting. In the radio programme, Rorty argued that justification and availability of evidence was more important than determining whether the belief corresponds to reality or not (Rorty et al., 2004). This debate is helpful in analysing one of the primary issues about pragmatism, which is consensus and whether this should be accepted as

truth. The concept of consensus discussed in the radio programme does not present a severe departure from Dewey's model of context and experience, but adds another dimension. However, the blame remains over the assumption that truth is exhausted by justification coming from consensus through peers or community; but justification could turn out not to be true (ibid.). Similarly, Putnam emphasised the importance of analysing this kind of agreement as long as the description fits the object that it is answerable to; this also adds some element of realism (Rockwell, 2003). In a similar vein, consensus or in Rorty's word "being able to convince your peers" (p81) resulting rather in calculation and its implications – is a serious concern about the virtue of pragmatism (Rorty et al., 2004). There are other serious implications as well– Rorty is considered as a neo-pragmatist in stating that justification is a sociological concept and according to him there cannot be absolute justification; whereas Putnam argues that the justification suffers from relativist approach of 'justifying' based on a person's reaction/consensus. But, as said earlier, the relativism of justification holds true in original tradition of pragmatism such as that of Dewey.

Another concern regarding pragmatism is over non-human reality Rorty et al. (2004) argue that pragmatists believe that our beliefs have an effect on the real world. During the debate, according to Putnam and Rorty, pragmatism arose through rejection to and departure from empiricism, whereas for James and Dewey, it was continuation on empiricist tradition. Therefore, tensions remain between contextual and consensus based knowledge, and on the other hand empiricism in order to decide what can be considered reality or truth.

Through the discussions above, having established the tenets of context and experience in Dewey's classical school of pragmatism and on justification (mainly from Rorty), these serve as basic assumptions to this research. In the next section, I discuss the use of case study strategy which guides data collection using multiple methods, associated with pragmatism.

4.2 CASE STUDY

In this section, I first discuss case study and its connection to pragmatism. Secondly, I discuss various evaluation research as a type of case study, and use of multiple sources of evidence

within the case study strategy. Finally, I also provide examples of research using case study method and bind the case of Business Class Wales research.

Case Study and Pragmatism

Having discussed philosophy of knowledge and reality in the last section, I now present the strategy that is apposite to this paradigm of pragmatism and is useful for the research to collect and analyse data. Research strategy operationalizes research agenda directing data collection to be made in systematic order. Saunders et al. (2012) suggest that there must be flexibility for the need of adaptation due to the changing nature of social actors. In this context, case study strategy that uses multiple sources of evidence from the actors in phenomenon (compared with others such as deductive quantitative methods) have been found to be suitable for this research.

Thus, the initial task here is to identify what case study is and its suitability for this research as compared to other approaches, therefore it is important to define what is said about it:

“A case study is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 1981 p18)

Case study method historically (1960s–70s) was developed mainly in the US and the UK as an evaluation method for education curriculum, as an alternative approach to positivist research that often involved experimentations and surveys (Stake, 1967; Simons, 2009). Case study continues to remain acceptable for evaluating complex education innovation in specific contexts and generally social and educational phenomenon (Merriam, 1988; Simons, 1980, 2009). Its application is wide such as in sociology, organisational psychology, anthropology, employment relations and political science (Hartley, 2004).

The frustrations that come with experiments and correlation research that are inadequate – “to account for contextual factors of time and place and the uncontrolled nature of complex social situations” (Cronbach, 1975 in Simons, 2009 p16) – requires a different method of enquiry. Therefore, in case study tradition, being aware of complexity and observing natural social

condition and the use of natural language of participants within a context specific interpretation remains important. Thus, the epistemological virtues of context and experience of the participants, coming from Dewey's classical school of pragmatism is well incorporated by the use of the case study strategy as discussed above. This is opposed to positivistic schools' inclination on propositional statement and lawful relationship as the closest approximation of truth (Hempel, 1942; Popper, 1957). In human affairs, truth is better known through statements that are rich with the sense of human encounter where perception and understanding that come from immersion in and holistic regard for the phenomenon is crucial (Stake, 2000; Dray, 1957). Thus, the methodological soundness lies in its ability to capture life (experience), expression and understanding (see Dilthey, 1910; von Wright, 1971).

Stake (2000) suggests that case study is useful when the aims are understanding, extension of experience and have an increase in conviction in that which is known. Business Class (BC) programme, as introduced in chapter one, is an example of an ongoing CSR project from the firm to the community and because of many businesses and their stakeholders participating in it, it gives an ideal case to be researched in order to have diverse perspectives of various stakeholders. The particular emphasis in this research is the value of such programme for multiple stakeholders coming from CSR activity; thus an evaluative approach is needed.

Evaluation Research

An evaluation case study discerns value of a programme or project; it is achieved by involving different people and interested groups (stakeholders) to evaluate a programme or project (Simons, 2009). Here, the application of evaluation is important to link programme implementation with programme effects (Yin, 2003), thus the application of explanatory approach is useful. The exploratory approach suggests exploration of the situation in which intervention being evaluated has no clear outcomes and likewise the descriptive type for describing phenomenon. My research takes simultaneous positions of exploratory (under-researched phenomenon) and evaluation (to establish effects of programme) and uses explanatory approach (to offer explanation to how and why).

The case study approach is used for programme evaluation (Patton, 2015) and the matter of analysis is programme or policy as a unit or a subsidiary unit embedded within; this applies to the BC programme where the focus is the programme but it has embedded units of partnerships between business and schools within it. Whilst there can be comparative case studies which are in multiple sites similar to mini cases constituting the whole study (Simons, 2009; Yin, 2009), this research uses BC Wales as one unit (programme) where school-business partnerships (subunits) are embedded within it.

Essentially, evaluation research tests the effectiveness of specific solutions and interventions. Patton (2002) categorizes evaluation study into formative and summative, whereas the task of this research is to assess ongoing programme (BC) showing its formative nature (see Babiak and Kihl, 2018 reviewed in chapter two). Case study is one of the tools for it, often using qualitative methods. However, judgements on such case study involve both kinds– formative and summative assessment as Patton (2002) acknowledges.

Multiple Sources of Evidence and Triangulation

For evaluative study to be effective, evidence in the form of multiple data is critical. In fact, the hallmark of case study is in its approach of multiple sources of evidence which are applied in evaluation, among other types of case study. Yin (2013) argues that this approach produces convincing and accurate findings when it is based on different sources of information, thereby supporting the approach undertaken by my research to account the experience of multiple stakeholders involved in the programme researched. The use of multiple sources of evidence, such as interview that requires the researcher's involvement; and others, for example documents which are naturally occurring data without the intervention of researcher (Silverman, 2013) – provides added rigour to the research. Likewise, in case study, observations, archival records and artefacts also form sources of evidence. In the next two sections, I explain how and what kinds of data were collected in detail. The data gathered from various sources was integrated and converged in the analysis process; this will also be explained in following sections. This approach of data collection and analysis is well suited with this research to use multiple sources of evidence from various stakeholders and variety of data, thus it establishes a rounded view on the impact of corporate community projects.

The combination of multiple methodological practices, empirical materials and perspectives and observations in a single study is best understood as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, complexity, richness and depth to any inquiry (Flick, 2002, 2007). This process of combining in its traditional view refers to combining of qualitative and quantitative research to triangulate findings and provide mutual corroboration. There are four types of triangulation which are: triangulation of data (different sources), investigator triangulation (different researchers), triangulation of theories (multiple theoretical perspective), and methodological triangulation (combining qualitative and quantitative) as discussed in Flick (2004) (see also Patton, 2002). In the methodological triangulation, the 'within-method' triangulation uses one method but different techniques for data capture (multiple scales or indices in questionnaire within quantitative method) unlike combining qualitative and quantitative methods in the 'between-method' that is widely used in triangulation and often referred to as mixed methods. The approach that can solve the problem and matching with case study research is triangulation of data approach by using various methods (interview, focus group) in data collection ie. the source (Yin, 2009; see Denzin, 1978). Triangulation of data source usefully helps compare, contrast or corroborate different viewpoints in CSR from businesses, schools and other stakeholders involved in BC programme.

Flick explains two purposes of triangulation:

“...triangulation as a cumulative validation of research results, and triangulation as an enlargement of perspectives that permit a fuller treatment, description and explanation of the subject area” (Flick, 2002 p227)

My research renders to the need of the second type – the enlargement of perspective or complementarity function of triangulation as opposed to the validation. Here, as argued by Denzin, I follow Denzin’s original form of triangulation using multiple forms of qualitative research methods (Denzin, 2012). The purpose of using triangulation in this research is to seek deeper knowledge into the issues of understanding CSR from diverse perspective beyond that of the firm, and not necessarily for the purpose of validation (cf. Miles and Huberman, 1984, Denzin, 1978). “It can also capture a more complete, *holistic*, and contextual portrayal of the unit(s) under study” (Jick, 1979 p603, emphasis in original).

The specific way case study uses triangulation is called converging lines of inquiry (Yin, 2009) on a topic, theme or concept where multiple sources of data corroborate the same fact or phenomenon. In this way, convergence of various data as shown in the below picture is key to gathering and analysing evidences to establish the facts as shown in the upper portion of the figure. Many research that use mixed data (quantitative, qualitative) present them separately which is illustrated in the lower portion of the figure below.

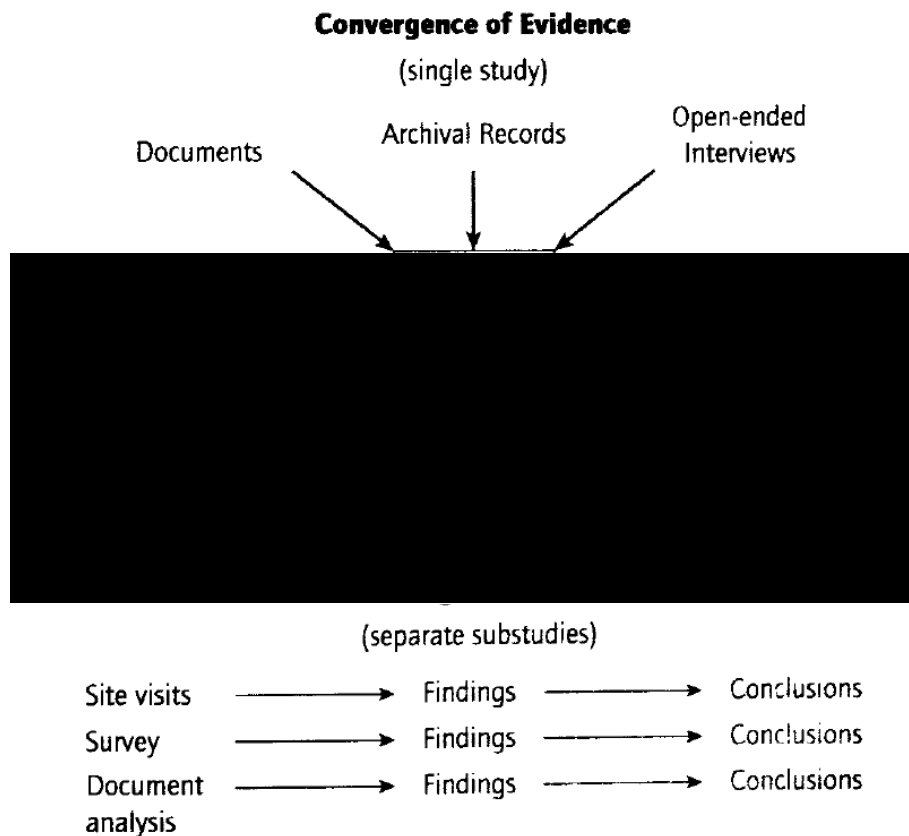


Fig. 4.1 Convergence and non-convergence of multiple sources of evidence. Yin (2009)

The convergence of inquiry has similarity to Rubin and Rubin's (1995) explanation on research arena (cultural and topical) where the topical researcher is depicted as the artist. Using multiple sources of evidence to view converging lines of inquiry and making intersections, the piece of art (investigation topic) can be sufficiently explained. This kind of triangulation follows the principle in navigation whereby the intersection of lines from different reference points is used to calculate a precise location of an object (Yardley, 2009). This is very important given the diverse experience and viewpoint of participants in the CSR programme that needs to be

brought together and compared for evaluation. A key issue identified in the literature review on CSR is about our reliance on knowledge that is almost entirely shaped by what the firms claim it to be rather than views of stakeholders. Consequently, my research needs to look into a holistic perspective as to what CSR means to firms as well as those who receive or are involved or connected to it. For this reason, the triangulation works to expand understanding and usefulness of CSR using multiple perspectives. The methodological arguments in favour of this research aligns to the central tenet of Dewey's concept of experience in pragmatism, as discussed earlier. It is therefore important to investigate this diversity with regard to the perception and experience of the stakeholders participating in CSR programmes using triangulation of data collected from different stakeholders.

Application of Case Study in this Research

The case study strategy as written by Robert Yin (1981, 1984, 1989, 2009, 2014, 2018) claims to answer the desire to understand complex social phenomenon. Such complex social phenomenon needs investigation that reveals rich, holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life (Eisenhardt, 1989). They require a deeper explanation of 'how' and 'why', beyond issues which are obvious and upfront. As discussed in the literature review, the social issues are not only complex but also difficult to eliminate, therefore there is the need for several stakeholders, including businesses, to contribute to solutions for it. This phenomenon of complexity and multiple stakeholder involvement within the social issues needs a rounded investigation. Therefore, what Yin promises within the case study approach to social enquiry is relevant here. The 'how' and 'why' questions used in case study tradition need explanatory answer for matters such as the CSR benefit to community and other stakeholders investigated by this research. Yin (1989) gives example of government programmes to suggest use of the case study to know how and why a programme worked or not.

The focus of case study being on contemporary events adds value to this research due to the fact that Business Class programme is an ongoing programme. Case study approach has been widely used in evaluating CSR programmes in companies such as Hansen and Spitzeck (2011); they studied impact on business and community, regarding their community project in partnership with NGO in Merck Thailand. They used case study approach, triangulating data

with interview and documents (both corporate report and those in public domain) combined with action research in second stage – to identify outcomes of corporate-NGO partnership, mainly benefit to the firm, employee, customers and society. They used community-enabled balanced scorecard (Kaplan and Norton, 1992; Lingle and Schiemann, 1996) which captures CSR recipients’ perspectives through the NGO partner, beyond the primary investigation within the company. Other research involving stakeholders, such as cooperative coffee farming research in Mexico by Davila and Molina, (2017) have used the case study method. Similarly, Babiak and Kihl (2018) carried out case study research involving diverse stakeholders on a CSR project in the sports sector. It thus seems that case study method involving multiple stakeholders has been generally practiced in corporate community projects research.

The Case of Business Class in Wales

The binding of the case, as suggested in case study tradition, is important, using either time, place or activity, or by definition and context (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Here, for the purpose of researching Business Class Wales, I bind it using time, from 2013 when the programme started, until September 2017 when the data collection for this research ended. As stated earlier, the case covers example of pan-Wales business-school BC partnerships in diverse geographical locations as agreed with BITC. Beyond this, it involves organisations supporting BC– namely BITC, Career Wales and Welsh Government. The context that surrounds BC programmes such as socio-economic situation and change of school curriculum has been discussed in the introduction chapter and it will be detailed in the next chapter.

4.3 RESEARCH ETHICS AND DATA COLLECTION

In this section, I explain the process of obtaining data through ethical and practical arrangements with BITC, other organisations and participants. The second part of this section provides a detailed account of different data collected during the research.

Business in the Community (BITC) Cymru charity, which is based in Cardiff, were approached for potential research in CSR and related areas of responsible business practices, due to the fact that they are part of the UK-wide business membership organisation. They promote CSR amongst businesses and other stakeholders in the UK and internationally. Such examples of CSR projects/initiatives available with them through their member organisations proved to be a fertile territory for my research. To pursue this research purpose, early discussions were made with BITC in autumn of 2015 and matured in 2016, through selection of a research project (ie. BITC's Business Class programme), and research objectives were identified. A meeting with BITC in Cardiff in early 2017 outlined the basic proposed research on Business Class, samples and practical arrangements. According to the details of research project as discussed with BITC, Swansea University School of Management were approached for approval of the research project by submitting an ethical review form in February 2017; this was approved in March 2017 as shown in the appendix 5.

Following the approval from the university, BITC were informed and they in turn contacted the potential participants from the Business Class (BC) programme for research with an agreed sample (stated in the last subsection on the case for Business Class in Wales). This introductory email from BITC to the research participants (involved in BC programme) provided details of the research project, ethics, purpose and what it entails for the participants, such as in interviews. The email clearly explained, stating:

“Respondents are assured of confidentiality, will be given access to the findings of the report, and be able to withdraw at any time in keeping with accepted ethical practice.”

The full email having the above quote is attached in appendix 6 with names and other personal details removed for confidentiality. In this way, in line with the university's research ethics and approval, and arrangements of my research with BITC, the BITC email request to participants was the first consent sought from participants, whether they wanted to participate or not. Following this email that introduced my study supervisors and myself, and after receiving a reply from those who wanted to participate via BITC, I made contact with those participants requesting research participation and for practical matters such as when and where it might be possible to meet. Thus, this email from me formed the second stage of consent as the participants were given the opportunity to accept or reject my request for participation in research. Those who replied and agreed participated in the research. At the start of the

interviews (some of those interviewed also supplied documents and other forms of data afterwards), they received clear explanation of my research purpose, process, expected outcomes and research ethics such as confidentiality (assurance that their name would not appear in report, thesis or appear publicly, and that these would be alphanumerically coded), and also assurance that they could withdraw from research at any time. They were also asked whether they were happy to be audio recorded for interview. Those who did not want to be audio recorded were not audio recorded but were happy for me to take notes of the interview. These explanations to participants along with clear details of the procedures that were followed at the start of the interviews, was the third and final agreement and consent sought with research participants before the interviews and the gathering of all the data. Appendix 2 gives details of those who were and were not audio recorded as well as other details of data. For the observation of events, BITC had invited myself and my supervisor from the university to the Cardiff symposium event, and similarly Career Wales had invited me for the event at school 34. It was their arrangements of events and my observations within the usual event setting that meant I did not require additional arrangements to be made in order to undertake research in this context.

None of the participants withdrew from the research and there were no obvious issues during or after the research. Details of approach and procedure of how interview data and other forms of data were gathered according to their kind, is explained in detail in the next section and a full participant/data information table is provided in appendix 2.

Once the audio data from interviews were acquired, the data was safely stored in a logged device and was then transferred into a university computer, which is also securely logged. Also, as an extra precaution for data safety, they were stored into a logged online account for data storage. Similarly, for the protection of data and safety during analysis, the physical data—documents, photos, transcribed text, notes and all data were displayed in a secure locked room in university for coding, analysis and reviews. Following data analysis, they were stored securely in lockers provided by the university.

Before the analysis began, the data were given respective alphanumeric codes. Applying data family approach, different data were grouped together based on organisational affiliation (see appendix 2 for details). During the process of analysis and presentation of findings, it became apparent that hiding (using alphanumeric codes) the names of three key organisations (not

individual research participants) supporting the Business Class programme namely BITC, Career Wales and Welsh Government was not useful. The organisations' names almost seemed self-evident within the data and presentation despite the anonymity applied. Furthermore, the research report needed the organisations' names in order to make proper sense of the findings. Therefore, each of these organisations (BITC, Career Wales and Welsh Government) were contacted and asked for consent for their respective organisation's name to be revealed in the thesis; to this, they all agreed.

In the next section, I will discuss in detail how various types of data were gathered using the approaches/principles explained above and the previous sections.

4.3.1 Tools and Process of Gathering Data

The tools used for collecting data in line with case study strategy were interviews, observations and documents including photos and videos as detailed in appendix 2. The main data collection tools and procedures are explained below for six different sources of evidence for case study as suggested by Yin (1989). They are documents, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observations and physical artefacts. As an ongoing programme, there were not any known archival records and a physical artefact is not a relevant piece of evidence for a social programme like BC. The other sources of evidence (data) used in case study, like document, interview and observation with distinct strength of their own as discussed below, helped to bring a real world situation of participants into texts. The full data collection for this research using various tools is explained below.

Documents

Documents can comprise of many forms: letters, minutes, administrative (proposal, reports), and news articles, to give some examples. The purpose of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources, such as correction and supplementation, with flexibility

and plurality (Luders, 2004). They also aid in making inference or obtaining clues that warrant further investigation.

During the field visits, Yin (1989) argues that time should be allowed to visit local library centres or study files of organisations under research. After I conducted the interviews, schools and businesses happily gave printed documents including photos, or they emailed them to me later; others, for example video link, were received as follow-ups. Further follow-up also took place, using question and answer in email, for some aspects of the interview that needed more information or clarity.

The documents given to me were of different variety: some contained information such as account of activities or a particular activity, business-school partnership case study, activity and annual reports, external documents like award application, school newsletter, project bid document and minutes of a meeting. These all had partial or full contents on Business Class. The description is detailed in appendix 2.

Yin (1989) argues that it is important to review documents as an observer which was “written for some specific purpose and some specific audience *other than* those of the case study being done” (p87, emphasis in original). In Silverman’s (2016) term, such documents are ‘naturally occurring data’ rather than research generated data such as interviews. This helps understand original communication between parties for some other purpose, thus the investigator needs to identify these conditions as well as critically interpreting them in relation to other evidence, like interviews/observation. This technique has been useful to establish evidence as an important patch in data, for example the minutes of a cluster meeting helped confirm that aspiration was a major theme beyond what recurred in the interviews.

Interviews

According to Yin (1989), interview is one of the most important sources of information within case study research, and it is essential because most case studies are about human affairs which need to be interpreted through the eyes of the interviewees. Open-ended interviews are commonly used within case study (ibid.) and mainly in the form of semi-structured interview

in social research (Hopf, 2004). Semi-structured interviews used in this research allowed the researcher to journey with the interviewees to endeavour to see what they saw, experienced or believed whilst also staying on course with the relevant agendas of research using the guideline in appendix 3. This is important for two reasons. Firstly, being a qualitative exploratory research, it must discover and express the world of the people associated with the case; and through this, many themes and explanations emerged that were grounded in the data. Secondly, this is an evaluative study where people express expectations, process, quality or value, performance of activity or phenomenon, such as partnership or collaborations in BC, and at times complaints or justification (Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Saldana, 2015) in the context of the case, and these need to be accounted. As discussed in the literature review, it is vitally important to capture voices of stakeholders involved in the programme to establish benefits and outcomes for multiple stakeholders using their own perspectives.

The interviews were taken in the interviewees' natural place of work. Before the start of the interviews, each participant was asked if they were happy for the interview to be recorded and the protocol of anonymity, according to the authorization (ethical approval) received from Swansea University was explained. Nearly all of the participants agreed for audio recording, with exception of three participants, as shown in appendix 2 (marked as 'notes without audio'). The reasons for not allowing the audio record were practical such as being in school which can be interrupted by noise; others being deputized for the interview where the participant did not feel to have sufficient authority, and in another case where a BC partnership was not working well. Where the audio recording was not possible, notes were taken during interviews. All interviews were undertaken using the guide as shown in the appendix 3. Audio records of all interviews were professionally transcribed soon after the interviews. The transcribed texts were also printed. The interviews took place from end of April 2017 to middle of September 2017.

Eventually, a thick and rich description of both cultural and topical arenas is developed, supported by other sources of evidence (Geertz, 1973). For this, whilst the interviews in cultural arena focus on norms, values and societal rules, the topical interviews, on the other hand, are deliberate and focussed on investigating events or process in the form of a defined subject which shows usefulness of semi-structured interview instrument (cf. Hopf, 2004 on topical focussed interviews). Consequently, using the latter approach, according to Rubin and Rubin (1995), one "may sort out and balance what different people say" (p30) and then the researcher creates a narrative based on the analysis; for example whether a programme worked or failed

in an evaluation study. In this way, a topical researcher akin to case study is similar to a skilled painter who puts a narrative that combines evidences and words of several people, whereas in a cultural report it is akin to a photographer making choices as to what frame to use (ideas, expression and understanding of people) in order to reproduce exactly what was there (ibid., see also Hopf, 2004). They acknowledge that these approaches are often mixed and this stands true to my research. On the one hand, combining of various sources of evidence means a narrative that is common for all and not just one participant/group, a rendition of researcher as artist. At a more microscopic level, abiding in the evidence (expressed in quotes) shows reasoning and interpretation transparently where a researcher represents like a photographer.

Observations

Observation is one of the ways of gathering evidence within case study and it has two variants: direct and participation observation (Yin, 1989). Direct observations provide additional information about the topic of study; for example, observation during interviews in a less formal manner is another aspect that usefully assists in building explanation such as a busy environment in schools in BC programme. These are not listed as separate pieces of evidence in appendix 2 because the main purpose is to interview the participants and the direct observations happens naturally.

The other way to observe is to become one of the members or take a variety of roles in the community (cultural group, organisation) that is researched or to participate in process or events which is called participant observation. I was invited to BC programme events where I could observe whilst participating in the events. Dragon's Den was a recurrent enterprise and employability related event in the BC programme, this became apparent from the early interviews. Therefore, following arrangements by the event organizer (Career Wales) and supported by the school, I was given a role of judge in a Dragon's Den student competition within a natural setting of a school, so as to experience the event first hand. It helped to capture information such as diversity in participation of female, male and pupils with special needs (in learning) and importantly to evaluate pupils' ideas within the event setting (in judge's role) alongside other judges. This also helped me towards assessing overall quality and success of the event as a whole. The other observation of event was— upon BITC's invite, I participated

at their education symposium in 2017, which was related to the BC programme; this gave me an opportunity to observe students actively involved in different roles within the symposium. These were invaluable opportunities in order to “perceive reality from the viewpoint of someone ‘inside’ the case study” (p93,) rather than being situated external to it such as in documents or interviews that assume passive investigator (Yin, 2003).

Some drawbacks to this approach (participant observation) of gathering evidence are aligning what is already there in the setting rather than adhering to the research interest. Similarly, the possibility of need of too much attention and not able to note-take or raise questions. However, the researcher did not face such issues, neither in the Dragon’s Den event nor at the symposium. There was an open environment, so there was opportunity to be honest and not align to what already existed. There is always some natural tension between how much you can observe whilst taking notes simultaneously, but it was fairly balanced with the focus being on observing during the event with some note-taking supplemented by post-event note writing.

Description of Data Collected

As detailed in appendix 2, there were twenty-seven schools and businesses forming the largest base of evidence with mainly interviews and associated documents. Of these, there were fifteen businesses and twelve schools interviewed or observed. Apart from schools and businesses, the support organisations (BITC, CW, WG) were also interviewed (six persons) and documents obtained from them. Those interviewed (a total of thirty three) were in a position of leadership, such as head teachers, business managers or directors – all of whom had very good knowledge or experience of the BC programme that is essential for meaningful and useful discussions within the research.

The documents and other evidence obtained are counted but not separately numbered in alphanumeric code as they are part of the evidence base, mostly from the interview respondents affiliated to the organisation involved in BC; thus grouped together based on the organisation as detailed in appendix 2. Likewise, in some organisations including schools and charity organisations, there were multiple participants who were grouped based on their organisational affiliation. Altogether, there were fifty pieces of evidence in the form of interviews, documents,

participant observations, photos and videos – all of which were gathered and analysed using case study protocol.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The process of analysing data applied in this research using coding and the principles of case study is explained in the below subsections.

4.4.1 Data Analysis Using Coding

As the main source of data (ie. interviews) was gathered, the process of primitive analysis in thinking and writing notes was an early process and this helped towards knowing some of the emerging areas of research, which provoked more curiosity during further interviews and data collection. Once sizable data had been gathered, around half way through the interviews and data gathering where no obvious new matters appeared, initial analysis started.

Once all data had been collected using various tools such as interviews, documents and others as described in the last section, they were assembled together for analysis. Yin (1989, 2009) suggests three principles for data gathering– using multiple sources of evidence, creating a database of the case study, and maintaining a chain of evidence. As the first part has been satisfied because of the very nature of this research acquiring different types of data, the second aspect (database) was key in undertaking the data analysis.

Within the creation of the case study database, one is evidentiary base and the other is a report of the investigator, which you now read. The evidentiary base (assembly of all data) is crucial because the same data can be a subject of separate analysis, cross-case analysis or inspection or review by other investigators, thus markedly increased reliability (Yin, 2009). All forms of data were turned into text such as transcription of audio interviews and videos whereas documents were already in text format. The photos reinforced the context and reality of the programme activity and were in connection with other document/information, thus a separate

textual interpretation of photos was not necessary. The full database are safely stored. The chain of evidence is explained in this chapter within the validity and reliability section later.

The text data coming from different forms of raw data needed to be categorised— classifying, ordering and reduction to represent, analyse and interpret. This involved perusing text for events, concepts, themes, relationships or categories, devising a coding scheme with the identified words. Such words, phrases and schema, what Goodwin (1994) calls professional vision directed at the data, often lead to potential theme. These are also called local coding schema (Silverman, 2016) to see and understand and give a name to the phenomenon. As stated in the last section, it is an iterative process of coding, going back and inspecting categories for completeness and redundancy and at times test explanation against the text. It is an iterative process because it involves revisiting, modifying and refining (see Schmidt, 2004 on various stages of coding). It thus questions the claim of thematic coding as if the themes are first decided (see Ritchie et al., 2014) but instead the themes are generated as an outcome of coding, categorization or analytical reflections (Saldana, 2013).

Coding of data is suitable for case studies (Saldana, 2013; Patton, 2002). Saldana (2013) categorizes twenty-five different primary coding methods, among which is evaluation coding. This research, working on a poorly researched area (thus exploratory) effectively evaluates the main case, which is Business Class Programme and is supported by analysis in subunits (business-school partnerships within the programme); thus the suitability of the evaluation coding method. In this evaluative approach to coding, the data describes, compares and predicts to judge merit, worth or significance of policy or programme (Rallis and Rossman, 2003). Evaluation of a programme involves analysing the activities, characteristics and outcomes (Patton, 2002, 2014). In Saldana's detailed approach to coding methods, the evaluation code actually makes use of multiple approaches in coding (eclectic) and it is suitable for both the initial and exploratory technique (Saldana, 2013). So, in this research, evaluation coding that involves magnitude coding (positive and negative comment), descriptive coding (building characteristics of programme) along with in vivo coding (drawing from actual words from data) and recommended coding (where programme improvements are suggested) has been used simultaneously. Using this multifaceted technique, the outcomes for pupils, teachers and businesses were examined to know the effect on skills, attitudes, behaviour and knowledge, as well as the evaluative perspective on the programme as a whole (Patton, 2002).

The process of analyzing data is explained below using procedures and methods, which are discussed above. Following transcription of the interview data and all other types of data that were then formatted into text (except photos as explained earlier), they were printed and displayed on a large table. By reading each piece of data, basic constructs were generated, providing essence and content of descriptions, processes and events. Likewise, other details such as work environment, problems, situations, comparisons, explanations and information also became familiar in this process. Within the phenomenon researched, there were varieties of aspects related to the programme, such as offer, contract, demand, questions, experiences, plans, ideas, opinions, evaluations, claims, schedule, history, satisfactions, complaints, preference, confirmations, recommendations and reflections; they all brought vividness and essence to the research. In addition, confidence, achievements, feelings, success, attitude, outcomes, difficulties, issues, excitement, admirations, desires, comments, understanding, values, connections and organizational relationships and other varieties of expressions, issues and phenomenon were witnessed as recorded within the interviews and as present in documents, observations, video and other evidence. These responses and information were mostly associated with the Business Class programme under investigation, therefore organizing of data reflected the programme, its components and associated phenomenon, whilst also being open to emerging concepts.

The data underwent mainly three stages of organization– coding, categorization and concept generation in increasing order of abstractness and progressing to higher level of ordering using Saldana’s (2013) coding and analysis framework in figure 4.2 below

Codes

As the first cycle of analysis, codes were assigned to word, sentence or paragraph using the evaluation coding scheme that matches to the nature of this study to evaluate the BC programme. Within the evaluation coding approach, a mix of coding was applied. As the first cycle coding process (Saldana, 2016), descriptive/in-vivo coding for description of programme, its component or phenomenon; magnitude coding for evaluating or judgement on programme or its component from the perspective of multiple stakeholders, and finally

recommended coding to suggest improvement to the programme, were employed (see Rallis and Rossman, 2003; Saldana, 2013, 2016).

Using multiple coding within the evaluation coding approach, the first cycle coding involved carefully reading, underlining, marking, writing notes and signs on printed text data and separately in other paper. Codes were assigned using three coding schemes under the evaluation coding as below.

- Descriptive/in-vivo coding: descriptive information of BC activities and other areas and use of relevant quotation
- Magnitude coding: magnitude of satisfaction, success or other forms of evaluative content (feedback) based on–
 - intensity in the range of one to three positive (medium, high and highest respectively) using plus (+) symbol
 - and one to three negative (negative, very negative, extremely negative respectively) using minus (–) symbol
- Recommendation coding: recommendations coming from organisations who run or support the programme for improvement.

In addition, coding and analysis also involved writing notes such as those which can be extracted into quotation (in vivo) to present in the findings report and writing conceptual notes and analytical memos in separate papers. Likewise, arrows were drawn or notes made to show connection/relationship within the data and across all samples. In this way, once the initial coding made sufficient representation of data and explanation of phenomenon, I progressed to the second stage of categorization of data which is discussed below.

Categories

Once the basic codes were identified, they were grouped based on linkages (information family), and then clustered into categories (see Saldana, 2016 on code mapping/landscaping). These are often related to the researched programme such as context, cluster, activity and impact. This procedure also involved critical thinking to identify any competing ways that can

relate between groups of linked codes and category for scrutiny (cf. 'plausible rival explanation' in Yin, 2013) and for this, drawing various diagrams which are called 'think display' by Miles et al. (2014). In this way, codes and categories satisfied accurate and best explanation of phenomenon grounded in data.

Once the categories were formed, the alignment or grouping of codes was easier and data was revisited for completeness in analysis. At other times, some codes were made redundant either because they could be grouped into other codes/categories, or that the existence of phenomenon represented in code was negligible to the research enterprise (see Saldana, 2016; Boeije, 2010). It therefore shows that coding is a cyclic act and not one off (Saldana, 2016).

Concepts

The second cycle of coding involved fitting categories together to develop a coherent meta-synthesis of data corpus (Morse, 1994). It created a higher level of abstraction, concepts and meaning by strategically reassembling data that was split and fractured during the initial coding process (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) into higher level concepts/themes. The concepts generated holistic and consolidated meaning of the phenomenon (Saldana, 2013) whilst also delving into coherence at lower levels as shown in the coding framework (appendix 4). The concept of value creation generated through such analytical synthesis is graphically represented in value creation framework (figure 6.3a/b). For this analysis, using axial coding (Glaser, 1978) which is useful for studies with variety of data forms (Saldana, 2016), the dimensions and properties of concept or categories (and subcategories) were defined and their interlinks shown. In this way, components of contexts, conditions, interactions and consequences of a process are able to explain the whole phenomenon and its working (Charmaz, 2014). Appendix 4 demonstrates how, from basic coding (details) to categories to higher level concept (abstractness), were developed applying Saldana's (2013) coding framework.

The roundedness of multiple coding used in evaluation coding is a match to the case study in its application (Saldana, 2013) because of its emphasis on using the multiple source of evidence, for example, interviews, documents, observations and other sources (Yin, 2013). The other essence of case study method, linking to evaluative approach generally, and in

coding, is that it is “context-specific enterprise” (p95) depending on how and whose values and standards are employed (Stake, 1995). This understanding helps my research to capture diverse experiences and values of those who participated in the BC programme. The next section explains the use of case study protocol for analysis of the data.

4.4.2 Data Analysis Principles in Case Study

Once the data was organized through coding as discussed above, it was analysed using explanation building technique as a dominant mode of analysis. Other options of analysis within case study are pattern matching and time series analysis, such as neighbourhood changes over time (Yin, 1989). The explanation building approach works in hypothesis generating manner (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) in order to explain the case researched here and akin to the general strategy of case description. Complexity of implementing programmes such as local economic development, curriculum in school or crime prevention can help describe multiplicity of decisions and actions involved. On the other hand, pattern matching exercises predict a pattern of specific variables akin to the general analytical strategy of relying on theoretical proposition (Yin, 1989) and similarly on logic model where theory of change is employed (Yin, 2016). Being a qualitative explorative study, the purpose of this research is to build explanation and create theoretically significant propositions towards theory building (Yin, 2018; see also Gomm et al., 2000) rather than confirming to a predicted phenomenon. This falls into explanation/evaluation and descriptive approach to case study (Yin, 2013, 2018). Yin (1989) cites the example of programme evaluation in a housing programme in multiple sites in US. These methodical alignments ensures internal and external validity (ibid.) which is discussed in detail later in this chapter.

In finer analysis tools, cases where units constitute a larger case are called embedded units which applies to this research; however, if smaller cases such as in multiple sites (examples above) are of interest, and larger case serves as contextual matter, then Yin (1989) suggests other research might suit better. On the other side, if multiple sites where the phenomenon occurs or a programme is implemented, then multiple case study or comparative case study can be used (Bryman and Bell, 2015; cf. Stake, 1995 on ‘collective’ case study). The research on BC programme in Wales uses the programme as a main investigation case with subunits of

partnership of business-school in the programme but not necessarily as a multisite project (see Simons, 2009 on multisite).

Through the multiple coding processes and stages, the analysis in convergence fashion organized data where the best representative description was selected for report writing (Saldana, 2016, see also Rubin and Rubin, 1995). This led to having two major areas of research outcome; these are divided into two chapters of findings within this thesis. Ultimately, as stated earlier on theoretically significant proposition building, the entire work builds integrated explanation towards an overarching theme (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). Thus, in my research, it works inductively from details in coding to categories and eventual overarching concepts (Merriam, 1988; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Rubin and Rubin, 1995) as shown in below figure. In this way, what was built using codes, categories, concepts and framework is presented in findings.

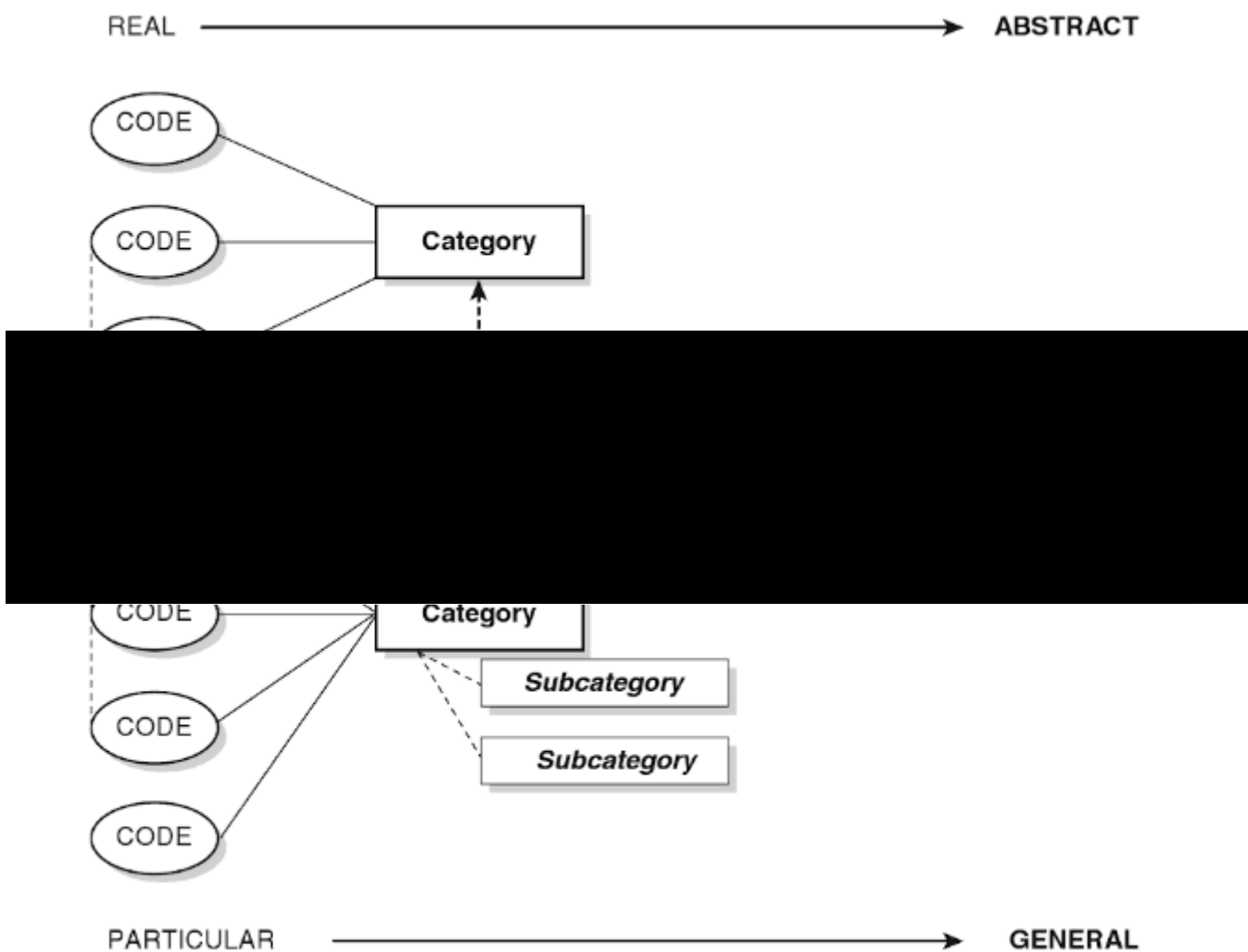


Fig. 4.2 A streamlined codes-to-theory model for qualitative inquiry. Saldana (2013)

4.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Rubin and Rubin (1995) developed three key criteria for transparency, consistency and communicability for assessing the credibility of a qualitative study and this encompasses validity and reliability criteria used in case study (Yin, 1989; 2018).

4.5.1 Transparency

There are many ways that transparency in collecting data and their analysis can be used to assess intellectual strengths, weaknesses and biases of interviewer. The research process of gathering raw data, analysis and how these are entered into the report is explained here, by maintaining the chain of evidence in case study principle (Yin, 1989).

Acquisition and Management of Data

Here, I explain how data was acquired, stored and organized. First, the interviews were audio recorded and stored in multiple secured logged-in devices (university computer and online cloud application) and the audio professionally transcribed and for those where recording was not possible or the participant refused to give their consent, hand-notes were taken. In interviews, where the word(s) were unclear, were not spoken, or left gaps in the sentence, words were added using square brackets ‘[]’ however this issue is very limited. Similarly, where the names of people or a place is spoken in an interview, it has been anonymised by using description as per the research ethics. Within some interviews or other evidences, in order to maintain the anonymity of all participants the name of organisation/person being spoken about were replaced with their respective alphanumeric code (those within the sample) or were made anonymous.

In order that the names of support organisations do not become distracting for readers, first, they are mostly made anonymous in the findings chapters, which matches with anonymity used on other stakeholders of the programme (eg. business and schools). Secondly, documents like annual reports, activity logs for example, were already in original text format. Thirdly, notes

were also made from observations and video. There were also notes from the direct observation during interview, like the busy environment of a school, which helped corroborate this fact with interviews.

Analysis

As discussed in the analysis process, all of this data was assembled in text format (apart from photos linked to other evidences). Following assembly of all data including the researcher's notes, these were analysed using evaluation coding (Saldana, 2013) as detailed in the previous sections. Researchers notes made during data analysis were filed chronologically according to time and stages of analysis where possible.

Presentation

The original texts from interviews and documents are quoted in the findings chapters, as well as other sources of evidence such as observations in a convergence fashion, based on topical issues. Similarly, where figures are presented that involved counting (such as quality of value in section 7.2 of the findings chapter seven), this represents breadth of qualitative comment, therefore accommodating diverse intensity (positive and negative) of such comments related to attainment or success in the programme.

4.5.2 Consistency

The consistency investigates ideas and responses that appear to be inconsistent both in interviews and themes. There were no unresolved inconsistencies or competing explanations in data collection or analysis. The use of triangulation used in the case study method helped resolve where any difficulty arose (Stake, 2003). During the early stages of analysis, issues of cluster, where time investment in meetings was a problem for businesses and schools, made it less popular but at the same time, collaboration at cluster yielded several benefits, which

needed further investigation. The interviews which were carried out at later stage and revisiting of data helped explain this issue, suggesting successful cluster and higher level events part replacing meetings as an alternative could minimize time and maximize benefit and the other solution of technology based interaction in cluster (associated with geographical remoteness) was also discovered.

In some interviews, it was about clarity and corroboration by comparing with other interviews and documents that helped in proper understanding of the topic, like incentives for career and world of work (CWW) curriculum framework by education regulators (see chapter six section 6.1 on curriculum).

4.5.3 Communicability

Richness of detail and abundance of evidence from various sources as well as qualitative nature of the data as shown in chapters six and seven to present findings – help communicate accurately, and readers are able to make their own judgement. Apart from this, the case study principle suggests having an evidentiary base, which the researcher has maintained, thus if another investigator was to look into the same evidence and come up with different interpretation and conclusion, it is possible. Similarly, if an auditor was to repeat the procedure and arrive at the same results, this is also possible because of methods and actual process of data collection that are explained here; however, it must be noted that case studies are time specific and cannot be replicated like a lab experiment (Yin, 1989; see also Yin, 2018 on chain of evidence). The reliability also comes from documenting every step (such as analysis notes maintained by this researcher), thus minimizing error and biases (ibid.) The vivid account of how the events took place and the benefits that pupils in schools accrued through BC programme, as explained by interviewee, shows the clarity in communications written in the report, mainly in findings chapters.

The multiple sources of evidence has given ample richness, details as well as coherency and consistency wherein appropriate methods and analysis has supported this research.

4.6 Generalization in Case Study

A case study needs to be a bounded system (Smith, 1974) such as an institution, a programme, a responsibility, a collection or a population. In this research, the BC programme in Wales is taken as the case and also the unit of analysis, described in the binding of the case section earlier. Such case study investigation of programmes are more suited for expansionist (proliferation) than reductionist (narrowing) pursuits (Stake, 1978). Theory building is the search for essence, pervasive and determining ingredients and law making (ibid.). The purpose of the case study is essentially not in generalising for larger population but the focus is on a case that gives greater richness to offer analytical generalisation (Yin, 2012; cf. Stake, 1978 on naturalistic generalization). This works inductively towards logic and theory building; and as a result of case study, theoretical advances are made and thus addresses its possible applicability beyond the case. Similarly, Lincoln and Guba (2000) call it ‘transferability’, suggesting that the findings apply to other cases based on similarity or applicability. However, comparing outcomes of the case study in terms of generalisation with conventional approach of natural science to produce general knowledge for broader categories, larger population and social phenomenon is not useful (see Gomm et al. 2000 in Gomm et al., 2000). Alternatively, they suggest a within case generalisation. They argue that there is a research focus within that case such as some theme or category and not necessarily the entirety of the case, and that observation happens at a certain time and not continuously; thus the need to take into account temporal organisation of the case as discussed in the last section.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Experience of the world that is contextual which supports interplay of belief and actions and partly justification as espoused in pragmatism, helps us understand the world for ourselves and relate to it. Coming from this understanding, stakeholders who participate in a firm’s CSR activity can speak about their world based on their experience and context and what is true in their circumstances. Case study methods (Yin, 1989, 2009, 2014) employed by this research focusses on multiple evidence gathered from and about the world of people participating in the programme – helps establish value of CSR from their perspectives.

Such multiple perspectives in and across 50 items of evidences including documents, interviews and observations are converged to create a fuller combined narrative of Business Class Programme in Wales as the focus of my research project building through subunits of business-school partnerships within the programme.

Corresponding to experience and collective understanding of stakeholders, exploratory evaluative case study (with embedded explanatory approach) is applied by using this research which has been used by others in CSR and specifically the evaluation of CSR programme (such as Babiak and Kihl, 2018; Hansen and Spitzeck, 2011) in a multi-stakeholder enterprise setting. Matching to this research setting, primarily evaluation coding (Saldana, 2013) was carried out for building concepts, assertions and advances in theory inductively, being grounded in data (Rubin and Rubin, 1995, 2012).

The gathering, sorting and organizing of data using coding and analysis was explained clearly. Procedures and the research enterprise generally, have no apparent inconsistency, and similarly the account of research and analysis carried out was presented seamlessly in this chapter. The research is reliable and valid within the stated settings and approaches undertaken.

The next chapter discusses the Welsh context for education and Business Class context in detail.

CHAPTER FIVE : CONTEXT

Welsh education context, Donaldson report and curriculum changes, Business Class programme and research

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes and evaluates the Welsh context for education and the Business Class context in more detail, the key aspects of which were introduced in the first chapter. The first part of this chapter describes the education system, qualifications and socio-economic issues in Wales. It also reviews the ongoing development of curriculum changes within Wales in detail, mainly using the Donaldson report and connects these educational development with the Business Class programme. The second part of this chapter reviews various research carried out on the Business Class programme in England.

5.1 WELSH EDUCATION CONTEXT

The Welsh education sector has faced and is continuing to face significant challenges, chiefly how to perform in such a complex and changing environment, which will be discussed in this section. The ongoing sweeping changes in school curriculum in Wales as a result of a review in 2015 is an important development relevant to this research on the Business Class programme in Wales due to multiple components of the programme connecting to the school curriculum. So, the curriculum will form the second part of this section.

The introduction chapter has provided brief context of deprivation and its effect on education. Socio-economic deprivation in many parts of Wales together with issues arising from a lack of sufficient funding have strained the Welsh education sector. The Welsh Index of Multiple Deprivation (WIMD) as shown in appendix one and other measures of disadvantages are widely used in the education sector. These indices guide the provision of support such as free

school meals and alternative methods of education for pupils. The scale of the challenges due to such deprivation in the Welsh education sector becomes visible through the testimonies of those in schools and outside schools who are affected by it, as investigated by this thesis. Welsh Government as signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) has a commitment for all aspects of a child's life such as welfare, wellbeing and education, and to try to ensure that children and young people are not disadvantaged by poverty. However, the impact of deprivation in education, and among others such as wellbeing, is significant. The Economist magazine ran a series in 2017 titled 'down in the valleys' with the headline: "The struggle to improve the worst education system in Britain" showing that Wales' performance is far below other British country regions and well behind the OECD countries owing to poverty, reform fatigue and the league tables being removed (The Economist, 2017). Research undertaken by Burgess et al. (2013) shows that the abolition of school performance tables has negatively affected school effectiveness and such reform markedly reduced school effectiveness in Wales compared to England. Likewise, authors like Rees and Taylor (2015) termed the under-performance in Welsh education as 'crisis'. The Welsh education sector has faced problems that are deeper and wider, and over a longer period of time.

5.1.1 The Education System in Wales

The devolved education system in Wales is largely regulated by Estyn, the education and training inspectorate for quality and standards. Since 2014, the Welsh Government has set up a new benchmarking system based on a colour coded performance category into green, yellow, amber and red, for school performance and further improvements. Administration of schools is organised through the government's established four regional consortia, which are North, Mid and West, South East and South Central, whereas funding is carried out by the local councils.

The Welsh Government in recent years has put greater emphasis on confidence and pride in Wales as a bilingual nation with the strength and assurance to nurture both languages, specifically increased support for learning Welsh in schools, workplace and through informal learning. A report by Professor Donaldson in 2015 suggests Welsh language to be compulsory up to the learner's age of sixteen. The secondary school curriculum in Wales contains standard

GCSE qualifications but also other Wales specific curriculum such as the Welsh Baccalaureate. The Welsh Baccalaureate qualification provides broader experience and employability skills such as communication, numeracy, digital literacy and various courses for personal effectiveness as an optional module. The Business Class programme – which I will be discussing in the next section – is closely related to the Welsh Baccalaureate in terms of enterprise, employability and wider outcomes in pupils. A review of qualifications in 2012 for 14 to 19-year-olds in Wales suggested, among others, the need to have portability of qualifications gained in Wales, which means standardized qualifications comparable with the rest of the UK and internationally. More recently, the government in Wales has also developed the Digital Competence Framework (DCF) in 2016 as a cross-curricular module (similar to literacy and numeracy) to develop digital skills in young learners. The digital competence is a key cross-curricular skill based learning framework supported by the Donaldson report as discussed below. The Wales Baccalaureate and DCF, specific to Wales, are innovative developments in curriculum.

Education in Wales, similar to many other regions/countries, faces tensions between traditional results based performance and broader outcomes in pupils, coupled with developments in curriculum. However, the Donaldson report says ‘subject against skill/competence’ debate creates unhelpful polarisation (Donaldson, 2015). For many teachers and schools, the key task has become to implement the prescribed external expectations for the curriculum and accountability faithfully, with a consequent diminution of both local creativity and responsiveness to the individual needs of children and young people (ibid.). The Donaldson 2015 report titled ‘Successful Futures : Independent Review of Curriculum and Assessment Arrangements in Wales’ was a result of an independent review of curriculum for learning, teaching and assessment arrangements in Wales carried out by Professor Graham Donaldson. Following his report, the government is changing curriculum and developing a new curriculum aiming to have a final version in 2020 and implemented throughout Wales by 2022 (Welsh Government, 2017a).

The Business Class programme in Wales that is investigated by this thesis has a close connection to the education sector in Wales, particularly the high school education for which the programme is designed and delivered. The influential work of Professor Donaldson’s 2015 report signals the vital importance of schools to the future success and wellbeing of every child and young person in Wales and to the country as a whole; so, consequently the Welsh

Government is changing the curriculum. Since the 1988 curriculum development, the Education Act 2002 in UK, and the most recent comprehensive review in 2008 by Welsh Government, the Donaldson report 2015 and subsequent ongoing changes are radical and comprehensive in the context of rapid technological, social, political and economic circumstances of present time, both locally and globally. The reform is also a response to national politics (Westminster and Welsh governments, and issues coming from political parties), educational developments in regions/countries and international standard such as that of the EU, United Nations and OECD who benchmark student learning across geographies.

5.1.2 School Curriculum Change

The Donaldson report 2015 was a result of an independent review of curriculum for learning, teaching and assessment arrangements in Wales carried out by Professor Graham Donaldson. The review process and evidence gathering took place between March and December 2014, when the review team visited 60 schools of varying kind such as primary, secondary, special needs, young offenders' institution and work-based learning. It also involved meeting head teachers, managers, staff, pupils, parents and carers. The research team also met with the further and higher education sectors as well as employers. A national call for evidence was issued with 700 responses; half of these included students. The review also worked on various Welsh Government policy reports, Estyn reports and widely, such as examples of education approach in the rest of the UK and globally.

I detail key contents of the curriculum changes below which is proposed in the Donaldson report.

Purpose

The Donaldson report outlines the most fundamental question; that is, the purpose of education and according to the report, it should support all children and young people to become ambitious, capable learners; enterprising, creative contributors; ethical, informed citizens, and

healthy, confident individuals as shown in the below diagram. According to the report, the school curriculum should be designed to help all children and young people to develop, in relation to clear and agreed purposes. It is argued that the purposes should be constructed so that they can directly influence decisions about curriculum, pedagogy and assessment.

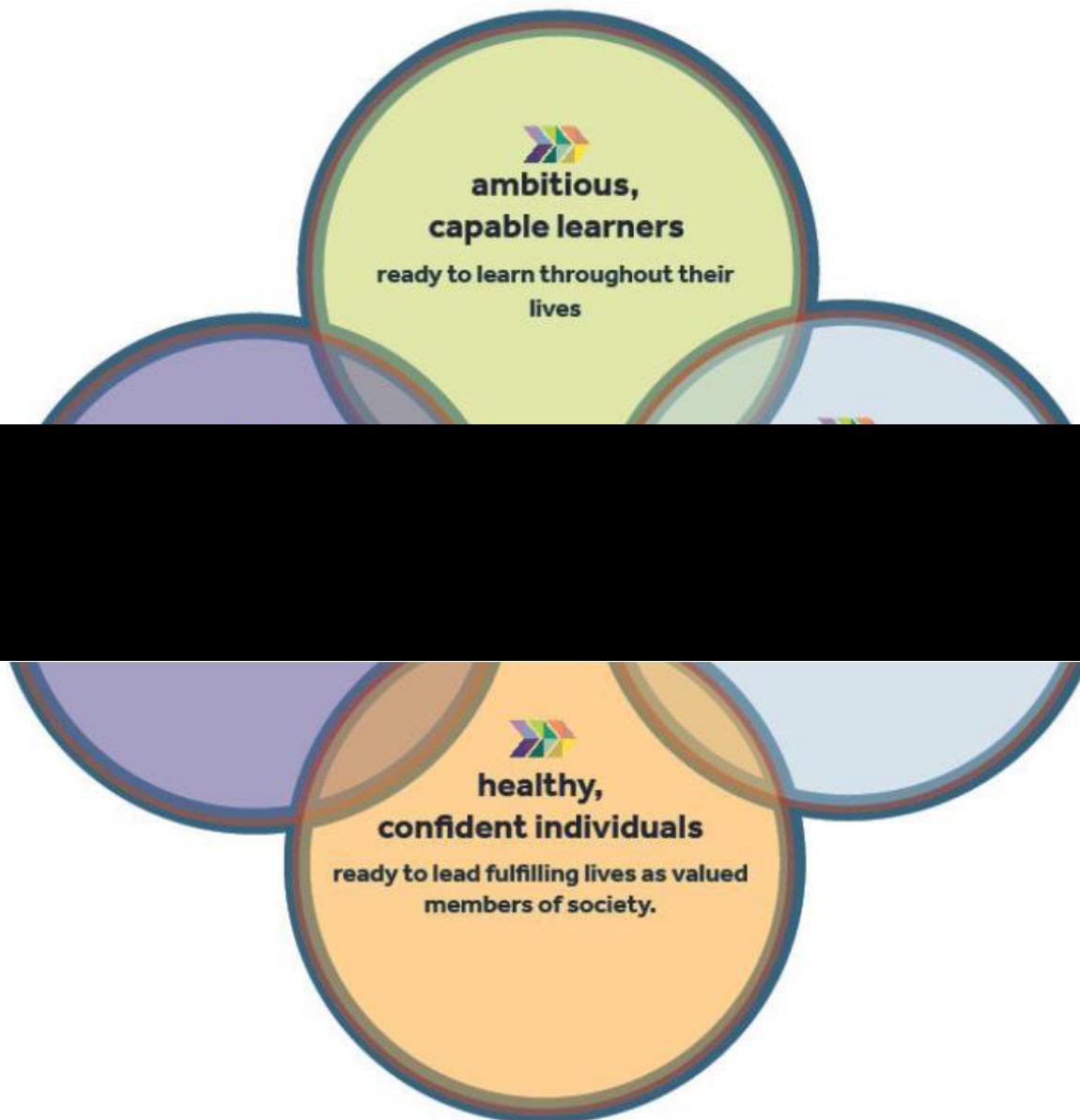


Fig. 5.1 Four purposes of the curriculum (Donaldson, 2015). Source: WG (2015)

The report suggests pupils to be rooted in local cultural setting as well as being responsible citizens to Wales and the world having “understanding of democracy, human rights, interdependence, sustainability and social justice” (Donaldson, 2015 p28). Almost concurrently, OECD’s 2014 findings on Welsh education sector suggest lack of aims and purpose in education, therefore there is the need to develop a common vision for learners. Purpose is the basis to think of curriculum, its design, delivery and assessment – a debate that connects with public value (objective of public bodies) as discussed in the literature review.

Areas of Learning

The report suggests that there should be six areas of learning and experiences. These are:

- Expressive arts
- Health and wellbeing
- Humanities
- Languages, literacy and communication
- Mathematics and numeracy
- Science and technology

The curriculum needs to have literacy, numeracy and digital competency as a cross-curriculum responsibility; the latter is a development as discussed earlier, reflecting its importance for young learners in an increasingly digital world. Many of these areas, similar to the other recommendations, also come from practices elsewhere in the world– such as expressive arts which is arts in its broadest approach such as music, drama, arts, design from Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The report suggests that, together with the three cross-curriculum areas, the wider skills of critical thinking, problem solving, planning and organising, creativity and innovation, and personal effectiveness are all essential attributes necessary for pupils.

Structure of the Curriculum

The principles of curriculum design mandates the curriculum to be authentic, meaning it should be rooted in Welsh values and culture and aligned with an agreed set of stated purposes, evidence-based, responsive to change, inclusive (not creating any disadvantage), ambitious, empowering, unified and integrated, engaging, based on subsidiarity (ie. leadership at local level), and manageable for assessment and accountability.

The report states that the structure of the curriculum should reflect directly and promote the curriculum purposes and support for pupils with a disability and to promote progression in learning among all pupils. It should offer both depth and connections of learning and diverse application. The report also gives guidance on how pupils should progress within the curriculum. Furthermore, the report provides pedagogical principles; these support purpose, curriculum discipline areas and assessment thereof.

Assessment and Evaluation

According to the report, assessment of educational and wider attainment should:

- align assessment with the purposes of learning
- be clear about the reasons for assessment and plan in advance for the intended uses of assessment results
- promote the use of a wide range of techniques that are appropriate to their purpose
- engage students in their own assessment

The assessment and evaluation aspect opens up a debate on two interconnected areas that have a general relevance to this thesis. Firstly, as in the first suggestion above, the purpose serves as the basis for such assessment, similar to that which was discussed regarding public value in literature review. Secondly, the question remains; who should judge the outcome of learning beyond teacher and students themselves, such as family or employers. It, therefore links to the

debate in literature review that who should be the appropriate arbiter of value and measure outcomes.

Professional Development and the New National Approach

The changing curriculum provides a case for knowledge and expertise that all teachers should possess and their sustained professional development should enable them to assess curriculum purposes, process and outcomes. According to the report, initial and career-long professional learning programmes should include elements that build a teachers capacity to assess the full range of curriculum purposes, achievements and outcomes.

In response to the report, the Welsh Government is making sweeping changes across the education sector, such as the new national approach to professional learning. In this new approach to professional learning, leaders and teachers will be afforded higher levels of autonomy and agency in schools and classrooms. The new curriculum is driven by four purposes, and just as they are at the heart of learning in schools, they need to be at the heart of the professional learning experiences of practitioners at all levels of the system. Beyond schools, as shown in the model below, these elements are linked to local and broader connected contexts. The model proposes eight interconnected elements around pedagogy, accreditation, standards, process and resources. At the very core of the model is the learner within the school as well as it is overall (most outside sphere) showing that professional learning begins and ends with the best interests of learners, thus enhancing learning experiences and outcomes for them.



Fig. 5.2 National Approach to Professional Learning. Welsh Government (2017b)

5.1.3 Business Class and New Curriculum

The proposed new curriculum in Wales puts emphasis on experience, skills development and holistic achievements for pupils alongside knowledge, which is closely related to the Business Class (BC) programme. As introduced in the first chapter and discussed in detail in the next section (5.2), the Business Class programme is a UK-wide programme where businesses volunteer to deliver mainly employability skills in pupils in secondary education who face multiple disadvantages including deprivation. The BC programme has the possibility to contribute to the curriculum in a number of ways. Firstly, BC offers opportunities to learn

experientially beyond the school walls. This includes a reinforcement of learning collaboratively with others. Secondly, the programme can help remove perceived limitations to achievement and ability through catalysing interest, increasing aspiration and improving confidence among pupils. Thirdly, pupil experience in businesses, other organisations and activities exposes them to first-hand information that offers a context for their learning, which in turn improves engagement. Fourth, it exposes pupils to rich learning experiences in which basic skills like literacy, numeracy and speaking skills can be practiced. The report specifically suggests the promotion, coherence and encouragement children and young people need to have in order to make connections across different aspects of their learning, a practice advanced in Singapore.

Amid this context and among other approaches, the Business Class programme, as described in the introduction of this chapter, aims to address the effects of deprivation and the issues in school performance and curriculum, mainly at the high school level. Through this programme, businesses' offer to provide employability, other diverse skills and experience in order to match the needs of schools in Wales, specifically in the context of deprivation and multiple disadvantages faced by pupils, as discussed above. Furthermore, employers concerns about lack of employability and related skills in graduates is echoed through Welsh Government and their funding of the BC programme to address these issues. Fundamentally, BC is designed to help prevent social background predicting a young person's success at school and beyond by improving their understanding of the World of Work (WoW), their awareness of career choices and aids development of their employability skills. BC's support lies mainly in the domains of: leadership and governance in school, curriculum, enterprise and employability skills and joint efforts to tackle wider societal issues, thus helping to build a holistic support for schools. BC programme's holistic approach helps businesses' engagement with schools in multiple areas to ultimately enhance educational attainment, life chances and employability for pupils; therefore to offset the effect of deprivation, multiple disadvantages and contributions to important improvements in curriculum and other national policies.

In the next section, I will discuss how the Business Class programme is making a difference in England by reviewing various research reports.

5.2 BUSINESS CLASS PROGRAMMES IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Business Class is an education programme run by Business in the Community (BITC) charity that offers a framework for schools and businesses to work together in a mutually beneficial way towards a key goal of preventing social background that may predict a young person's success at school and beyond (BITC, 2017). The programme is delivered in highly deprived areas. Business Class started in 2008 and is now a UK-wide programme designed to offer a support infrastructure within which businesses and schools work in partnership. These partnerships usually consist of one school and one business, but they are also part of a local 'cluster' group of partnerships. Each cluster is designed to offer further support to the partnerships within it.

The relationship between schools and businesses is intended to be one that brings benefits and value to both parties. The exact priorities and detailed activities undertaken in each partnership depend on both the needs of the school and the nature of the business. In addition, the cluster is intended to augment this value through shared experience, collaborations and mutual support. The process by which schools are matched with organisations is based on a detailed needs analysis to ensure a fit, as far as possible, between the partners.

Business Class is composed of four activity pillars which are:

- Leadership and Governance
- Enterprise and Employability
- Curriculum Support
- Wider issues (societal and others)

The Business Class programme originally started in the north west region of England in 2008 with six business and their school pairs which rapidly increased with the establishment of a further 30 partnerships by 2009. Within this context, the UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES) enabled the national rollout of Business Class in 2013, raising the number of established partnerships from 215 to 476 across the UK in 3 years.

Business Class developments in Wales started in 2013 mainly for schools in the heads of the valleys and partly in north Wales and in Cardiff and Newport region with businesses paying

licensing fees for the running of the programme within the school. Welsh Government's funding in 2015 helped expand the programme in most part of Wales under the 'enhanced employer engagement' project funding for BC in order to implement a more consistent and sustainable approach to employer engagement with secondary schools. Business Class in Wales is delivered through a government organisation called Careers Wales. The programme is continually expanding in Wales with sixty-six established partnerships in October 2016 rising to eighty-one in the spring of 2017.

I now review the research carried out to evaluate the Business Class programme in England as below.

5.2.1 Business Class in England: Warwick Report 2015

University of Warwick's Institute for Employment Research carried out an evaluation on impact of Business Class (BC) on pupils in England who had or were yet to participate in BC programme from 2013 to 2015. Their research, led by Lynn Gambin and Terence Hogarth, is parallel to Yates et al. (2011) in terms of focus on the alignment of career aspirations in pupils and risk of them becoming NEET (not in employment, education or training). Their evaluation report in 2015 is mainly a quantitative study employing context-mechanism-output approach (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The research primarily uses questionnaire on pupils (six hundred and thirteen in intervention group and three hundred and fifty four comparator non-treatment group) between those who received BC and others who didn't (they were yet to receive it) supplemented by seventy five semi-structured interviews with pupils and employers in five cluster networks.

In their research, data from survey and interviews were put separately. For example, the statements "I believe that involvement in BC will help my pupils do better in the job" by school staff within the school experience section and similarly, within employee volunteers section, where business staff volunteers (39% of them) claim that BC activity "Improved [pupil's] knowledge of the careers options open to them". Similarly, reflecting on interviews with pupils, statements such as: "Mock interviews were particularly valued because of the feedback that the pupil received afterwards from the employer's volunteer" speak about the same or very similar

matters. These statements are about very similar matters of student benefit on employability from the perspectives of school staff, business staff and pupils themselves; however these were never put together, whereas the final conclusion of the report summarizes at the end. This approach of putting different types of data separately creates disadvantages when trying to establish facts and specify phenomenon as their convergence using triangulation (Yin, 2009) could perhaps create a joint reality shared by various stakeholders (Rubin and Rubin, 1995) such as in Hansen and Spitzack's (2011) case study reviewed in chapter two.

It is important to note that their goal for evaluation was primarily to understand how various interventions bring about positive outcomes for pupils. In other words, the purpose of Warwick research is akin to: 'is all this activity (BC) going to help in getting jobs/career (which comparator group does not have)'. The research gives much information about the knowledge of the pupils such as about job and, their perception and how they engage in activity.

The background context of BC in England is of a high level of disadvantage and general deficit of skills / knowledge, so labour market demands for skills, attributes and attitude in pupils. The enterprise and employability related activities form the largest portion of activity. Other areas involve teacher and leadership support and the less mentioned numeracy-literacy skills; likewise outings to office premises for pupils and work placements. One of the advantages of people from industry being involved in BC delivery is that it helps pupils to switch on and take seriously the information and activity which comes from such experienced industry people, and also pupils value one to one engagement with employers.

Benefits to Schools

School participating in BC programme report a good relationship with employers. They also reported massive benefits from it though it is not very clear due to the fact that it is difficult to isolate effects to an organisation, as the benefits would be accrued by staff, leadership or pupils in the school. The evidences are unclear as to how they reached this conclusion of benefit for schools but the report grossly claims "impact on leadership and governance, management skills and wider knowledge among teaching staff of the opportunities for pupils in the future" (Gambin and Hogarth, 2015 p37). Within schools, pupils benefited from first-hand information

by people from industry. They also reported an increase in employability skills and the understanding of the world of work among pupils. Similarly, they benefited from work experience too.

Benefits to Businesses

The usual networking kind of benefit, such as increase of business contact through involvement in BC, was a positive outcome. The staff development benefit for participating staff in businesses (knowledge and skills) was also reported in Warwick report. Similarly, business staff surveyed in England expressed their satisfaction for volunteering and better motivation. The report offers more details on placement; for example, how this benefited the business staff beyond the pupils as primary beneficiaries.

BC was also considered a way to showcase business responsibility in their community and through this, it gave reputation related advantage as well as potential recruitment related benefits.

Cluster Mechanism

The generic purpose of cluster is to share best practices, learning, innovation and improvement, as well as working on shared issues and commitment and relationships among businesses and schools.

In parallel to Warwick's research, BEAN Research carried out impact assessment focussed on business education partnerships, businesses, school teachers and management, as well as evaluating the characteristics of success, incorporating Warwick's findings in 2015, as discussed below.

5.2.2 Business Class in England: Bean Research 2015

The Bean research titled ‘destiny should not be determined by demography : building alignment between the classroom and the boardroom’ was commissioned by BITC in 2015 to examine the success factors of school-business partnerships. They used qualitative (one to one interviews) and quantitative methods (administered online) for their research in 2015. This was not necessarily restricted to Business Class partnerships, and the findings also incorporated the Warwick 2015 report on BC England evaluation.

The findings from the Bean report are summarised as below:

- Partnerships generally fulfil their overall objectives of increasing understanding of the workplace and improving employability among pupils.
- Impact on schools also included advances in leadership and management skills among staff, and in some cases financial savings.
- Clarity of mutual purpose, senior level ‘buy-in’ and regular contact and long term single employer partnership were significant success factors in business-school partnership.
- Added value for business was based on enhanced reputation, workforce engagement and improved recruitment.

5.2.3 Business Class in England: Cass Report 2010

An evaluation was carried out on Business Class projects in England by Cass Business School, City University of London in 2010 led by Peter Grant. The Business Class originally started in the north west region of England in 2008 with six business and their school pairs, this rapidly increased with the establishment of a further thirty partnerships by 2009. The aim of the BC programme was to work with ‘most deprived secondary schools’ strategically instead of ad hoc and short-term practices at that time. There were 36 partnerships in five clusters in the region which is the background for their research. The average length of involvement in the programme was twenty two months for schools and 18 months for businesses but it is also reported interviewing one each, in four and six months in partnership.

Methods

Interviews with BITC staff, its board members, government development agency executives and staff from businesses and schools involved in the BC programme as well as a questionnaire for the businesses (ten) and schools (eighteen) were carried out in 2010 for the research. In addition, the questionnaire, according to them, had the express purpose of how partnership had travelled in their journey to meet programme objectives and the role of cluster within it. The questions were based on four pillars of BC programme – as described at the beginning of this section – and additionally they also asked about long-term sustainability of partnership and contribution towards businesses’ objectives on CSR.

Impact Measurement

The fundamental approach to understanding benefits to stakeholders and success of the programme in their research is through perceived change (distance travelled) in the business-school partnership journey and everything that comes through BC programme, including cluster as opposed to standardised targets, despite the programme following classic logic model approach when planning and setting up objectives. Consequently, the researcher at Cass conclude that measures of probable impact needs to be identified, not just the targets. “To achieve a more realistic picture of the probable impact of Business Class some measures should be qualitative and some should be independently validated by the schools and businesses themselves” (Grant, 2010 p25). According to this statement, a distinct approach taken in their research is the integration of quantitative and qualitative data as testified by various stakeholders of the BC programme as well as discussion of relevant other research simultaneously based on the subject matter or theme (of research area). This approach, though not explicit in the report, relates to triangulation in evaluation, usually used in case study approach.

As the programme was in an early stage, no baseline was recorded, so the interviews and questionnaires played a proxy role. Likewise, a comparator group using a control sample of schools was not possible; thus, they have used Business Class partnerships at different stages of their development as indicator for such purpose.

Key Findings

Business Class facilitates partnerships between schools and businesses, and benefits both parties where quality of partnership (depth and breadth) is highlighted – as opposed to one-dimensional single method school-employer link – where the former has potential for greater impact. Business Class, according to them, may be significantly more successful in developing the depth and breadth of partnership and also generally presenting deeper level of social innovation (Kanter, 1999). Furthermore, using KPMG (2010) criteria for varying degrees of business-school partnership (limited or no, intermediate, advanced, exemplary categories), they found that 76% of the schools are in an exemplary category.

Both schools and businesses believed progress was achieved in the following six domains because of the Business Class programme as accounted through before and after increase in percentile; this is also highlighted in the radar chart below.

Leadership and governance	25%
Student employability	40%
Optimism in sustaining partnership (long-term)	Businesses 32% Schools 57%
In achieving wider goals such as absence management for staff, transition from primary to secondary, work with gifted and talented students, Breakfast clubs	Businesses 34% Schools 40%
Schools considered that programme had improved students' academic achievement	38%

Businesses reported improvements in meeting CSR objective	23%
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Fig. 5.3a Six Comparators (percentile). Grant (2010)

The collated results for schools and businesses separately against key objectives showing before and after measurement using radar chart.

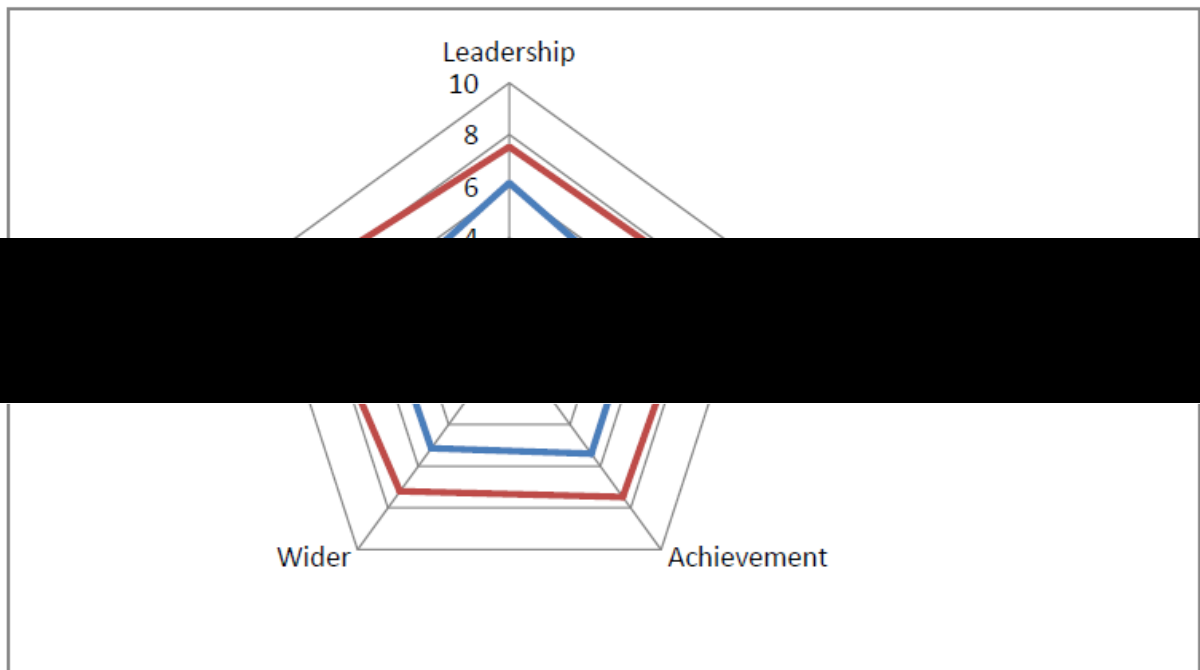


Fig. 5.3b Six Comparators (radar chart) – schools. Grant (2010)

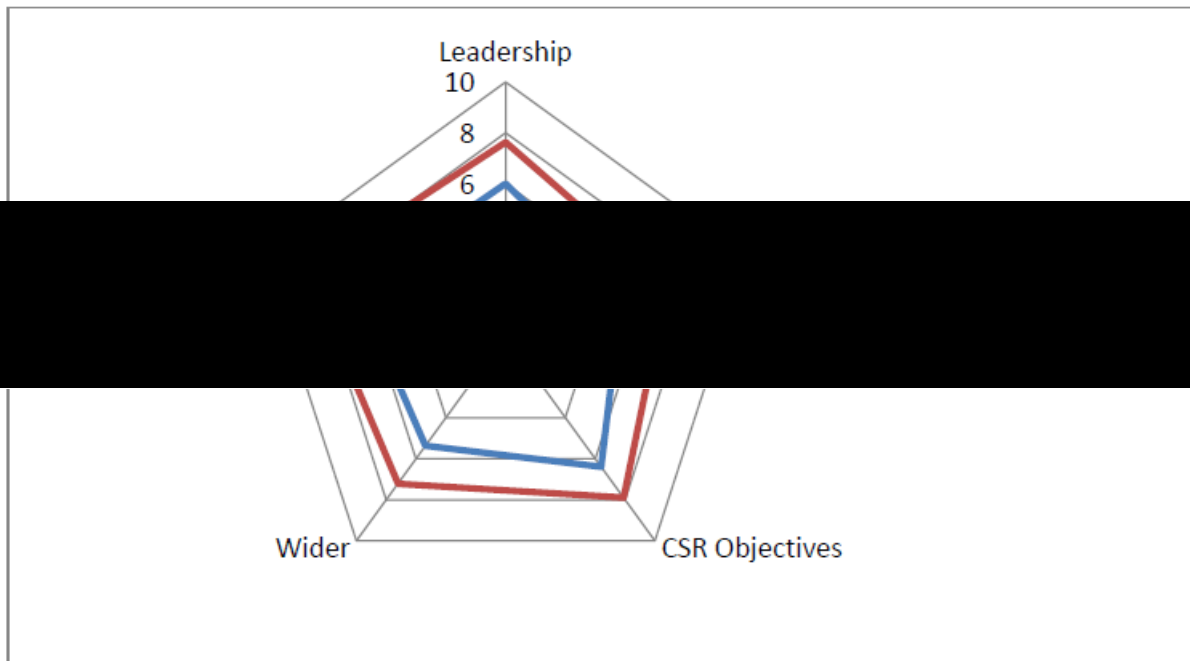


Fig. 5.3c Six Comparators (radar chart) – businesses. Grant (2010)

The Cass research on BC England identifies that both businesses and schools highly value the usefulness of cluster network for: support, sharing experience and increasing contacts and involvements. Likewise, it was reported that both schools and businesses value BITC’s role in the programme.

Further Suggestions

In the report, Grant (2010) suggests measuring impact periodically, including baseline, before the commencement of the programme (which they did not have) as well as during programme (annually) and after. Likewise, they suggest tracking participants over time through online diaries for school/business staff and pupils to support perception survey for qualitative data.

As one of the unanswered question during their research, they ask how young people might be more actively engaged in planning and delivery of Business Class. Likewise, they suggest whether BC could expand to or move to being community based from schools.

CONCLUSIONS

The Welsh context of education faces multiple challenges of socio-economic deprivation, poor performance of schools and ongoing radical changes in school curriculum. With its own innovative and indigenous educational products – such as Welsh Bacalaureate qualification and Digital Competence Framework and proposed curriculum that embeds local cultural, language and citizenship commitment whilst also aiming to incorporate best features of education approaches from around the world – it is an ambitious undertaking for the government and multiple stakeholders in education in Wales. The role of the Business Class programme in building skills, confidence and opportunities for pupils connects very well with such challenges and solutions underway in various forms, such as curriculum change and new professional development framework for teachers. The research on the English context of Business Class builds upon how such benefits to pupils as well as other stakeholders overcome multiple disadvantages and barriers in order that young persons will succeed at school and beyond.

The common methodological approach to these researches on Business Class in England by Cass and Warwick universities, as well as the Bean Research, is the use of more than one type of data (questionnaire and interviews). As evaluative research, they establish a range of benefits for multiple stakeholders (eg. businesses and schools), mainly the recipients of the programme which are school pupils. The research aim is to represent diverse perspectives of various stakeholders and attempt to combine these, so as to “piece together a picture of the impact” (Gambin and Hogarth, 2015 p13). The research use pre and post intervention effect, like Cass, or the comparator group, like Warwick, in order to establish what would have happened to them without the programme intervention (Clark et al., 2004). However, the risk of evaluating narrowly – what is predefined by the programme’s aims and objectives or research design – is that it can fail to comprehensively capture all outcomes of the programme on multiple stakeholders. Furthermore, their approach to place various data separately, as opposed to converging them based on topical area, is an issue identified within the Warwick report. The research on English context of Business Class generally suggests benefits for schools such as leadership development and for businesses, it was an opportunity to demonstrate social responsibility, support workforce engagement and enhance their reputation. Pupils benefited from employability skills, knowledge on careers and confidence building. The clusters in both cases are shown to have real advantages on sharing and collaborations. It shows that Business

Class is able to produce benefit to multiple stakeholders involved in the programme. However, the reports do not present benefits to BITC or other support organisations.

The next two chapters will present findings of Business Class programme in Wales.

CHAPTER SIX : FINDINGS

Business Class operations in Wales

INTRODUCTION

This chapter together with the next chapter presents data collected from various stakeholders of the Business Class (BC) programme namely businesses, schools and support organisations, using multiple sources of evidences such as interviews, documents and observations. These multiple data are synthesized (see appendix 7) and presented based on the topics in various sections within this as well as the next findings chapters.

Following coding and analysis of data as described in the methodology chapter, I now present three key themes: what was already there in the site of research (context), BC's organisational network system (cluster), and how activities for schools were put together in partnership with businesses within the BC programme (activities). These three elements of context, cluster and activities form the basis of the programme and the value creation process, presented in this chapter. In this way, this chapter establishes the setting how Business Class operates in Wales.

The rest of the findings are presented in the next chapter which evaluates the value BC creates and establish who accrues the value. In both the finding chapters, summaries are presented at the end of every main section, in order to recall what was said in the long presentation of data.

As detailed in the last chapter and to recall, Business Class is a programme connecting businesses and schools for mutually beneficial partnerships, to help pupils mainly in deprived areas. The intellectual property and overall management of BC is run by UK wide business membership charity BITC, delivered by Welsh Government's subsidiary organisation Career Wales and funded by the Welsh Government.

Throughout this chapter and the next, both organisations and people interviewed or observed have been made anonymous using alphanumeric code in order to follow the research protocol.

For the purpose of data presentation, names of support organisations in BC are not made evident in most places when possible (despite being authorized for it), therefore they do not become a distraction when reading.

In the first part of the findings chapter, key elements of how Business Class functions is identified in terms of the local context of deprivation, organisational network (cluster) being built through this programme and activities mainly carried out by businesses in schools. So, context, cluster and activity are presented in three major sections as follows. Using the three elements of the programme, a diagram is presented at the end of this chapter for a graphic description to make sense of BC programme and how value is created within it. This chapter forms the foundation, based on which, the next chapter presents value and impact of the programme.

6.1 CONTEXT

As described in the introduction above, the Business Class (BC) programme started in Wales in 2013 and supports schools, mainly in deprived areas. In order to make sense of any activity in the schools with help from their stakeholders, it is important to understand their social and economic context. For some, the deprivation might mean economic status of the place or people yet for others, it might be the implication of the deprivation in the mind of people and affairs of life. In this sense, the economic and social context could be presumed to be closely linked to cultural expectations and aspirations.

In this key section on context, the economic deprivation, issues of school performance, pupils' ability/performance, changes to curriculum, and incentives (or the lack of it) for the school's wider connections are presented.

Aspirations and Economic Deprivation

The Business Class programme focusses on and is delivered to schools in most economically deprived areas. What it means about living in such context and response to the issue is explained by various businesses and schools in the interview extracts below.

A manager in a large American multinational business in South Wales (BIZ11), partnered with a school in Cardiff in the Business Class programme, said the following about the place the school is situated:

“Fairly sort of run down area, to be honest with you.”

Similarly, a head teacher in a school within the valleys of Wales (SCH15) brings the issue of economic deprivation stating:

“I suppose we are [a] truly comprehensive school, we love everything in [this] school, its lovely green suburbs... but actually we have lot of students who come to us from [a nearby valley]. We’ve got 14% school meal from year 8.”

Free school meals as noted by the school head teacher above, Communities First programme and the Welsh Index of Multiple Deprivation (Appendix-1) are indicators of local socio-economic deprivation.

A large non-profit social business manager in west Wales (BIZ17) reinforces the above context of deprivation stating:

“there are five Communities First wards in the town – areas of deprivation and see how we [the business] can run the second year [of school activity]”.

As mentioned above, Communities First programmes have a function to tackle poverty in highly deprived areas in Wales, to which the manager refers here.

A manager at a large UK company’s foundation (BIZ04) speaks of the background and complexity of social problems affecting students relating with examples from community and girls particularly, saying:

“These girls are trainees, are living in flat mood all the time, they can’t think about tomorrow and we’ve to start doing that and interestingly for some of the difficult pupils that we get sensed from both schools – I can see [in them] similar traits, and its chaotic home life that is impacting on their inability to learn.”

Similarly, a school teacher in a leadership role, from the Welsh valleys (SCH25) suggests similar social problems stating:

“...we’ve not got many role models with the boys, a lot of them are brought up by females. So and also a lot of single parents and also lot of them have lost their parents.”

In the context of such multiple deprivation faced by pupils, the examples above suggest lack of aspiration to be one of the key issues. It also makes clear the presence of various socio-economic disadvantages, which is negatively affecting their personal and social life along with school performance.

Issues of Performance in School and Pupils

The socio-economic deprivation as discussed last is not the only issue, but the poor performance of school is notable in this business manager’s (BIZ11) experience of working with their partner school in BC, as she said:

“The school I think has had a few years where it had concerns with Ofsted [Estyn in Wales] and like as I said, the maths department things, were completely overhauled because they just was not operating well, the results were not where they should be. However, from speaking to them, they’ve gone quite a long way and you know and it just seems great.”

Similarly, a teacher in a senior management position (SCH19) in a school in a South Wales valley said about the outcome of inspection from education regulators in Wales, the Estyn:

“We’ve had Estyn inspection, we had some key recommendations and one of it was, one of which was around for example oracy and confidence in speaking...”

Here the teacher shows some of the key issues in student ability (oracy and confidence) and these being some of the needs for partnership with the business. This school also supports students studying offsite who are “more challenging children with very low aspirations and some social issues around, for example drug use and crime” (SCH19).

The issues of confidence and aspiration in pupils are widely prevalent; this is exemplified below, through the interviewer’s (shortened as ‘intv’ below) conversation with a school teacher who has a leadership role in the careers department of the school (SCH25).

SCH25: They [the partner business] had actually attitude application form... So all different job specs, they had to choose. Then they had a deadline to send it in, they actually went out, just look smart and they had live interviews and feedback coming back was amazing. [the business], they had a team together and the feedback [was], they said, ‘they would employ them now’.

Intv: That’s a really novel way.

SCH25: The kids [said] didn’t do very well miss, didn’t do very well and these [are] good kids.

Intv: So, even the talented and able lack aspirations as well?

SCH25: Yes!

So, girl who was [saying] I’m rubbish. I said no, you went, you did fantastic and I know you’ve seen it.. this is not about me I said, they were actually [takes long breath expressing amazement]...

The widespread lack of aspiration and confidence even among the more talented and able (MAT) pupils despite the success of their application and mock interview with the partner business as stated above in the interview excerpts, shows the extent of lack of belief that pupils have in their own abilities. Interviews as well as other sources of data (see appendix 7) evidence the lack of aspirations issue in pupils.

In addition to this context in schools, as discussed above, cluster networks within BC programme also identify aspirations to be a major issue. A proposed joint cluster event in the Cardiff cluster reads as following (in their meeting minute):

“A discussion was held about the proposed Joint Cluster event and the following was agreed by all present:-

- Date for Cluster Event 25th October 2017 – all felt June/ July was now too short a deadline
- Objective to “Raise Aspirations”
- Each school identify 10-15 Year 9 pupils and provide own transport
- Venue Principality Stadium- Presidents [sic] Lounge...”

The objective of the event in the Cardiff cluster was to ‘raise aspiration’ by using a very famous venue (stadium) and its premier space (president’s lounge), and a tour of the stadium. This shows the depth of both the problem of a lack of aspiration and the solution offered for it. Visiting of such premium places, and in other instances meeting a famous personality to increase the aspiration and confidence of pupils, features highly among many business-school partnerships; this is detailed later in activity section of this chapter.

These evidences show the gravity of problem, as well as collective commitment from businesses, schools and their stakeholders, to tackle it. This is notable because it comes from Welsh capital city cluster. So, despite occasional mention of MAT pupils and their relatively better performance, the general context of deprivation and lack of aspiration is substantial.

Likewise, deprivation is such a widespread problem that different institutions beyond business and schools, such as the local authority tacitly or explicitly ask businesses to contribute in education (alongside their business) as stated by a manager of a large multinational company (BIZ07) “As you’d imagine with local government, a lot of them are around educational aspirations”. Here, the business seven manager means local authorities seeking educational support from bidders of public projects. Similarly, a manager at a countrywide company (BIZ26) which works in building homes and regeneration for local authorities says they ask for such requirements (eg. education) to be met in the bid process.

Similar to the proposed cluster events to raise aspiration, as discussed above, many businesses organized trips for students to larger cities, for example, Cardiff. They provide them with a visit to the stadium or high quality hotels in order that the students can experience different physical and cultural environment. An example of this is described by a manager of a large Welsh building society (BIZ01) in the below interview quote:

“Free meal school to start with, one of the things we did for all those students was to take to [five star hotel] on away day, give them nice lunch as well, and they can talk about jobs...”

Thus far, it is evident from the above discussions that the problem with the geographic place and the school (pupils’ grades and ability) is shown and the below astonishment from business manager [BIZ11] suggests another kind of problem in school, which is school’s management:

“...when the acting head said, some days she has that about 60 teachers ill over winter (in December) – the day before [total staff about 150]. So, it was a significant amount. We just thought – how on earth, I think it might a bit lower than that actually but ... even if it were half of them [gestures agreement with the interviewer].

We opened our eyes to – oh my goodness – how do you operate as a school that day without that [staffs] and I thought we might have absence issues and we’ve realized that it’s all industries and sectors.”

In the conversation above, the business manager gives a tentative number of total staff and absence showing a startling issue faced by the school which is staff management.

Schools’ managerial capabilities as well as educational performance, coupled with local deprivation and poor pupil performance, present a very challenging context in Welsh education sector. The lack of aspirations and confidence in the pupils is a key issue, as much as the local authorities are raising this issue through bidding process; and responses from businesses regarding the stadium and hotel visit mirrors this deeper issue. In a nutshell, education performance, confidence and aspiration among pupils and school management are some of the main issues identified in the discussions above.

Curriculum

In this subsection on curriculum, I present the challenge of current educational culture and regulatory system where the evidences show that there is lack of appreciation and incentives for the activities carried out in schools by businesses via the Business Class programme. The schools, as mentioned above, are inspected based on results on GCSE outcomes or pupil grades, so some schools or teachers do not always see the value added by Business Class. It is the tension between core results and wider outcomes for pupils that will be explained using the testimony of interviewees. A manager at the charity managing Business Class (CHA03) explains the problem in the context of a new curriculum building in Wales, stating:

“...the Estyn inspection body are having a review at the moment to catch up with the changes in curriculum and how they inspect schools, so at the moment, they don’t really look for this sort of partnership working with external people; they look for something called ‘community’ I think but actually, they don’t look for this partnership working.”

So here, according to the above statement, the BC business-school partnerships do not seem to be counted by the government inspectorate to judge the educational attainment. Many schools were not able to prioritize the Business Class programme because of their struggle in a very busy environment in schools and in fact, this was evident during research interviews.

Some examples of observations made during my research interviews are: a deputy head (SCH20) who met with parents holding the interview, another school head teacher (SCH15) gave work instruction to her two staffs in the middle of the interview, and yet another assistant head (SCH33) was hurried at first during the interview because there was an exam and then some pupils called in later to say it went okay. Amid such a busy environment in the school, it might be rational for some schools to feel that Business Class is not something to prioritize, because it does not pay off directly or immediately on ‘grades’ – the main pupil outcome valued by education inspectors.

However, a school in the north east region of Wales (SCH29) recognizes the value of Business Class for pupils both now (alongside the curriculum) and for their future (transferrable skills and career) stating:

“I personally see it as added value. I think it goes hand in hand with what we deliver in school. It works alongside, you know, it's always good for these students to have that aspirations, that then obviously to understand what they are being taught in school, can and is transferred to the skills that they will require for future careers. So, I see it as added value without a shadow of a doubt.”

Likewise, the school's manager (SCH29) speaks about the Estyn's approach in wider connection stating that “they're as interested as not just in the grades, that they understand it's the whole approach”. Similarly, a manager at a government organisation delivering BC programme (GOV14) says “Estyn will identify where schools are working well with employers because they have to mention them against the ‘careers and world of work’ framework.”

The challenges of curriculum which relates to BC programme is explained by the director of the charity managing BC (CHA02):

“The cultural shift required is that this business partnerships working, feels like something extra to the curriculum. The curriculum has not embedded all the way through, so this isn't about, you know, how you teach with these partners; not you do curriculum and then do a bit of extra partnerships. So, they gonna find very quickly that this stuff is absolutely crucial, to be honest, to deliver against the curriculum and that's the thing of it, how you get to the point where it is the part of the day job, not the kind of ‘nice to have’.”

The ‘nice to have’ stuff (ie. BC) kind of attitude toward the programme is amplified by another manager (CHA06) in the charity stating:

“...there have been lots of opportunities from STEM organisations, charities, companies and companies were knocking on the doors of schools and saying ‘we can offer you this’ and the schools are saying, ‘I don't know what to take and it doesn't really help me but if that is what you're offering, I'll take it’.”

Integration of such additional support from BC programme mainly into the curriculum is important, thus it is not just ‘nice to have’ thing, as argued by BC managing charity director in above quotation (CHA02).

The importance of effective curriculum delivery is also visible within the demand through government contract. One of the objectives of the programme in original tender document (associated with GOV18) from the government reads as:

“Increase in the capacity of schools to deliver an effective careers and the world of work framework through increased employer engagement activities”

Activities which come under careers and world of work, also referred as enterprise and employability within various parts of this thesis, are prominent as the central theme of the programme, and are devised through the government contract for funding as quoted above. However, the issue here, as debated using interviews in this section, is that this strand of careers, employability and skills in curriculum – which is widely supported through BC programme – is not rewarded, as compared to the standard academic grades of performance. This has resulted in tensions between demands of the job market, commitment from schools and what schools can offer (through pupils) in an environment where academic grades in schools are widely celebrated as performance.

The need analysis carried out before starting a business-school partnership focusses on school needs and matching with business inputs, whereas schools often seem to be overtaken by the need of performance through grades rather than wider partnerships and skills development for pupils. In such a wider partnership, there is no direct incentive in their sight, whereas the education regulators view it as necessary but in a non-statutory fashion. However, as the charity manager (CHA03) says this is changing with the new curriculum and regulators reviewing it; thus it presents to be a positive environment for such business-school partnership outcomes if embedded in the curriculum, it will be valued and practiced with priority. In a similar vein, the government official (GOV18) says the push towards “a culture that recognises these other things that schools can deliver beyond just academic excellence”. Here, ‘these other things’ mean employer and wider connection of schools such as what BC does. It shows that Wales is expanding from a purely academic grade to wider outcomes for pupils; yet this currently faces practical tensions between balancing time for the classroom and for such connections and extracurricular activities.

Summary of Key Findings from the Context

The context of deprivation and issues in schools and pupils that has been presented above is complex and the below highlights will help summarize the issue and subsequent interpretation of it.

- Economic deprivation of areas where schools are situated and its impact in the society
- Performance in the school
 - Poor grade, poor pupil performance and concerns with regulators
 - Lack of aspirations and confidence
 - Management issues in schools (eg. staff)
 - Busy environment in schools
- Grades matter: the school inspectors valuing pupil performance mainly on grades
- School curriculum is changing

The school environment in Wales, with its complex issues of deprivation, is manifested in social and family life affecting pupils. It might be hard to correlate poverty with every issues presented here but there are interrelated problems. The schools face two key issues. First, poor results counted by regulators and associated with it the lack of professional management within the schools. The second yet harder issue is lack of aspirations and confidence in pupils despite a very limited example of ‘more able and talented’ (MAT) students and their relative successes.

In response to the above issues, what has been provided for the pupils also faces complexity. The local authorities have managed to get hold of contractors (through the bid) to help with ‘educational aspiration’ issues and their generic response is through literacy/numeracy support; this seems to be helping schools to some extent. Whereas, the broader solutions Business Class offers, such as for school management, student employability and wider social issues, it seems is not viewed by school as paying off into pupils’ grades as discussed earlier. Therefore, employer connection through BC seems more an optional activity to schools and some are unable to prioritize it amid busy environment in schools.

The planned new curriculum is flexible and focussed on the outcome of pupils using various experiences; so, simple activities such as going out for a tour of a stadium/hotel or meeting

famous people (facilitated through BC), helps them. These activities increase their aspirations, confidence and opportunity. If such activities offered by BC are accounted and valued by government and regulators, it can enhance the potential of the pupils.

6.2 CLUSTER

Following the description of local and broader context of multiple deprivation and lack of aspirations faced by pupils, schools and businesses alike discussed in the last section, I now discuss about cluster, an organisational network mechanism within the BC programme.

6.2.1 Background

A cluster is a local organisational network that brings together businesses and schools working alongside each other within the Business Class programme for collaborations and sharing. It usually (but not necessarily) covers an area similar to the local authority area and consisting of about five to six partnerships between business and school that work together and meet termly to collaborate. The size of cluster in terms of number of partnerships varies; for example, Cardiff has substantially more than average whereas the North-West Wales cluster is yet to be cemented by using technology for communication due to the remoteness of the area.

As of September 2017, there were twenty one clusters spread all over Wales, rising from just three in 2013-2014 pilot stage when the businesses had funded for the running of the BC programme in schools. Some businesses are involved with multiple schools within or across clusters.

This section will chiefly discuss the functions of cluster such as collaboration through sharing of best practices, curriculum support, creating resource pool through the business–school multiple partner approach and also advancements in cluster mechanism through technological innovation and organisational infrastructure.

6.2.2 Functions of Clusters

Different clusters have experienced different level of success but typically as stated above, it is a place for collaboration, thereby it helps enhance value creation. A manager in a large British media public company (BIZ12), despite facing problems in their school partnership, says that the cluster meetings were “really useful” where success stories and best practices, among other matters, are shared with other businesses and schools. I now present various aspects of collaboration discussed using below subsections.

Cluster Collaborations: sharing best practices, information and problems

Businesses and schools working within the cluster come together to share knowledge and best practices, and other deeper exchanges such as in curriculum and resources. These form organisational networks, enhancing value added through collaborations.

The essence of collaborations that takes place in the clusters is captured in the words of a manager (BIZ08) who said:

“What’s been delivered in other schools and working with other schools and vice versa and sometimes *you don’t want to reinvent the wheels*. If there is something that you’ve got, whether its resource or... and it’s good to share that information as well.”
[emphasis in italics mine]

There are various businesses undertaking different activities in schools and some of the best practices can be shared and used elsewhere without having to ‘reinvent the wheels’.

Similarly, one of the most common collaboration is sharing of information and best practices as stated in this school teacher’s (SCH25) comments below:

“We have had careers meetings in our cluster area. When we [are] talking with – obviously [charity managing BC] comes up with meeting, within our careers meetings and career advisers and coordinators. They... oh you did that, hang a minute, I’ll take that back in. Even in school, we’ve RCT and Merthyr for our career forums – so, taking

stuff from there to there; spread some words, and oh actually I might have a go with that.”

These examples show that there are various ways of collaborations that include simple things such as sharing information and best practices without having to ‘reinvent wheels’ for each BC partnership.

Cluster Collaborations: curriculum support

A director of an integrated school situated in the heads of the valleys [SCH19], (which are normally associated with south east Wales region in Welsh government regional school improvement consortium system), says:

“We go into Merthyr school which is being really helpful where we had the Welsh Bacc. as an issue and there was another school from Merthyr around the table and said, ‘we are actually a pioneer school for Welsh Bacc’. So, we want [to] come. We had link with [school 25 in Merthyr] established as a result of Business Class group [the cluster] and they’ve been to us and done some training and our staff have been over to them, so that would never come about because in education, we are in old wider Gwent (we’re way with Newport, Caerphilly and Cwmbran) but we’d never be paired with somebody from Merthyr for example, because they [government] set us up. So, that’s been really helpful.”

Here the BC has been able to bring particular partnership within curriculum (Welsh Baccalaureate) among the two schools which otherwise, in the government’s regional consortium system, would not have been able to come together. In this way, BC has helped more concretely in terms of curriculum collaboration through local cluster beyond the traditional administrative borders.

Cluster Collaborations: finding common consensus

Cluster meetings are also useful for creating common consensus among participating businesses and schools. Collaborations in the clusters are manifested in different ways, such as creating some systemic solutions which can be cluster-wide or beyond. A business manager (BIZ11) talks about the cluster meeting stating:

“... we meant to have cluster event each year that we all pull together, the general feeling I’ve got from that is, similar to the points earlier, [that] the schools want everything and we as businesses can’t provide everything. At one point, they wanted us to go around the school in the afternoon in each school. We can’t spend five days out of the businesses. We find a venue in Cardiff where all the kids and all the businesses are there and do something there but they were a bit of, schools wanted sole attention I think for an afternoon, but every business in the room was like ‘we just can’t do that’. We even said, we’d be happy, as the businesses, to pay for their transports to get them to the venue but we [are] just physically tied, it didn’t really happen.”

In the quote above, the business manager talks about the utility of cluster meeting to develop consensus with peer businesses participating in Business Class. In order to meet the increased demand from the schools, the businesses came up with a joint solution because dedicating resources individually would have been costly, thus raising the common voice ‘we just can’t do that’. So, there is a consensus building function as well as diverse collaborations within the cluster, such as sharing resources.

A similar version from an assistant head teacher at a comprehensive school in South Wales (SCH13) speaks about a cluster meeting where other peers shared their problems regarding committing to Business Class stating:

“a few of them said, look, you know, inspections have got in the way, and the timeframes and things have got in the way. Staff have got in the way of us actually doing what we wanted”

In this quote above, the school assistant head refers to the schools that underwent inspection when speaking about their struggles as a common voice for all.

Likewise, the cluster is sometimes seen as a useful mechanism for creating solutions for wider and systemic issues in the cluster area. A manager at the charity (CHA03) gives an example as below:

“So the clusters will get together and discuss what’s the issue in that area, so it could be an issue about STEM skills, it could be an issue about, for heads of valleys [cluster], drinks (problems in schools with students drinking energy drinks and how we could tackle that), so we decided to work on that as a cluster competition. Each cluster event [can] be slightly different but it would involve people getting together collaborating.”

The wider issue that is prevalent in the cluster region is about the energy drinks consumed by pupils; this is a concern that the partner businesses and schools in the clusters want to resolve through events and activities. Such activities fall under the fourth pillar of the BC programme called ‘wider societal issues’ as shown in section 6.3.1 below.

Here, the collaborations manifest in building consensus among businesses as well as schools particular to their cases and likewise in providing solutions to wider issues where individual partnerships would be less adequate.

Cluster Collaborations: multiple partnership and pooled resources

As stated in the beginning of this section on collaboration using BIZ08 quotation ‘reinvent the wheels’, the sharing of resources is another benefit of the cluster. A school assistant head in South Wales (SCH13) speaks about it to suggest what went in and also reflect on the official version of the charity managing the Business Class.

“You've got a lot of sort of big companies that can offer those specific things. So what we're trying to say was, can we pool that a little bit more so rather than going out to those businesses, those businesses can sort of deliver those modules in school. I know [a bank] were looking at sort of financial planning moving forward and they were very keen to say look, we're not just with one school, we'd offer this to everyone who needed it. So I see that being the direction of the school.”

This interview extract above shows how beyond the pairing system of partnership between one business and one school; the resources and activities being made available by businesses can also be shared or carried out with other schools. Likewise, the below quote from BC charity manager (CHA03) gives a precise example of how this looks:

“the cluster gives you the opportunity for a school who might be partnered with a retail business for example, to get access to construction business to finance business, to leisure and tourism business – because those businesses are in that cluster, they will share their materials or their time with the other schools in the cluster as well.”

The school-business normally had mutual one-to-one partnerships which seem to be moving towards multiple partners. Multiple partnership and connections, whereas a school has access to more than one business, can create pooled resources for sharing with others in clusters as stated by schools and other stakeholders.

Beyond the collaborations that take place at cluster networks, some businesses have partnerships with multiple schools within BC programme. Furthermore, their external connections through charities or other nationwide social initiatives enhances resources for schools which is discussed in a section titled ‘external linkages’ later within this chapter.

Cluster Collaborations: cluster and collaborative activities

Schools have unique opportunities to come together with other businesses to showcase talent through different competitions, such as one held in early 2017 in the Senedd in Cardiff (home of National Assembly for Wales) for schools in the heads of the valleys cluster in association with other external initiative to design and create a product/technology on sustainable energy. Based on activities and collaborations, this cluster seems to have more champions. The sustainable energy competition is an example of events within a cluster but the potential of expanding to inter-cluster and higher level events seems possible. This I will discuss next.

A business manager (BIZ26) hailing from another cluster in South Wales valleys speaks of her experience in going to another nearby cluster event, stating:

“We’ve (myself and head teacher at [partner] school) been invited to other cluster – the heads of the valleys cluster to share [and] listen to what they were doing and how much further along the line. We felt we were doing loads and they were kind second, third year end and see how they are progressing and more than they are doing in school. Really interesting to see that.”

The cluster mechanism is helpful in connecting with other clusters through events, meetings, exchange of information, best practice sharing in curriculum and creating pooled resources as discussed above within this section. Beyond such activities within a cluster, competition and collaboration between clusters, BC managing charity and the delivery organisation seem to be interested in progressing these to inter-cluster and national level events.

A proposed joint cluster event in the Wales’ capital city region in autumn 2017, with the specific objective of raising aspirations as discussed in the last section on context, shows the importance of cluster events toward driving positive changes on a wider scale. Furthermore, business-school partnerships and clusters collaborate to alleviate systemic societal issues in local regions.

An application document for Wales Responsible Business Awards 2017 by business 1 also shows the energy drink consumption by young people to be a common concern. Within the application, it writes about their financial education programme delivered to schools, where the issue of energy drink consumption is identified:

“One of the exercises in the workshop included each pupil working out how much they spend in a year [on] a non-essential item (e.g. energy drinks). The total annual potential saving of one group was a staggering £12,000.”

The budgeting exercise, as shown in the award document, helped pupils to identify non-essential expenses such as buying energy drinks, a problem that is spread across communities. Meanwhile, energy drinks within this study period have been considered for banning for children in England, accompanied by voluntary bans by major UK retailers.

Student competitions, events and varieties of collaborations make cluster mechanism useful in the BC programme. However, in the next chapter, among others, I will mainly discuss its drawbacks, such as time and resource intensiveness in cluster activities.

6.2.3 Cluster Innovation and Organisational Infrastructure

The cluster mechanism is also a place for creating new innovations such as the use of technology in the remote towns/villages in north and other rural parts of Wales, where meeting in person is difficult as stated by the charity manager (CHA03):

“So, we’ve been talking to [programme delivery organisation] recently about, for those where a conventional cluster model like in heads of valleys is difficult, how else can we enable partnerships to collaborate that isn’t meeting once a term, doing an activity. So we’ve been looking at technology – technology to link up partnerships, we’ve been looking at business collaborating in terms of different schools in the cluster rather than coming physically together with all the schools...”

The challenges of remote geography as stated above, coupled with the busy environment in schools has led the BC managing charity to explore ways of using technology to connect businesses and schools easily, for collaborations and sharing, with examples showing some work in that direction.

With many features of collaborations, wider organisational network and having potentials to enhance the success of the programme, cluster arguably presents as an organisational infrastructure in the words of the director of the BC managing charity (CHA02) as following:

“...having built the infrastructure of these clusters, say how well they work in particular, what can we do that’s innovative around Business Class or alongside it to make use of that fact that we got school and business working collaboratively in every region of Wales. We got this network, we got this infrastructure – can we use that for instance, as the curriculum comes in or work with consortia whatever that looks like to

do some sort of specific additional that adds new clusters could reap, really adds value, can we add additional value to that what [we] do things with them.”

The inter-cluster events, multiple collaborative functions, technological advancement and curriculum changes, and more recently the idea of extending Business Class from 11-18 age range (secondary school) to both sides, ie. primary schools and further education colleges shows that the BC’s cluster network can become an organisational ‘infrastructure’ to support delivery of other initiatives/projects as well.

Summary of Key Findings from the Cluster

The cluster mechanism that Business Class has built has proved very useful for aiding the success of the programme. It can be argued that cluster enhances value creation in the BC. The business and school partnerships that enable activities in the school is basic to the programme whereas these partnership heavily draw from collaborations, network infrastructure and mutuality of support within the clusters.

The details of clusters, its functions and application presented above, leads to the following summary, and the subsequent discussion puts together key findings of this key section on cluster.

- There are usually 5 to 6 business-school partnerships in a cluster but larger cities have more
- The basic function of cluster is to meet each term, collaborate and carry out occasional joint activities
- Collaborations of various kind such as beyond geographic/administrative frontier, curriculum support, sharing of information and best practices, building common consensus in businesses and schools, cluster-wide joint actions on common matter and tackling wider societal problems
- Successful cluster events: prospects to increase from local to regional and national levels

- Cluster mechanism is evolving in Welsh context since it started in 2013, with increase in number and innovation, and now it is perceived to be an organisational infrastructure

Cluster in essence is a place to come together and share best practices and issues, find solutions and implement them at the business-school partnerships and their activities, and to showcase the excellence of pupils through events and competitions.

Clusters in the BC programme have brought opportunities, which transcend boundaries in regular geographic/administrative region from the government; because of this, it enables schools to share best practices and information. Collaborations manifest in many different ways including consensus among businesses and tackling common societal issues, such as energy drinks consumption by pupils. As mentioned at the beginning of this summary, these joint efforts at cluster level can sometimes be connected to what businesses and schools bring through their partnerships; for example business five partnered with school sixteen assisted by using their housing business and reaching out to parents as a solution to issues of aspiration in pupils (activity for/with parents is not usual in BC). Such tailoring is also associated with specific business capabilities about what they can offer in the BC programme.

Likewise, the businesses which have diverse business, network or resource capabilities are open to sharing resources with schools within the cluster by using a 'pool' approach but these can also sometimes go beyond cluster. By implementing in this way, though a school is paired with one dedicated business partner, the school would also have access to diverse resources and capabilities from other businesses too.

The inter-cluster events and meetings bring greater opportunities for the businesses and schools to share, learn and exhibit pupils' talents, mainly through competitions and events. Also, the discussion mainly with the charity managing BC and government organisation delivering it suggests that clusters can be increased from current local level to regional and national level, therefore there is increased collaboration; events and competition can also enhance the usefulness of the programme. The examples of school to school (curriculum); business to business and school to school (consensus) and between both ie. school and business (wider social issues) collaborations shows the length and breadth of it.

The business-school partnership adds value to the cluster by sharing their activities, information, best practices and learning. Likewise, the cluster adds value not only by providing a platform for such collaborations to happen but also the cluster level meetings and activities can reciprocally influence at the level of partnerships, through learning.

Other features of clusters are innovations, such as the programme currently seeking ways to connect schools and businesses in clusters through technology for meeting and exchange of information mainly in geographically remote rural areas of Wales. The success of the programme in Wales over a period of time means the partnerships, clusters and other organisational networks are arguably labelled as 'infrastructure'. Based on this organisational infrastructure, the director at the charity managing BC along with the manager – and this being backed by few practices on the ground such as businesses one and seventeen – are ambitious to increase the delivery to primary and further education level, beyond the usual interventions in high schools currently. This increased reach of programme goes hand in hand with increased number/value of clusters as discussed earlier.

The cluster collaborations are beneficial for businesses and schools; meaning they do not need to 'reinvent the wheels'. Not only this but also the cluster mechanism has potential to tackle wider issues and drive societal change. The organisational infrastructure, resources and their mobility within and across clusters and technological innovation presented in the cluster have potential to advance the programme further.

6.3 ACTIVITIES

This is the third main section within this chapter. It has context, cluster and activities sections, which together form the basis of the BC programme. In this section on activities, I provide information on how, by whom and what range of activities were carried out chiefly for schools by businesses in BC. First, the background of how the business-school partnership is formed is discussed, along with costs and the support mechanism through the programme delivery organisation. Following this, a table presents the range of activities from enterprise and employability to teacher training and numeracy for pupils, thus showing a great variety of activities and how widely they are practiced. Finally, information is provided regarding other

areas related to the activity, such as increasing the BC's reach beyond their regular secondary school support and similarly businesses gathering more resources for success of their partnership with schools and their external linkages co-contributing to the programme.

6.3.1 Background and Process

The basic mechanism of the Business Class (BC) programme is the partnership between business and school to carry out various activities. The activities fall mainly into four official domains as below:

- Leadership and Governance (leadership within school in terms of teachers, governing bodies; interactions and support for them for what they're trying to achieve)
- Enterprise and Employability (working with students to develop their skills)
- Curriculum Support (how business can support school in delivering their curriculum)
- Wider Issues, for example, generic problems in society affecting pupils, raise their voice and leadership

Activities in Business Class partnerships between businesses and schools follow one or more strand from the above categories.

Partnership Formation

Before the activities can be carried out, businesses need to be matched with schools; various aspects related to this, such as costs and relationship are discussed below.

Following the process of business-school partnership matching by the Business Class delivery organisation, these partners mutually decide on activities; this ranges from termly planning to a very much ad hoc basis. These activities evolve from many fronts, such as the needs of the business and school, the geographic and socio-economic context, business

competency/resource, and over time, some learning from peers in the cluster and other networks.

A business manager (BIZ22) puts forward the delicate nature of the partnering and sustaining it:

“It takes quite a bit of perseverance from both sides to find common ground which is useful and which benefits both parties.”

Though it is not usual, a school partnership with business twelve was troubled; in another case, there was a change of business partner with school nineteen. These changes were attributed to leadership issues, due to their differing perspective on partnership. For partnership to succeed, evidence shows that both schools and businesses need commitment from a school’s senior management and also backing from board of governors. Likewise, staff involvement is widely practiced and it is key to both running of the activities and to create benefit to the businesses (like staff development), which are discussed in detail in the next chapter. Similarly, in schools, staff involvement, such as by the heads of department and teachers, have supported the running of the programme.

For the business-school partnership in Business Class, usually a key contact is established both at the school and business; the central role of this and risk thereof is highlighted by the delivery organisation’s manager (GOV14), who states:

“Another partnership has become a little bit toxic and I think it's purely clash of personalities, on paper perfect match, in person not working”

However, more recently, very few schools are attempting the department/subject heads to make direct contact with businesses beyond the existing single key contact.

Almost all organisations researched reported positive relationship with their counterparts with one exception (ie. business twelve). Good relationships between key contacts in the partnership are not the only factor but it can be argued that it is a major factor in success of the partnership and by extension the programme. An exclamation of praise from a school manager (SCH31) about their counterpart contact in business highlights this vital aspect of partnership.

“I think we have actually, you know we have hit the jackpot with [key contact person at partner business] because of her knowledge and her experience.”

The school manager expresses her gratitude in having a good contact at their business partner who has knowledge and experience of school environment (important for BC delivery).

Self-sufficiency of Partnership

Similarly, the dependency on BC delivery organisation to support the partnership largely varies. One of the school managers (SCH19) said “I think without [BC delivery organisation] leading and doing that, it would fall down because it’s such a lot of work” whereas their business partner (BIZ28) had very different version in the following conversation:

Intv: Right. So how much is [BC delivery organisation] involved in helping out in the setting up of events and so on? Have they...

BIZ28: Yeah, a fair amount. I mean [a staff at BC delivery organisation] facilitates the meetings that we have with the school, the quarterly meetings we have with the school, [the staff at BC delivery organisation] sits in on all of those, so she facilitates those and basically we then revert to the business plan if you like, where we are, what’s been completed, what’s not and any extra stuff that we’ve done. Obviously [the staff] then ... or sorry, [BC delivery organisation] facilitate the cluster meetings so we sit in and you know, we attend all the cluster meetings with other schools in Blaenau Gwent and Merthyr, so that is all arranged, organised and facilitated via [the staff] at [BC delivery organisation] as well. So yeah and again a good relationship with [the staff], a good relationship with [BC delivery organisation].

Intv: Great. So, obviously [BC delivery organisation] having funded for running this project on behalf of the [government] and [charity managing it], so if they weren’t there, would that be very difficult for you to do these things?

BIZ28: If I’m perfectly blunt and perfectly honest, no! I think we have a good enough relationship with the school, because of the type of business we are and we have our

own little employability team within the business, if I'm honest we could probably continue to do this... maybe not called Business Class, but we could now continue to engage with the school and do all the stuff that we would like to do, with or without [BC delivery organisation], if I'm perfectly honest.

A very similar version about dependency was expressed by a large international banking business (BIZ24), having multiple partnerships in various clusters.

The factors discussed above considered important elements to the success of the programme do not necessarily suffice, when explaining why certain partnership are more independent whilst others are not, irrespective of their time period in the partnership, as explained by the BC delivery organisation manager (GOV14):

“The different with [charity managing BC programme] is this idea of sustainable and self-sustaining partnerships which is attractive to us because the idea is that you set up the partnership and they become self-fulfilling and you can step back.”

“I'm not sure we've found that as yet. I don't know whether it's because the partnerships are young, some of our partnerships were only established last year, the oldest of our partnerships are only three years old, and also just the ones in the pilot, so as of yet we're finding it takes a lot of staff time to make things happen and to make the partnerships work, at the minute.”

The self-sustaining partnership, and if the businesses fund the programme, it creates potential to make the programme mature and independent without the BC mechanism; however, in the words of the manager above, BC partnership within Wales are not there “as yet”. In the event of progressing towards self-sustaining partnership, it would help “...step back [and] enables you to then grow programme by engaging more schools and businesses” (CHA32). Whereas, the research evidence shows the growth within the programme in Wales in recent times, with sixty six established partnerships in October 2016 expanding to eighty one in spring of 2017. Although the partnerships may not have reached the fully self-sustaining stage, many partnerships have shown maturity within their relationship, particularly the older ones which were born in the pilot stage.

Cost Issues in BC

In the Business Class programme, cost is a sensitive issue, from the programme level to paying for a bus to take pupils out. In 2014 during the pilot stage, the subscription to Business Class was £4000 (plus VAT) for businesses and there were limited (ten) partnerships only. The charity managing BC speak about their struggle to gain funding in the 2013-2014 pilot stage when schools were approached for co-funding it but eventually businesses funded it. Following the funding from Welsh Government in 2015 for the programme, the fees for businesses were subsequently removed. A manager at business seventeen expresses her own experience on programme subscription related cost:

“All the works you do already, it makes sense for you to become part of Business Class and that’s where we decided. I spoke to line manager. Our sticking point was cost and because I know that we had to invest with the funding’s ending.”

The attitude of businesses toward costs related to BC is evident in various data (see appendix 7 for details under the subheading ‘cost issues’ within activities heading). A special report on Business Class partnerships for 2016 by business one shows their investment on multiple projects (delivered in association with BC programme) to be £27,000 as shown in the below chart.

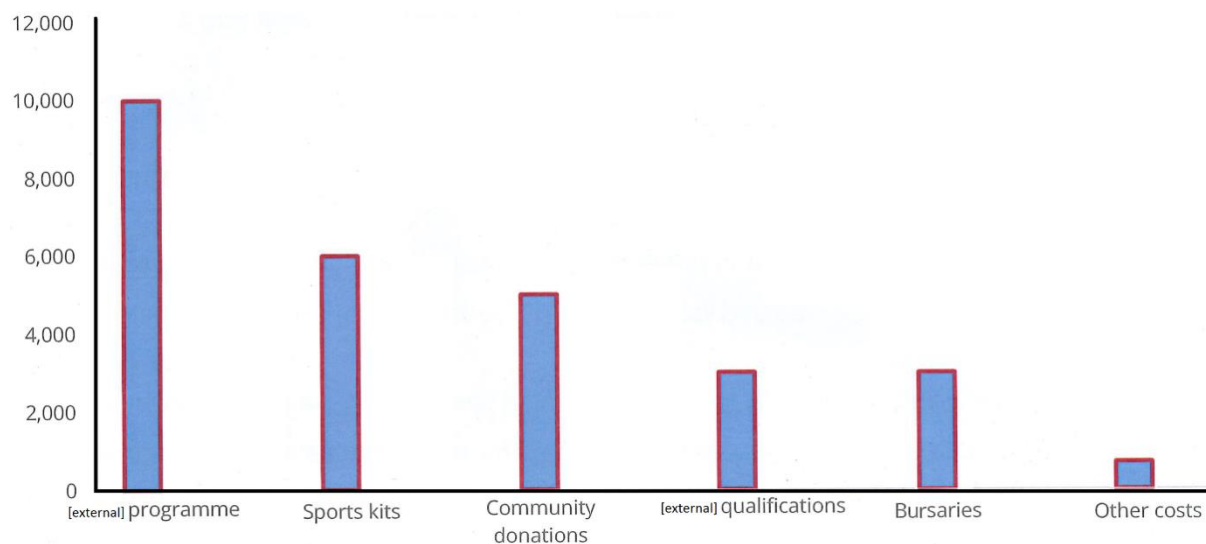


Fig. 6.1 Business Class investment by Business 1 (modified). Business 1 (2016)

The above chart has been part modified using texts within brackets ‘[]’ to anonymise the names of external programmes associated with the business.

The report from business one, regarding their involvement in the BC programme containing the above chart, states:

“In previous years each Business Class partnership would have incurred £5000 administration costs, but is now funded by Welsh Government. Our investment into the grassroots almost mirrors any past programme costs.”

This business (BIZ01), during the 2016 reporting period, was partnered with five schools and a college; therefore, the comparison of their actual investment with what would have been paid to the BC managing charity for subscription of the programme as shown in the chart above. The context of this information is that following the government funding, the subscription fee with BC managing charity was removed, therefore the business one’s comparisons above.

CSR manager at the business one (BIZ01) in the research interview mentions the costs associated with BC projects, such as for a school bus trip saying “Who is paying for the bus? All those things. We try to be as kind as possible and as generous as we can”. This evidence show that the costs for programme subscription, delivery of programme and investments are accounted for by businesses for the BC programme partnerships.

Similarly, a manager at a business said “my director signed [for BC] because it was cost neutral” (BIZ26). Many businesses shared reluctance in paying such an upfront subscription fee, posing challenge to the sustainability of the programme; this will be discussed later in this chapter.

Other costs in running the partnership the expense of paying for the coach trip to take pupils out. Whilst most business partners have paid for it, this is still something that hasn’t always been accepted well. Yet others, where any activity for school comes with significant cost such as for licensing (BIZ27), it is a real issue. Therefore, cost of time, resources (eg. training) and logistics required for delivering the project (eg. transportation for pupils) is generally acceptable but paying for something upfront that is costly, is a concern for businesses.

This section has shown that the partnership formation and its sustenance through personal contacts is a delicate task. Likewise, the self-sustainable business-school partnership though a considered ideal is not yet realized, with exception to a few claims made. Finally, cost has repeatedly appeared as an issue for businesses involved in BC.

6.3.2 Activities for Schools

As listed at the beginning of this section showing various domains of activities in BC, I will now present the range of activities carried out by businesses for schools. The interviews have gathered what the respondents can recall of the activities that took place for the school and also using documents and other evidences to corroborate. The enquiry here is not necessarily for the purpose of quantification of activities but to put together a range of activities carried out in various partnerships and beyond, showing their role in value creation, which will be discussed in the next chapter. Thus, the below table reports on a number of schools who have carried out certain activities, which is either reported by the school or business or, in other cases, corroborated when both partners (business and school) were interviewed or supplemented using documentary and other evidences; thus the term ‘at least’ in the subsequent commentary below. The way of accounting these activities is based on what is claimed by both schools and businesses within interviews, through observation or what was in the documents and other evidences in a corroboration fashion, as stated above. However, where the schools or the businesses are not talking about their counterpart partners (within the research sample) in the data but instead about the partner schools, which are outside of the sample, it is counted as separate. Therefore, the number of schools carrying out such activities within Business Class programme are more than the actual number of schools observed or interviewed.

Types of Activities	Schools Involved
Literacy and Numeracy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Maths ▪ Financial skills 	8
Outings Pupils taken out to hotel, sports stadium or business partner's office facility	11
Teacher and Leadership Training (mentoring and support for school such as in HR)	11
School Area Improvement (wasteland, murals painting)	4
Health, Wellbeing and Aspirations specific (for pupils and staffs)	6
Enterprise and Employability (attitude, skills, confidence, motivation development) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teamwork ▪ Problem solving ▪ Mock interviews ▪ CV writing 	18

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Females in STEM ▪ Work experience, placement, apprenticeship ▪ Career fairs ▪ Presentation skills ▪ Design, IT technology, broadcasting ▪ IT training ▪ Leadership ▪ Dragon’s Den events ▪ Business plan ▪ Technology, photography, internet skill application ▪ External qualifications (related to employability) 	
<p>Achievement Awards</p> <p>(recognising good works and good behaviour)</p>	3
<p>Mentoring</p> <p>(pupil peer mentoring and business people to pupil mentoring)</p>	3
<p>Sports and Physical</p>	2

Fig. 6.2 Activities for Schools in Business Class

The enterprise, employability and related activities are the largest activity area with at least eighteen schools carrying out one or more such enterprise and employability activities as listed in the above diagram. The reason behind this element of activity being disproportionately higher than any other is centred around funding attached to employability and skills reflected in the BC delivery organisation’s (GOV14) formal statement: “Business Class improves young

peoples' understanding of the world of work and their awareness of career choices, and develops their employability skills".

The youth learning and education manager in the government (GOV18) stated that the call for a bid for the programme was in response to the employers' concern for skills, stating:

“one of the key messages we would get back from employers back in 2015 and well before that is that young people may be gaining more academic qualifications but they don't necessarily understand the sort of skills and behaviours that employers need”

Likewise, several activities in this domain also originate from competencies that businesses have and offer to schools; these range from copyright, patenting, product design, performance management, financial skills, STEM and so on. Likewise, the career and world of work (CWW) related to employability and enterprise fits into the Welsh Baccalaureate module taught in schools.

The enterprise and employability or the CWW activities that present enterprise orientation, are amplified in the discussion below. A manager at a business (BIZ05) who started the BC partnership recently with a school in South Wales, makes a comment as following, about the business peers within the housing sector. It also applies to other businesses in different sectors doing Business Class in Wales:

“And we know from other housing association, they've taken quite a enterprise focus on it. It's great, that's another really inspirational and I believe they got a good match. I think we've, there is plenty of room to do things around other than business employability and enterprise. There is a lot in that we can – giving opportunities, getting aware of that”

Second to enterprise and employability is the support to the school (eg. teacher and leadership) with at least eleven schools engaged in receiving support. The primary purpose of Business Class is to help unlock the potential within the pupils; as is stated above, this is firmly embedded within the barrier of deprivation, alongside several other disadvantages and issues faced by school and pupils both. Thus, the school support is essential in order to achieve the outcome for all pupils, which justifies its activity level. Within this broader school support

domain, there was no particular activity targeted toward the board of governors in the school, with one exception, mentioned by business twenty-four.

Likewise, excursions to hotels, sports stadiums, big cities, events or the business partner's facility is also widely practiced (eleven schools) in order to provide a different and inspiring environment for the pupils. This activity logically follows the earlier argument of multiple disadvantages, mainly lack of aspirations, thus provide a solution to it.

The literacy and numeracy, being a basic activity, is evidenced in eight schools only. This lower number within this activity area is perhaps due to literacy/numeracy being too basic for interviewees to be brought into the discussion or in other data.

Many events brought multiple benefits to pupils, such as the widely carried out Dragon's Den student event in school. The benefits were pupils undertaking product concept, design, digital technology, business, presentation skills, confidence building and so on. These are also subcategorized within the main enterprise and employability domain in the table above.

I will discuss other areas of BC partnership and phenomenon below.

Mutuality in BC Partnerships

Schools are the primary recipients of the Business Class programme but there are instances, though very limited, where the reciprocity from schools to businesses is shown. For example, school twenty-one offered their car park during a major sporting event to their BC business partner, so for them "it feels a bit more of a two-way street rather than [business partner] giving to us all the time and us not being able to give back" (SCH21). Similarly, school thirty shared their best practise of banning mobile phones in their workplace with their business partner. However, both of their business counterparts did not report of such help received.

A meeting of BC programme cluster in Cardiff in 2017 records the mutuality in the programme, as emphasized by a manager at BC managing charity (CHA03) present at the meeting, who states:

“[CHA03] highlighted the mutual benefits of Business Class and the importance of commitment to the partnerships.”

In this way, mutuality, by supporting each other within the business-school partnerships, as well as across all stakeholders, is considered important in order to benefit from and sustain the programme.

Advantage of Industry People

Many schools reported that the pupils would engage and listen to the people from the industry (business partner) as opposed to their usual teacher; this is perhaps one of the factors contributing to the success of the programme. A teacher at school (SCH30) explains this:

“When you get somebody from outside coming in instantly switched on, they really want to work because they are sick of the same teacher especially in maths nearly every day. All of a sudden, wow, this young lively person from industry coming in, different techniques in a group of three or four”

It is also a fact that industry people from businesses involved in BC are able to show the relevance of these regular school study modules within a work context.

Multiple Partnerships and Diverse Support

There are some examples of schools having support from other businesses beyond their paired partner, though this is not currently a trend, but there is a move towards having multiple businesses that support various schools who are not their primary partner, as I discussed earlier in the cluster section. This helps schools to access diverse resources from different businesses mainly in the cluster as noted by a manager at the charity managing BC (CHA6):

“...this STEM organisation over here would like to work with this school, how can that best meet the needs of that school and how can the business help”

Activities in business-school partnerships are a result of much local context and have evolved with the support of the businesses. For example, having parents involved in two rural schools, and yet others specific for MAT (more able and talented) and potential NEET (not in education, employment or training) pupils, and others with alternative curriculum (studying from home), some school supporting feeder (primary) school, and in other cases, older pupils mentoring younger ones and formation of a Business Class council within a school. The business partners have supported varieties of situations that schools operate in.

The activities, as discussed in the previous section on cluster, were not limited to BC's primary target of secondary school but businesses were also working with primary schools as well as further education colleges. This is an idea for future development of the programme, shared by the charity managing BC.

Resource Pull

Businesses pull resources from within organisations or externally to support partner schools within the programme. Some would bring on board other businesses to assist them in their partnership with schools.

Similar to the diversity of support provided by businesses for their partner schools, many ad hoc activities have been carried out within schools in the form of help, such as business seventeen who looked into the their partner school's bid document because the business manager had a background in funding. So, the competency of individuals (mainly key contact) within the business partner was useful for the school. Some other activities are in response to emergent needs at schools.

Resource pull also happens within the business, for example, to get hold of specialists eg. patent examiners at business nine and IT specialists at business four which shows commitment to the partnership and is exemplified by the manager of another business (BIZ08) in the below interview quote:

“With [the partner school], since we’ve embarked on it, it’s the main focus which is why we put so much of time and so much resource, because we’ve taken it very seriously.”

In this way, businesses pull more resources that are beyond the requirements of BC programme to support the success of their partnerships within schools.

External Linkages

Many activities are carried out in schools, also through other external partnerships and networks and some originate from non-partner businesses. These external links, such as through a national charity or initiatives (BITC’s Give and Gain day) help increase and enhance Business Class’ work within the school. In other instances, the business would have a nationwide (corporate responsibility related) programme; this is delivered alongside Business Class.

A 2016 report by business one, regarding their CSR programme, reports of three charities and programmes, and likewise their application for responsible business awards 2017 shows two more such external organisations (these are in addition to their two more long term supported charities) and initiatives wherein such projects are delivered alongside the Business Class programme. In addition to all these connections, two other charities (for fundraising) and the local community are also mentioned within their main business report for year 2016. Beyond the business one discussed above, various other schools and businesses that were researched, mentioned charities and programmes that they were connected with and were working in conjunction with the Business Class.

A responsible business strategy in the education and employability report published in January 2017 by business twenty-four, shows that they have nationwide CSR programme for school governance, and youth employability and vocational skills such as through apprenticeship, among others. These nationwide business activities show the highly networked organisational ecology that BC programme operates in and its delivery to schools, alongside such business-wide national initiatives (see appendix 7 for details). Furthermore, some businesses (mainly

larger) participating in the Business Class have partnered with multiple schools in multiple clusters, whilst some schools were also connecting with more than one paired business partner.

Collaborations and multiple connections across the BC business-school partnerships and within the cluster networks as well as through external connections (organisations/initiatives) discussed in this section show multiple linkages and a culture of collaborations and sharing in the BC programme.

Summary of Key Findings from the Activities

Below are the key highlights and subsequent discussions from this main section on activity.

- Activities are developed as a result of evolving business-school needs and context and partly these come from capabilities/resources of businesses as well.
- Relationships between key contacts at businesses and schools are important for the success of the partnership, programme and other issues. Senior management backing and staff involvement are important.
- Very limited partnerships are strong enough to be able to carry out activities independently without the support of other organisations (like BC programme managing charity, and delivery organisation). Though this gives some scope for self-sustaining partnerships, they still need a longer time for maturity and other factors apply, to work in a self-sustaining way.
- The upfront costs for businesses to pay the subscription of the BC programme (not present currently) or for costs in the partnership activity (eg. logistics) is an issue, thus challenges in sustainability of the programme.
- Activity-wise, pupils have received mostly enterprise and employability skills related training and support (such as Dragon's Den competitions) as the highest, followed by teacher and leadership support within the school, and businesses taking pupils to visit reputed venues. Other peculiar examples are- parents of pupils engaged in activity provided by businesses for schools.
- There is a move towards having support from multiple businesses beyond the single partner though the current example on this is very limited.

- Though very limited, there are examples of reciprocity of support from schools to businesses.
- Pupils are more willing to listen to people from industry (business partners) able to see the relevance of their study into work.
- Few businesses are also involved with primary schools and further education colleges beyond the BC's normal target of secondary school.
- The businesses would pull resources from within the business to support school partnerships.
- Schools and businesses have external linkages such as through a company's nationwide/business-wide social responsibility initiatives or charities, beyond the BC programme.

The pairing process for BC business-school partnership brings mutual interest and these relationships are generally very good (see also the discussions on relationships in the next chapter under 'quality of value' section). The sustainability of the programme is difficult because the self-fulfilling partnership is very limited and generally needs continued support from BC delivery organisation. However, the schools, though very limited, are trying to reciprocate help, which perhaps aids to the sustainability of the partnership and programme as a whole. The upfront cost of a subscription in the BC programme is an issue, whilst the business are willing to pay for the basic logistics of delivering the programme.

Enterprise and employability related activities form the largest portion of activity aligned to the employer's concerns and their business competencies. The business partners in BC have been diligent in success of partnership, such as pulling of resources for it. furthermore, both schools and businesses have external links beyond the BC, which supports the programme.

Following the presentation of the setting of BC in Wales through context, cluster and activity elements above, a framework is designed to depict how BC operates and creates value to multiple stakeholders in the next section.

6.4 VALUE CREATION MECHANISM

In the above key sections, the setting of BC in Wales has been described using context, cluster and activity elements of the programme. A running theme, though without a title, is stakeholders, who continually interact with these elements of the programme. Using context, cluster and activity themes above, it now becomes clear that stakeholders influence them in order to create value. Whilst the cluster and activity are more visible connections made from stakeholders, the context is difficult to describe in similar comparable terms. The data does not explicitly suggest that the stakeholders have influence directly over the context – such as deprivation, multiple disadvantages and issues faced by pupils, place and school through the BC programme. However, the general environment and context surrounding these stakeholders in relation to the BC programme seems to be changing; such as new curriculum, influence through expansion of the programme, mutuality in business-school relationships, embedding the programme ethos of collaboration into regular activity, cluster network and the resultant impacts on stakeholders. Altogether, it can be argued that, these have at least subtly contributed to change the context.

The multi-stakeholder value creation framework depicted below (6.3a/b) establishes how the value is created in the BC programme. Having worked on foundational elements of context, cluster and activity above, this framework graphically describes how Business Class operates in Wales. Within this, all primary stakeholders– BITC, CW and WG, by supporting firm and school, together pass value over to the context, cluster and activity elements, forming the value mechanism.

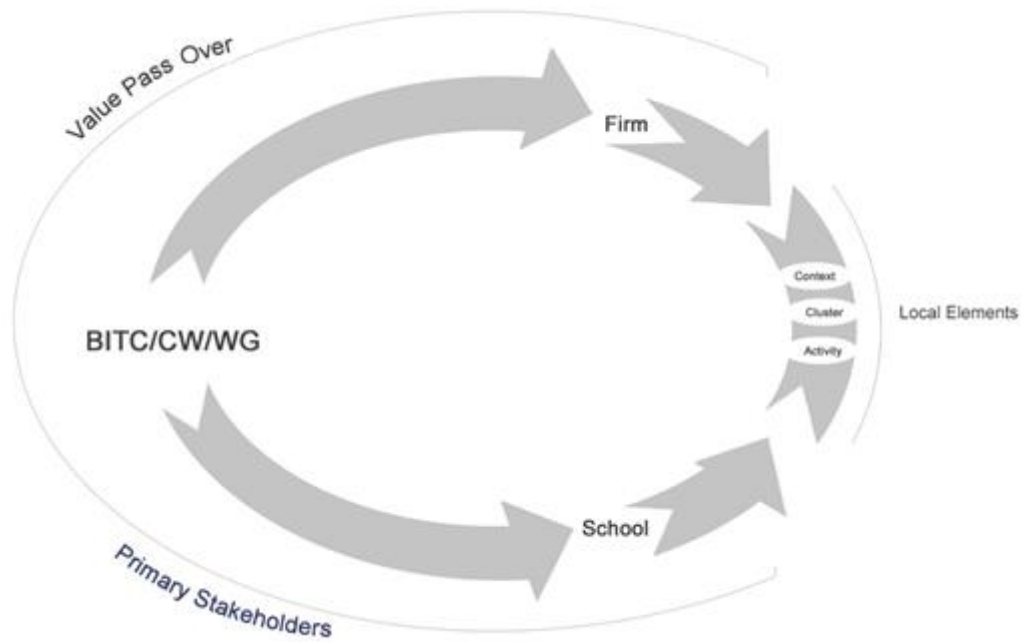


Fig. 6.3a BC Multi-Stakeholder Value Input and Creation Mechanism

Business Class is a multi-stakeholder collaborative programme to tackle school education, employability and associated issues in Wales. The value creation system starts with context based on which any activity can take place. It is a specific context that is immediate to the programme (depicted within programme sphere in figure 6.3a above) investigated by this case study but beyond this, and yet connected, there is a general context surrounding it. In Wales, the general context specific to BC is mainly deprivation and school pupils facing multiple disadvantages and issues in the school. The cluster works as an organisational network to collaborate and enhance value, which primarily comes from business-school partnerships as well as from events in cluster. Likewise, the activities are carried out by businesses for schools to benefit pupils and other stakeholders. These three elements of context, cluster and activity represent the basis of value creation.

The elements of context, cluster and activity are aligned to the right side and these are fed by the primary stakeholders on the left side, as shown in the diagram, or in other words ‘passing the value over’ to these elements. These primary stakeholders (BITC, CW, WG, firms and schools) already possess some value such as funding from the government, programme ownership and delivery capability from the organisations and similarly, skills and resources with private firms, and opportunity, availability and programme support from the participating

schools. When the primary stakeholders pass value over to the right side to carry out activity, collaborate and enhance value in clusters and create impact to change the context, various value are created. Details of value and related explanations will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Basically, BC value creation happens (depicted in blue/dark colour at the centre in figure 6.3b) when mainly the primary stakeholders (support organisations through/with business and school) pass the value over to the context, cluster and activity elements. Once new value is created, various stakeholders draw value (blue/dark areas). This is shown in the below diagram (figure 6.3b). The value is first drawn *specifically* by those who partner together (business and school) possibly in greatest amount (top left in 6.3b diagram). Secondly, it is drawn *commonly* by those in the BC consortium as primary stakeholders – businesses, schools and support organisations BITC, CW and WG (top right). Value is also shared *generally* (potential spill over) in wider networks connected through primary stakeholders, therefore the arrows beyond programme sphere (bottom left). Finally, there will remain some *residual* value in these elements of context, cluster and activity (bottom right).

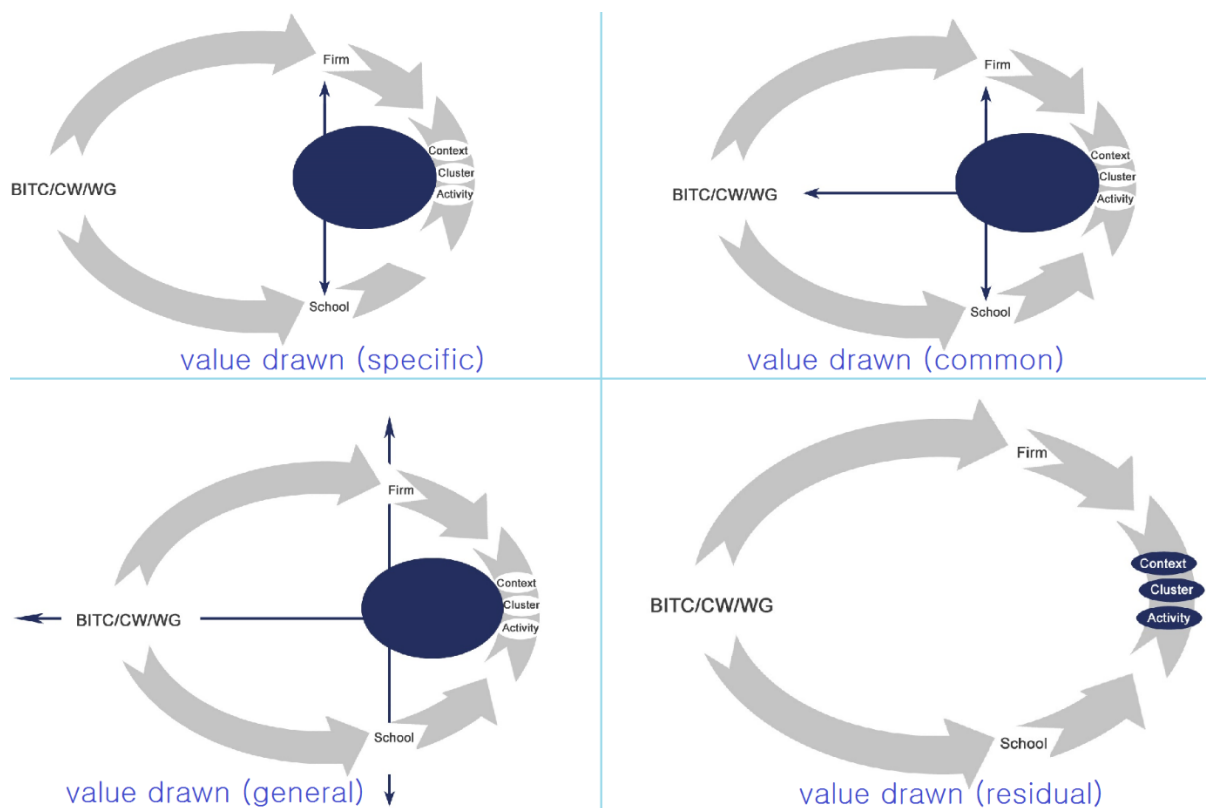


Fig. 6.3b BC Value Drawn by Stakeholders

The earlier diagram 6.3a on value input and creation mechanism together with the diagram 6.3b above on value drawn from the mechanism is jointly referred as value creation ecology framework 6.3.

According to the description, the specific and common value is in the form of managerial capabilities gained by schools, reputation for business and knowledge and learning, and improvement within the programme for support organisations (BITC/CW/WG). The general value created (spill over effect) which creates the benefits to stakeholders outside of this value creating mechanism, such as BC framework and organisational network used for other purposes or its potential influence on new curriculum building. It might also occur in the external network of participating organisations, as discussed in section 6.3.2 above on external linkages. Likewise, the residual value on elements is manifested through changed context, more collaborations and innovations within the clusters, thereby creating new norms and similarly improvements in activities.

Value is also referred as benefit, outcome and impact; this will be detailed in the next chapter. In a nutshell, the framework shows value in and value out in a local setting involving multiple stakeholders.

The local nature of programmes, where changes happen bottom-up, that is through the success of individual business-school partnerships and building into sharing the success or good practices through collaborations with others in the cluster and ultimately as a programme, has potential impact at systemic level.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

I will continue to present findings in the next chapter, so provide an integrated conclusions of all the findings including this chapter there. I now recap the key issues discussed in this chapter as below.

This chapter has mainly established the setting of Business Class in Wales using the key themes of context, cluster and activity. The socio-economic deprivation of places, lack of aspirations

and confidence in pupils, and the impact of this both in their social and personal life, has made regular educational and other attainments harder for them. Similarly, in many cases, the school performance in terms of education and managerial capabilities, looks poor. Amid this, the response from businesses in the form of BC activities are mainly in the form of enterprise and employability, training of teachers and school leadership and outings to stadiums and high quality hotels for the pupils to enhance their morale. They also offer various activities such as numeracy/literacy, health and wellbeing. Among other wider outcomes in pupils, employability is heavily supported by BC programme, yet these are not prioritized due to the busy environment of the school and there is a lack of incentives (from education regulator). The added complexity is the culture of obtaining grades, instead of wider outcomes. Currently, in the context of changing curriculum, it seems reasonable to suggest, to embed such employability related programme through BC and broadly, therefore the pupils are supported to achieve their potentials.

The concept of businesses giving to society (schools in this case) can be challenged, as few schools are reciprocating the help and a mutual relationship that consists of more than a one-way corporate programme to perform for community. Furthermore, this two-way relationship is enhanced by evidence that shows where businesses are dedicating their support by pulling resources from within and also external organisations to aid the success of their partnership with schools via the BC programme. This also comes amid the issues of costs where the businesses have explicitly expressed that they want to avoid paying upfront costs to participate in the BC programme.

On the operational side, the partnership formation between business and schools, as well as ongoing relationship mainly through key contacts on both sides, is a delicate task. The programme continues to evolve slowly from 'one business with one school' partnership model towards multiple partnerships. Similarly, diverse external linkages of businesses and schools with charities, as well as the nation/business-wide initiatives of some companies, have influenced collaborations and sharing within the BC programme. It seems that business-school partnership in BC will need more time to mature towards becoming a self-sustaining partnership without regular external support.

The cluster mechanism, though being an occasional activity, enhances value through diverse collaborations (eg. sharing, consensus) and innovation, and it arguably supports the programme

and other external initiatives in order to become an organisational 'infrastructure'. It offers successful cluster events and the potential of increasing them. The cluster has also helped towards a movement of having more business partners per school and vice versa which in turn helps to create pooled resources that can be commonly used by businesses and schools within the clusters.

The value creation framework 6.3 has captured the essence of the discussions where the stakeholders pass the value over to the context, cluster and activity elements, thus creating value for partnering business-school, common for those within BC programme, general for other external broader stakeholders and residual within these elements.

I will continue to present findings in the next chapter. The next chapter focusses on sources and quality of value and impact practices.

CHAPTER SEVEN : FINDINGS

Value of Business Class in Wales and impact practices

INTRODUCTION

The last chapter on findings worked to establish the general setting of Business Class programme in Wales and how the programme operates. The chapter was divided into sections of context, cluster and activity presenting how primary stakeholders in the programme interacted with these elements to create value.

In this chapter, I focus on what kinds of value are created, how (source), and for whom (stakeholders), in the first part. I then evaluate the quality of value in the second. In addition, practice and understanding of impact among the programme stakeholders is discussed. At the end, conclusions will summarize the findings as a whole from this and the last chapter. Similar to the last chapter, I present synthesized evidence from multiple sources that are embedded into sections in this chapter, which represent the thematic areas of research (see appendices four and seven).

7.1 SOURCES OF VALUE

In this section, I first describe how value is created, and present what types of value is created, coming from the interaction of primary stakeholders with context, cluster and activity elements as shown in the value ecology diagram 6.3 in the last chapter. The findings presented here broadly follow the same structure as the last chapter (context, cluster and activity) by showing how they contribute to the value creation.

Reinforcing the local context of BC in Wales from the previous chapter and reflecting on the data and analysis – presentation of findings in this section is particular to Wales, the BC

programme implemented between schools and businesses, with the help of support organisations. The detail of how value is created in such setting of the BC programme, and who benefits from it, is therefore linked to this context. This is discussed in following sections.

7.1.1 Value Coming from Context

At the beginning of the last chapter, the context of deprivation and multiple disadvantages under which many Business Class partnerships operate has been well established. How the context itself can add value is not fully known. However, the context of deprivation that has been explored so far in this research becomes the reason for stakeholders to create value.

As detailed in the activities section (6.3.2) of the last chapter, the Business Class programme has four domains of activity and within these, pupils are at the centre of receiving support for a better transition from their education to employment. In the following subsections, I explain the context of disadvantage surrounding pupils, schools and broader issues.

Pupils : Problems in Study

School nineteen reports of lack of oracy, confidence and the need of home schooling for the more challenging students. Similarly, there are lack of aspirations even among the More Able and Talented (MAT) pupils. A school department head (SCH25) speaks her pupil's words saying "I'm rubbish" despite the success the pupil had in an event which was discussed in the last chapter. In addition, disengaged students who cannot be bothered to do anything, such as compiling a job application, but their interest is revived through Business Class partner support; this was testified by school ten. Many schools report having problems with children, and also concerns coming from school inspectors.

A repeated word from schools and businesses alike when talking about pupils and which is also reflected in the theme of a planned joint cluster event to 'raise aspirations' – shows the breadth and severity of the issue of lack of aspirations in pupils. The aspiration issue often seems

beyond the pupil's influence and leads to the second and third issues; this being social and economic disadvantage.

Pupils : Social Problems

Deeper problems in family and social life, among others, prove even more difficult for pupils. Pupils who are raised by single parents, a chaotic home life, lack of support, anti-social behaviour, drug use and so on have been reported by both schools and businesses. A school department head (SCH25) states:

“a lot of them are brought up by females, so and also a lot of single parents and also lot of them have lost their parents... All these having a go, aspire to [do] something to drive them”

Here, the school department head speaks about the poor state of families of the pupils and their social life, and how in response to this, activities were organised with partner business. Similarly, one of the responses through BC programme has been about rewarding good behaviour to tackle some of these problems.

Pupils : Aspirations and Economic Disadvantages

The lack of aspirations, as the business manager (BIZ04) explains below, is much deeper than perceived.

“... young girls who are bright but have no aspirations, maybe, we had many families in [north Wales city] – three generations unemployed and don't know what looks like and has perception that you've to go to university to get a career and whatever”

Deprivation and lack of aspirations, it seems, have become entwined in this example of the young women in north Wales whom the business manager talks about in the interview, as quoted above.

Two photos that were supplied by business one, were tied to a project associated with an external organisation, and it shows a famous Welsh sports personality and broadcaster being interviewed in the millennium stadium in Cardiff by school pupils connected through the Business Class partnership. The photos show excitement of the pupils for such an opportunity to undertake the interview, whilst also they gain various skills such as digital competency, broadcasting and presentation as corroborated by other evidences (such as Cardiff cluster meeting minute 2017). These pupils come from schools, which are situated in highly deprived areas and often associated with, among other issues, a lack of aspiration as discussed in the last chapter. Similarly, a business-education symposium in 2017 that was observed by this researcher had a famous television personality as the host of the event; they interviewed a pupil for her testimony about the benefits of BC such as increase in the pupil's confidence. It seems visiting great places and meeting famous people, accessed through the BC programme, is believed to build aspirations, enhance inspirations and hone skills in pupils.

Several businesses repeated the matters of students coming from Communities First wards (indicator of high deprivation) and those who receive free school meal and deprivation grant. Likewise, they also mentioned about pupils coming from deprived areas and/or schools situated there. One of the responses to the issue of deprivation is through the local authority's demand to bidders for education related support as discussed in the last chapter. Businesses' response to such issues come in the form of supporting community/school through the BC programme as stated in the words of a business manager (BIZ08) as below:

“[the school area] precedes its reputation, the school is tarnished with stigma of that estate. That's where we should be. That's where we can make a difference.”

The inspiration for the business managers, who choose to work in the valleys instead of the city where their office is based makes sense, as to why context has played a role in commitment from business for the programme. A large British multinational media business also shared similar stories of becoming involved in the valleys whilst others, mainly SMEs, chose to work in valleys/deprived areas because they were local and wanted to make a difference in the community they were situated in or did business with. This provides the case for various businesses to step into the issue of deprivation and multiple disadvantages.

There are also other problems situated beyond the pupils' level, which is discussed below.

School Problems

Schools equally have issues such as underperforming department needing an overhaul, issues raised by the education inspectorate, their struggles and busyness as observed by the researcher and typified by the school manager's (SCH31) comment below on their inability to 'crank up' with Business Class activities stating:

"I think it is no fault of anybody, it is just the day to day running of a very busy school, demanding children, so we have to take that into consideration as well."

A business manager (BIZ11) at an anchor company responds to the crisis that befell their partner school and how they compassionately stepped in to help the HR of the school:

"... when the acting head said, some days, she has that about 60 teachers ill over winter (in December) – the day before... So, it was a significant amount. We just thought – how on earth, I think it might a bit lower than that actually but..."

We opened our eyes to – oh my goodness – how do you operate as a school that day without that (staffs) and I thought we might have absent issues, and we've realized that it's all industries and sectors."

This also connects with the discussion in the last chapter on 'resource pull' where businesses have been able to gather more resources to help the partnered school. The other areas of support, though examples are very scant, is that of corporate governance which the schools heavily lack.

There have been attempts to deal with issues faced by school beyond their periphery. There are some peculiar examples of businesses involving parents to engage in the BC programme. It shows a comprehensive response to social disadvantage affecting pupils and beyond at systemic level.

There are other areas of performance where schools lack. The objectives stated within a tender document (through which BC was funded) by the government (evidence 41 in appendix 2) says:

“Increase in the capacity of schools to deliver an effective careers and the world of work framework through increased employer engagement activities”

Amid the general performance issues at school – as discussed in the last chapter – and lack of managerial competencies in some schools, as discussed in this section and the contract as quoted above, requires the schools (in doing the BC programme) to learn and be able to deliver curriculum effectively. To support this, business 23 has “delivered sessions and workshops to middle leader teachers looking at management skills, motivation and handling conflict” to school 21 as recorded in the Cardiff cluster meeting minutes (see appendix 7 for thematic cross-connection in data). It thus seems that businesses are generous when helping schools in diverse areas beyond the regular requirement of the BC partnership; this was discussed previously also.

Broader Issues

The employers concern about lack of skills in pupils is corroborated with various stakeholders and government manager (GOV18). It was also detailed by the government organisation delivering BC programme (GOV14) regarding the mismatch in supply and demand on skills and also businesses in the BC partnership complaining about it; for example, in the construction sector as reported in business twenty-four’s business-wide responsible business strategy paper.

Similarly, through its tendering process, the government, as one of the stakeholders within Business Class, desires to see:

“A narrowing of the gap between education and employment ensuring that the skills and career aspirations of young people are consistent with employer demand, emerging growth opportunities and the long term needs of the economy”

Beyond the demands of the employer, job market and economy as stated above, the BC programme in Wales originally started in 2013 specifically in such areas suffering from extreme deprivation, such as in heads of valleys, affecting multiple stakeholders including pupils.

Likewise, cost being one of the issues at partnership and also programme level but generally supported by businesses, aided mainly through the funding of the Welsh Government, shows active response to the many challenges faced in Wales such as by pupils, schools and places.

The natural geographical remoteness of the areas within Wales in which the schools are situated has also forced the programme to evolve through innovation and increased need for technology.

External developments – such as the Donaldson report in 2015 on comprehensive review of curriculum in Wales (discussed in chapter five and six) – have led to government plans to change the curriculum over time; this is reflected in several interviews mainly with those from the BC support organisations.

Summary of Value from Context

- Lack of aspirations among pupils
- Pupils facing problems in family and social life
- Economic deprivation in local areas where BC programme operates
- Schools have managerial and performance (education) issues and concerns from education inspectors
- Broader issues like deficit of skills and curriculum changes and challenges of rural areas exist
- Businesses and organisations are moved by the context of deprivation and many other issues to act (toward society)

7.1.2 Value Coming from Cluster

Cluster mechanism is not a day-to-day business within the BC programme; thus, its contribution in value creation is limited. However, cluster not only provides a distinct way to enhance value creation in a networked collaborative environment, but also arguably, it can serve as an organisational infrastructure that creates more value. It does so through

collaborations among programme stakeholders, student competitions, events and partnerships. This is discussed below.

Multiple Partnerships

Currently, few schools are getting support from various businesses in the cluster beyond the paired business partner, as discussed in the last chapter. However, there is a possibility for progression towards having multiple partners, as suggested by the charity managing the BC and the government. It is also supported by some current practices, as noted by a chair of BC's city cluster from a business (BIZ23):

“Certainly through the cluster, we look at things like employability skills. So, a number of businesses will get together all of the schools and we will run short workshops on anything, really, from building confidence, CV writing, interview techniques, presentation skills, all that kind of thing.”

As discussed in the last chapter and associated with multiple partnerships (by schools) above, there is another strand where some businesses already support more than one school and in more than one cluster. As presented in the last chapter, multiple partnerships in cluster can help create pooled resources.

Events and Competitions

The formal structure of BC suggests that cluster events take place once a year. These events are generally high profile and would have attention from the press as the BC delivery organisation claims. Examples of such events are Lego innovation competition and a high profile event that culminated in Senedd in Cardiff bay on sustainable technology, participated by schools from heads of valleys. These events in the form of inter-school competitions can substantially increase pupils' interest and confidence but it presents costs and other practical challenges of organising it, as pointed out by the BC delivery organisation (GOV14).

“High profile, headline grabbing, all the schools will come down for a day, do a competition, give somebody a prize, have photographs taken with the minister and away you go. That's not a sustainable model for us because a lot of that work, booking a venue, organising it ... our staff wrote those competitions... they organised all of that and as a sustainable model, that's five people across the whole of Wales to deliver all of that. It's not something we can sustain.”

School twenty-five in their calendar of events for 2014-16 (document) reads:

“Business Class Skills for the Future Showcase. Venue Senydd [sic] Cardiff. 2 Year 11 students + [school's career department head]. Set up stall displaying activities undertaken with Business Class (Tuesday 13th October 2015)”

The event in Senedd (home of the National Assembly for Wales) in Cardiff is a premium venue, where ‘headline grabbing’ events are organized between multiple businesses, schools and other stakeholders. This also connects to the earlier issues of aspirations and response to it, such as visiting premium venues, however it comes with considerable commitment for resources and time as testified by BC delivery organisation manager (GOV14) discussed above. Therefore, in the section on ‘quality of value’ later in this chapter, it will be shown the need for improvement in cluster events.

The benefits of such high profile events are many, as testified by managers, but the time needed to organise it and necessary staff inputs, makes it hard to sustain.

Cluster activities reported during the research are listed as below.

- Enterprise activity
- Sustainable technology
- Dragon's Den
- Lego innovation competition
- Curriculum partnership
- Workshops
- Confidence building
- CV, interview and presentation

The above events, competitions and activities within the cluster helps to materialize collaborative efforts among businesses doing things together, beyond the high level exposure inside and outside BC and its substantial impact on primary stakeholders. In addition, a business-education symposium was organized by the BC managing charity in Cardiff in summer 2017 which brought many stakeholders– ranging from schools, media, government and researchers. Though the symposium event is not classified as a cluster event but it supports the BC programme generally.

Sharing and Collaborations

Sharing, collaborations and learning is the most utilised function within the BC programme. It brings businesses and schools together in order to share, what and how they do and sharing of best practices, information and collaborate. In the words of a business manager (BIZ24), it breaks down the barrier of schools which “historically have been very poor at sharing” and brings new opportunities for learning and support, such as curriculum; this was evidenced in the collaborations between schools twenty-five and nineteen within the heads of valleys cluster. Cluster also helps create a resource pool as discussed above in the multiple partnership section and it is reinforced by a manager at business eight, who states:

“Like as I said to the other schools and businesses, anything you want, we [are] not resource precious. It’s for the school, the school has it... One thing we’ve been conscious for school to own things. This is yours and you can have it. You can tailor that programme, you can have it. The same we said with the cluster group as well.”

The businesses within the BC programme are happy to share resources beyond their primary partner. As discussed in the last chapter about the cluster, this has created scope for technology innovation for connecting cluster partners, such as through webinar. Likewise, the softer aspects of relationship building can often be ignored but these connections at cluster level between business and school peers and across them are still useful.

As discussed earlier, sharing and collaboration also happens when a business partners with more than one paired school. For example, an award application by business one in 2017 reads:

“Having multiple partnerships allows us to share activities between schools and the lessons learnt”

These words about their award application suggests why their partnership with several schools (five schools and one college) is useful for the programme and in general. The last chapter has also presented research on business-school multiple partnerships and external linkages connecting with other charities and national initiatives.

Because of these multiple benefits and capabilities (value creating opportunities), clusters arguably serve as organisational infrastructure and through this network, many other activities and initiatives can be carried out, as stated by the director of the BC managing charity.

However, as I noted the challenges earlier about the cluster event costs and sharing from schools, the BC cluster system also has challenges. Some of these are: managing time for cluster meetings between busy schools and businesses, and the support needed from BC managing and delivery organisations to make things happen on the ground. The implication of this is that some school/business who have embraced well have a rich experience both within the partnership and at cluster level and yet others have poor experiences, because for them, BC is “not a priority” and is rather in the “backburner” (SCH20), however the latter is a rare example.

Summary of Value from Cluster

- There is a move from paired partner to having support from multiple businesses for schools whilst maintaining the primary pairing (but it is limited currently)
- Range of events mainly in the form of student competitions at cluster level increase all round benefits, however challenges of costs and organising events must be considered.
- Sharing, learning and collaboration are the largest benefits in the cluster mechanism, supporting the claim that cluster can become organisational infrastructure.

- Time constraint is a challenge for cluster meetings, therefore the suggestions to part replace them with web-based interactions as well as through events eg. student competitions.
- Most partnerships have rich experience both in partnerships and clusters.
- Despite the potentials, cluster collaborations through meetings and events are occasional, thus the cluster's contribution to value creation in the BC programme is currently limited, as compared to activities in business-school partnerships which are more regular.

7.1.3 Value Coming from Activities

Activities usually carried out for schools by businesses in partnership are the largest contributor to the value creation in the Business Class. In this section, the value that comes from activities through business-school partnership in terms of who benefited from it and with what (value), will be presented. The interviewees were reluctant to give causation of various outcomes/benefits to Business Class (BC) as there were several other things going on within the schools that can have co-contribute to the outcomes. I will return to this matter of impact later in this chapter. Furthermore, the benefits mainly for businesses are not necessarily what is fully materialized but tentative. The evaluation of value in this section is based on what things or outcomes that businesses and schools claimed as benefits in interviews and through other evidences. In this section, I first present benefits for schools and within the school for pupils such as confidence, skills, and staff benefits, and also the benefits to schools generally. I then present benefits to businesses such as reputation and staff development outcomes.

Value for Schools

Schools are the primary beneficiary of the Business Class programme. In schools, mainly pupils and staff have benefited, as presented below:

Value for Schools: Pupil Benefits

The outcomes for pupils as reported by interviewees, observed or found in other evidences are as following:

Skill or achievement area	How many businesses and/or schools reported
Soft skills (confidence, aspirations, attitude)	7
Employability skills (financial skills, presentation, placement, job prospect, interview skills, communication, teamwork, IT, problem solving, external qualifications)	9
Numeracy, literacy and grade	3
Attendance	2
In-kind donations (goods and tickets for sports)	1
Financial bursary	1

Fig. 7.1a Benefits to Pupils from Business Class Activities

A business-education symposium in Cardiff during 2017, that I observed, makes a positive connection as to why such special events – where pupils participated in different roles

(photography, live blogging) with enthusiasm as well as the chance they had to use latest technology gadgets and meet famous personalities/leaders in the symposium – offers experience that is very different from their usual school environment. It is a stimulating environment to build aspiration, skills and knowledge, as well as for networking.

A minute of the Cardiff cluster meeting in 2017 reports:

“[Business 23] supported [School 21]’s very successful annual Careers Conference for Year 11 pupils which covered CV writing, interview techniques, job applications and mock interviews and *was an excellent confidence building event.*”

[emphasis in italics mine]

The above quote suggests that beyond special events such as the symposium discussed above, regular activities between the business and the school (the career conference) also help build confidence in pupils.

Alongside others, the soft skill outcome of confidence and aspirations in pupils appear prominently, both in the above table and as discussed in various parts of last and this chapter. It is prominent because of the response to the problems such as deprivation and multiple disadvantages, the pupils live with. Whereas, capturing and measuring of such outcomes is very complex; this is discussed below.

The numbers above do not necessarily reflect the reality nor does it correspond to the range of activities listed in the last chapter. It is because, the numeracy and literacy, is such a basic activity that the respondents either did not find this of great value as compared to other outcomes, or more likely, they struggled to attribute the outcomes to Business Class alone. The below comments from a school manager (SCH19) shows the difficulty of attribution:

“We have [had] that into our school development plan, so the success criteria is there. We would use them feedback from children check the impact; obviously that comes from us Welsh Bacc... When we use pupil outcomes to measure that and there is improvement in all of those areas. It would not be, as I would not say that it’s only down to Business Class but Business Class is one of the definitely – one of the contributing factors.”

Many schools have struggled with this aspect of impact attribution and have not been open or confident about stating the impact of Business Class, but never denied the benefits of it. Though the school would have ways to measure the success of the pupils in terms of results, similar problems have been shared by another school (SCH30) as quoted below:

“It [is] quite a difficult thing to measure because it is hard to measure attitude sometimes and it would be also hard to measure you know, with the maths tutoring, was it without those extra sessions or not.”

Probes into impact with the interviewee did not yield more results for them to claim that benefits neatly tied with the Business Class.

A Dragon’s Den student event in a school in South Wales valleys (SCH34) had put pupils into groups— individual, male and female, and those with special learning needs/disabilities (supported by teacher) and they presented their business ideas to me as one of the judges (among others). The challenges and complexity of judging the business ideas directly (their merit) and outcomes which are relative to the dynamic of group/individual, sex and learning ability is an issue as the standard post-event survey currently used, is not sufficient to capture outcomes or benefits that the pupils gain from such activities. Such practice raises a more fundamental question of what is measured as impact and importantly how it is done (method).

Other issues in impact measurement are concerns about some of the outcomes, such as getting a university place or job after school. Currently, there is no system to report outcomes beyond pupils time in school (exposed to BC programme). Below are comments from a business manager (BIZ01) that exemplifies it.

“It’s hard to track. For us to find CEO is holy grail and it might be 20 years, it’s almost impossible to track.”

The other issue that affects measuring student outcome is the timeline; any immediate or short-term effect can be difficult, as stated below by the school department head (SCH10).

“Over a three year period, you can actually see an improvement whereas if it was just one-off activity with a business, you can’t necessarily measure the impact as well. So,

Business Class council is a good one, because those pupils are involved from the beginning for 3 years and you can see a change in them over the 3 year period. Other groups, because they're dipping in and out maybe slightly different and more difficult measure their success."

The struggle for measuring benefits that occur beyond the pupils' study in schools, as noted here, is also discussed in the impact section later in this chapter.

The success of businesses within these outcomes for pupils is connected with their willingness to listen to the people who are experienced in industry, therefore, pupils find relevance of their study in the workplace. The attention deficit in pupils is reported by many businesses and schools, as something school teachers struggle with.

Value for Schools : Staff Benefits

Among all, eight schools and businesses reported staff development related outcome within the schools. These outcomes come mainly through training, event participation and support. A school department head (SCH10) said the following about staff training with a business partner.

"We did a staff training day.. hmm.. we decided to target middle managers because at the time, 3 years ago the head was looking to make change because obviously we had to cut staff (we lost the 6th form), so we had to obviously loose a lot of staff and so to manage that change, we did training with [business partner] about how staff can manage their change and manage their staff, so all of us – middle leaders went to [business partner] and it was a lovely training day with us. That was useful."

"Some staff said that was best teacher training day that they ever had."

"We really found that useful."

Here, the school department head explains the impact and the richness of experience and the staff development outcome, when training is provided by the business partner at business' facility. In most circumstances, the schools will report similar richness of their experience and

success in activity such as staffs INSET (in service training) days with a Business Class partner but not always reported as benefits and outcomes. Thus, the actual number (in impact) should likely be higher than reported.

Value for Schools : School Benefits

It is difficult to assign benefit categories to a school as an organisation because most of these will be related to its constituent (pupil, staff) as reported above. Schools receiving knowledge/information or getting extra resources, and curriculum development related benefits, though very limited, are benefits to school.

Within the schools, though it is not stated as a benefit, one of the strands that is under experimentation is – devolving from key contacts at the school to multiple contacts (eg. department/subject heads); therefore, more specific activities can be organized as well as potential for leadership development for the middle management/department heads within the school. This experimentation of multiple contacts is currently limited to few schools. BC's activity with board of governors in schools, other than occasional meetings with them, is next to non-existent.

Value for Businesses

Surprisingly, businesses participating in the Business Class programme have recorded numerous benefits and in higher proportion. However, it is difficult to compare whether their benefits were greater than their counterparts (schools) in BC because of the attribution issues in schools, and generally, as stated in the previous sections.

The below table gives account of various benefits businesses accrue from involvement in the BC programme.

Areas of Benefit	How many businesses and schools reported it
Reputation (publicity, brand awareness, raise profile, PR)	10
Staff development (skills, knowledge)	9
Recruitment	5
Wider benefit (business development, networking, charity)	6

Fig. 7.1b Benefits to Businesses from Business Class Activities

There are various kinds of benefits that businesses draw from BC programme, among which reputation and staff development are prominent.

The government contract for BC programme writes:

“Increased employer investment in both time and financial resource in links with schools (demonstrating corporate social responsibility, *increasing community profile*, potentially being able to shape and influence the future workforce)”
[emphasis in italics mine]

The concept of increasing community profile, as quoted above, was a repeated terminology used mainly by businesses that were interviewed. Brand perception was an explicit question that was asked to pupils and school staff at school nineteen, in a video featuring their partnership with business twenty-eight. Similarly, business twenty-six stated information about a student competition activity to “design logo for the partnership”, linked to the community connection of the business. Other strands such as reputation and goodwill of the businesses

within the community and the multiple stakeholders is apparently strengthened because of their involvement in BC programme.

Furthermore, the community profile or brand awareness is demonstrated to be an important achievement, this is shown in the following graph from the responsible award application by business one and it claims:

“Business Class partnerships have directly contributed to increased brand awareness amongst the school pupils and teachers. They have also helped maintain and grow the positive brand attributes our Members (or customers) have of [business 1] as a responsible business and one that proactively supports local communities.”

“Our Business Class partnerships have become a key element of our CSR activity and have contributed significantly to our responsible business reputation.”

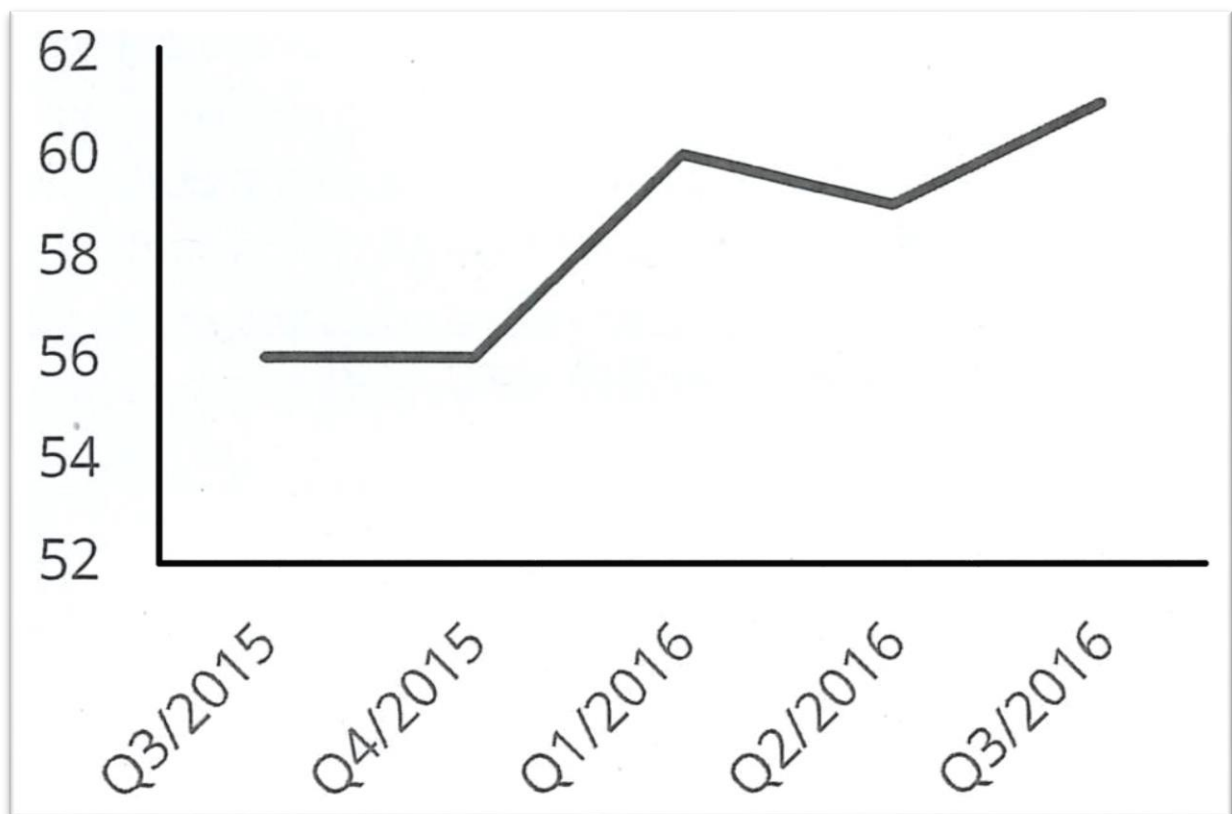


Fig. 7.2 Increasing Brand Awareness 2015-16. Business 1 (2017)

Furthermore, in a separate document on Business Class reporting (for year 2016), business one highlights that all partner schools “noted an increase in [business one] brand awareness”. In this way, the reputation of the businesses appears prominently, among other benefits that business would accrue through involvement in the BC programme.

In addition to the reputation advantage discussed above, businesses reported staff development outcomes connected to the BC programme. It was discussed earlier in this chapter, using the quotation from Cardiff cluster meeting minutes regarding staff development support from business twenty-three to school twenty-one, as well as in several other partnerships. Business one, in their award application, write about staff development outcome as below:

“Community volunteering has positive impact on colleague wellbeing, helps them live our values, and all would recommend volunteering to other colleagues”

This shows that staff development is a key benefit to businesses gained through their partnership with a school/community.

Similarly, business eight in their responsible business award application 2016 document writes about their staff development outcomes stating:

- “1. Staff Engagement: 153 staff volunteers encouraged and engaged by [business 8]’s visible commitment to local issues. Staff engagement scores for Cardiff were 81% – 16% above the company average,
2. Staff Development: staff exposed to skills, experiences and cultures outside their normal remit, making more rounded and compassionate individuals, opening up opportunities to expand their horizons, enriching their roles and improving their work/life balance.”

Staff development in terms of skills, knowledge and engagement in businesses are tangible benefits as expressed by those participating in BC programme.

Most businesses will repeat that there is a benefit of reputation (also sometimes echoed by schools) and similarly on potential recruitment from schools where employability and career

events are carried out. The staff development strand is slightly difficult to define and diverse but it is visible in terms of staff involvement and what is gained from it.

The above outcomes for businesses are not necessarily definite, but tentative benefits as perceived by school or business managers. For example, business eleven talked about recruitment from their partner school region (Cardiff) but when they were asked whether it materialised or not, the response was:

“Yea, I mean that [is] always a battle we gonna be against, to be honest. With females in engineering and when we spoke to the school, we said that, you know, they obviously know that as one of our main needs in that need analysis and they’re completely on board with that because you know they said that so many of their female students are in the top science.”

A human resource officer at business twenty-eight explains in a video about recruitment, stating:

“It’s all about talent really, the best talent for the business and what better place to resource that talent from schools, learning establishments and around the community”

In the video, the staffs describe what business does and roles/positions in the company, in interviews with pupils from their partner school nineteen. Similarly, a business in the financial services (BIZ01) writes about their job of providing information within the financial service sector in their award application and opportunity with the business – as issues addressed through the BC programme. Similarly, business eight (in financial sector) in their award application 2016 who write: “motivating and encouraging pupils to consider the financial sector as a viable career option, creating a pool of future employees already committed to the company, and to progressing further” – shows an apparent motivation related to human resource recruitment for involving in the BC programme.

Another business in financial services (BIZ24), writes within its responsible business strategy about education and employability as below:

“We know that attainment at school and the acquisition of work skills are key drivers of social mobility and prosperity in later life. But ensuring young people do well in their education and are prepared for work does not just benefit them as individuals. It also benefits the communities in which they live and the businesses that rely on recruiting local talent.”

As it is with other businesses interviewed or through other forms of data acquired (see appendix 7), the recruitment or talent pipeline is an expected outcome or strategy and not realized yet. Therefore, the challenge of calculating such outcomes or benefits arising from BC or community involvement is that they are not evidently present (as impact) or reported at the point of research.

Businesses were transparent in claiming potential benefits for themselves, whilst somehow reluctant to comment on benefits to schools, where tangible measurement was difficult; such as in confidence, aspiration and so on.

There are a wide range of factors contributing to value, such as relationships between schools and businesses is something difficult to measure and categorise. Most businesses report of having a good relationship with schools and vice versa. In the next section, I will return to evaluate the value of this mutual relationship.

Likewise, though the example of schools offering support to businesses in reciprocity is very limited, yet not recorded as benefit, but it does perhaps give some satisfaction factor and opportunity for schools to become deeply involved, as stated by a school department head (SCH25).

“We got really working relationship with them and I think it depends as well. It’s not all take-take-take from the school, is it? It’s give and take with the business and also schools.”

Such mutuality by reciprocating help is essential in building strong relationships between schools, businesses and also among other stakeholders; this was discussed during the last chapter and is also emphasized in below quotation from business one:

“The Business Class model is one that balances the needs of schools with the capabilities of the business partner, and this along with the expertise of [government organisation 14] delivers effective help to young people”

The words of endorsement in the above quote by the then-chief executive of the business (one) in their award application shows how important it is for multiple parties to have/show commitment in order to create impact.

Whilst the focus in this section has been on benefits of activities mainly to schools and businesses – as stated in the last chapter as well as in the next section (7.2) – the benefit is accrued also by the support of organisations and others in various forms. I now summarize the key findings about value coming from activities as below.

Summary of Value from Activities

- As presented in the previous key section on the context in which Business Class operates, confidence and aspirations in pupils is a challenge and it has received benefits alongside employability skills.
- Numeracy and literacy related basic activities leading to benefit were reported as being very low (2) and potential reasons for this are: it might have been thought to be too basic activity to report, compared to other grander outcomes and may be due to the fact that it falls within the schools’ primary business of teaching. Likewise, the other probable reason is that respondents were unable to attribute this to Business Class alone; the struggle for the latter is often mentioned by schools and businesses alike in different areas of benefits. Other pupil outcome and issues are:
 - Impacts can show up beyond the timeline of pupils in school.
 - It is easier for pupils exposed to Business Class for longer period of time to exhibit outcomes.
 - Pupils’ willingness to listen to experienced people within industry is valuable.
- Staff within the school benefit through training and leadership support.
- School as an organisation benefits from BC but in a limited way.

- Businesses have benefited mainly through reputation related advantage (ten reported) and following this staff development through skills and knowledge (nine), and potential recruitment and wider benefit (five each).
- The benefits claimed by businesses and schools alike are tentative rather than definitive due to the issue that they are not clearly attributed to Business Class or have not been fully materialized.
- Business-school relationships are generally very good.
- Schools are starting to reciprocate the help from business.

7.2 QUALITY OF VALUE

In this section, the quality of value in various value areas is determined by the emphasis that the respondents provided in varying degrees, and some of them are repeated. These responses came out within natural conversations in various parts of the interviews, and responses as discovered in documents, through observation or evidenced in other forms of data. In this section, the quality of value is determined in relative strength/magnitude in areas of mainly partnership, activity, cluster and programme, followed by its detailed explanation. This approach follows mainly the magnitude coding, among others, which were used in combination for data analysis as discussed in the methodology chapter.

Where businesses and schools are paired, their comments/evidence when discussing the same matter are treated separately because of their different experience or perception in those areas of value. Likewise, some interviewees will repeatedly speak about quality of certain area (such as partnership, activity) that shows richness of quality, thus their repetition is counted. The same rule applies to documents and other evidences also. This means that the actual comments are usually more than respondents/commentators from business, schools and others. The other important matter is that not all respondents have commented despite the same interview guide being used on all participants. The quality of value assessment does not give ‘how many respondents out of these many agreed’ kind of answer, due to the fact that these qualitative comments occurred in natural conversation and not through deliberate questions to rate activity, partnership or programme, but instead this reflects their version of (comparable) value.

The below table presents the quality of value in different categories, which are based upon varying intensity of positive and negative comments:

Value areas	Responses	Comments coming from
Business-School partnership	22 (out of 13 commentators) highest (+++) 3 high to very high (++) 17 medium (+) 1 negative (-) 0 very negative (- -) 1	businesses and schools
Activity	47 (out of 27 commentators) highest +++ 4 high to very high ++ 31 medium + 12 negative - 0	all
Cluster	13 (out of 11 commentators) highest +++ 0 high to very high ++ 5 medium + 4	all

	negative – 4	
Business Class programme	8 (out of 8 commentators) highest +++ 0 high to very high ++ 6 medium + 2 negative – 0	all
Relationship with BC delivery organisation	4 (out of 4 commentators) highest +++ 0 high to very high ++ 2 medium + 2 negative – 0	businesses and schools

Fig. 7.3 Value Areas and Quality of Value

In the table above, the category ‘high to very high’ is highlighted (dimmed) in order that readers use this as a basic reference to easily distinguish between what is high level quality above it (and in itself) compared to lower level below it.

In the last chapter (section 6.3), it was established that most value creation occurs within activities that are carried out by the business-school partnership. Therefore, partnership is a vital element to support value creation and the success of the programme. A career in-charge leading Business Class in school twenty-five testifies about their relationship with the partner business, stating:

“[the business partner] – they are really really good. If we say can we have this, can we have that they will be in”

The emphasis ‘really really good’ shows a highest degree relationship in relative comparison within the Business Class partnership. Though there are few in this exceptional category, the quality of relationship is very high (seventeen out of twenty-two mentions) as presented above. In other words, about half the businesses and schools (thirteen out of twenty seven) that were interviewed, observed or read about, presented their partnership to testify generally a very good level of relationship with their paired partners. The other half among businesses and schools did not comment specifically or other evidences did not offer information; so, as noted at the beginning of this section, lack of information/comment does not suggest otherwise ie. poor relationship.

Activities are the most experiential area that businesses, schools and support organisations are naturally comfortable to comment on, thus the higher number of commentators. Among all who responded or were observed, they spoke very positively about the success of the activity or its feedback coming from the school and the stakeholders. Their version of success falls substantially under high to very high level of success indicator in table 7.3 above. The ‘very high’ category in activities received the highest responses as compared to other areas of value, owing to closer experiences in activity by many participants.

A business manager (BIZ09) gives a detailed account of activity with their partner school and success, stating:

“They’re over 100 pupils came to do presentation over couple of days and as well as that ad 30 volunteers from the business (from the [business] that we recruited) and they in groups then, listened to the presentations and gave feedback and encouragement and that sort of thing. Really really good, really successful day.”

The business manager’s emphasis is clear, indicating the highest level of success. Though it is difficult to quantify how much it means, these qualitative comments give comparative indication of what is extraordinarily great (the above quoted case) to great to okay levels of experiences, successes or perception.

Likewise, a pupil from school ten at a business-education symposium event (observed by the researcher) testifies of her experience regarding the cluster event she attended in the past:

“we went to Senedd.. that was really [good].. [for] confidence building. I had to speak to media, I was nervous... [but] confident than last year”

So, activities are much more tangible experience for all different types of stakeholders able to ascribe the effects/impact to a certain extent.

Though the BC delivery organisation has a day-to-day contact with businesses and schools to set up and support the running of activities, feedback from schools and businesses on the organisation is very limited. This is possibly because the respondents didn't think of the BC delivery organisation's supporting role amid the conversation on various issues and/or that other types of evidences did not have enough information.

Some businesses and schools commented on cluster as neutral. Considering other value areas eg. partnership, cluster attracted relatively less positive and notable negative comments. The negative comments here are due to difficulty such as being in a rural area with limited number of BC partnerships and resource-intensiveness of cluster event. At school thirty-three, there was some criticism of the usefulness of the cluster, simply because the logistics of arranging meetings was problematic. This is echoed by the BC delivery organisation (GOV14) stating:

“The level of intervention might vary but as a minimum it's reminding people, convening meetings, pulling them together, reminding them they need to meet and the biggest issue for us without a doubt, is trying to get them together in clusters. They commit to the school, they'll commit to all of that, and we managed to get some really, really good cluster chairs but getting the schools to find the time at the same time, getting the employers to be able to come out at the same time, that's proving really difficult. That's a flaw because [BC managing organisation], part of their Business Class model, is that the strength of it is sharing practice by other clusters. We're really struggling to get them to do that.”

It is within the cluster meetings that schools and businesses are finding it difficult to commit time, and on other occasions, the delivery organisation manager suggests other cluster events

that are better liked and is 'good' and 'excellent' stuff. The relatively poor success in this domain as compared to others, calls for a change to match the quality of the whole programme, and perhaps see how the cluster events which are very successful might at least part replace the needs of meetings or incorporate meetings. However, the positive comments between medium to high (nine out of thirteen mentions) suggest the usefulness of cluster in sharing, collaboration and success of events. Despite the issues discussed above, there is a good quality value in clusters.

There were relatively lower amount of comments but all of them positive (good) on the Business Class programme; perhaps because this area was not necessarily central in the interviews or less available in other evidences. There are other areas where only very few commented, so are not included in the table above, such as relationships between the charity managing BC programme and the BC delivery organisation, which was regarded as very positive. Likewise, training and competency of the BC delivery organisation to run Business Class programme was considered extremely positive.

Summary of Quality of Value

- There are mainly three canons used in determining quality of value in relative degrees, as below, thus not quantified.
 - The measurement of quality of value is primarily decided based on intensity of comment using a magnitude coding scheme dividing into four categories: highest (extremely great); high to very high (great or very good); medium (good) and negative (not so good or not good), and very negative (tangibly very bad) comments, observations or other information.
 - Repetitive comments on quality of certain phenomenon by same respondent (or in various evidences) such as partnership or cluster is counted as separate, which shows strength or richness of value in that particular area.
 - Comments from counterparts such as businesses and schools in paired partnership on same value area are counted as separate as their experience or perception in that area can be different.

- The interviews and other evidences show quality of value in a natural way, thus the responses are not directed at rating or quantifying value of activity reflecting the qualitative nature of this research. Therefore:
 - Qualitative comments occur naturally in conversation.
 - Not all respondents felt the need to say something about the value.
- Quality of different types of value:
 - Partnerships present high quality of relationship between business and schools
 - Activities mainly in the schools by businesses present great usefulness with heavy participation in commenting.
 - Cluster has some negative comments, though this does not undermine its propensity to add value and arguably be an organisational infrastructure. The challenges of cluster meeting, events organising, balancing these and potential move towards web-based exchange and increased events are ongoing issues. It attracted few comments because not every stakeholder would have knowledge of it.
 - Business Class programme is considered very good by multiple stakeholders.

7.3 IMPACT ON RECIPIENTS, MEASUREMENT AND PRACTICES

This section presents practices of measuring and reporting impact among schools and businesses in the Business Class (BC) programme. In this section, I present outcomes (what is measured) mainly in pupils and methods (how it is measured) in order to count the benefits coming out of the BC programme evidenced in and as practiced by schools and businesses, and other stakeholders involved. Likewise, challenges of measuring impact as faced by various stakeholders of the BC programme will be presented. Not every business, school or support organisation talked about or had evidence of the impact measurement and practices, thus it presents a general picture rather than ‘how many are doing it’ kind of answers.

7.3.1 What is Measured

There are varieties of outcomes (or perceived outcomes) measured by organisations in BC partnership as listed in the first table (7.4) below which are the outcomes for pupils as the

primary beneficiary. In the second table (7.5), it shows what businesses actually count which shows mainly inputs rather than the outcomes.

Areas of outcomes in pupils	Other names used in the category (or explanation)
Attitude	Enthuse, confidence, aspirations
Grade	
Skills (employability skills)	
Attendance	
Value add, utility	General usefulness of BC programme

Fig. 7.4 Practices in Measurement of Outcomes in Pupils

Unlike the outcomes being counted above as practised in schools, businesses mostly use inputs, though they claim these to be outcome or impact.

Areas of supposed outcomes (as counted by businesses)	Other names used in the main category (or explanation)
Number of pupils reached	Considered as outcome

Volunteer hours	Volunteering through staff involvement
Number of staffs	Number of staffs who volunteered
Number of activities	Targeted number for activities in schools
Amount of money donated	Donated for external qualifications, sports kits and directly to community
Goods donated	Goods such as sports kits
Number of school (partnership)	
Apprentice/job created	
Qualification attained by recipient	External qualifications delivered alongside BC
Skills attained (by pupils)	
Funds raised (for charities)	

Fig. 7.5 Measurement of Outcomes in Businesses

Employee volunteering for Business Class was evident in almost all cases and this links with cost neutral approach as discussed in the last chapter on background to activities (section 6.3.1).

7.3.2 How is Impact Measured

The value/benefit areas are being measured as presented above. I now explain how these outcomes are measured; that is, the tools being used to estimate the value of activities being carried out or a phenomenon in the Business Class programme and how frequently these are measured.

Methods of measuring	Details and explanations
Standard survey	<p>Post-event questionnaire from BC delivery organisation measuring before and after effects of activity to both school and business (problems with it: ‘getting heads to it’, ‘complex’, ‘longwinded’)</p> <p>Also few businesses use their own surveys and feedbacks are used in cluster events as well, CSR report by businesses</p>
External data	Data from other organisation
Case report	Such as video report

Feedback (informal)	<p>From school to business, school teacher feedback on activity</p> <p>From business to school/pupils</p> <p>Within school (from pupils and staffs)</p> <p>Claims of BC in-charge or head in school</p>
Success (proxy)	<p>Press</p> <p>Responsible Business Award</p> <p>Pupil competitions (mainly in clusters)</p> <p>Estyn's assessment and improvements</p>
Success (direct)	<p>Related to pupils progression</p> <p>Getting into apprenticeship, job, skills, experience, extra qualification, achievement award</p> <p>GCSE, college, university place</p>
Impact through aversion	<p>Social problems (pupils drinking energy drinks)</p> <p>NEET (not in education, employment or training)</p> <p>Skill deficit</p>

Fig. 7.6 Methods of Measuring Outcomes

The feedbacks help identify weaknesses and thus make improvements; this applies to all aspects of the programme including support organisations. Some of these feedbacks and measurements are used in the form of newsletters or internal communications which are helpful to enthuse members of staff and client, or for reporting purpose.

A school manager (SCH19) speaks about how impact is measured in the form of informal feedback from pupils and staffs at their school stating:

“We will be able to evidence either through softer data, in terms of pupil’s voice and staff voice or outcome data; the impact has been really helpful for us.”

The ‘softer data’ approach (as quoted above) to gather informal feedback is used by many businesses, for example, simply asking teachers how pupils find it and internally within the school.

A survey on employability skills from business one among its four partner schools within the BC shows judgements, which are based upon:

- Positive attitude
- Self management
- Team working
- Business and customer awareness
- Problem solving
- Communication and literacy
- Application of numeracy
- Application of information technology

These skills are rated using four scales:

- Not relevant
- Little improved
- Improved
- Significantly improved

The outcomes show that most results (highest) fall into the category of ‘improved’ to ‘significantly improved’ as filled by students. They also include the teacher feedback on their pupils, using the same judgement criteria as above. Similarly, in a separate document on Business Class reporting for 2016, business one’s business-school partnership is also rated by their partner schools. It shows that impact can be situated beyond the primary beneficiary and that multiple stakeholders can evaluate such impacts. Furthermore, the practice of capturing of impact amongst businesses, schools and other stakeholders in BC programme is very diverse as discussed throughout this section.

Business eight in their application for responsible business award 2016 writes about the outcomes (among others such as financial awareness, employability skills, reading) stating:

“**NEET results** – only 1 pupil left school without employment or training arranged – and they were home-schooled.” (*bold in original*)

It shows that impact is also counted through aversion by preventing people entering into NEET as stated above.

Some businesses and schools, though very limited, have been able to claim success through case stories such as below from a business manager (BIZ04):

“One from year 1 who is living in the hostel and taking her ‘A’ levels and has applied to university this year.”

“One who rediscovered her passion for drawing and supported her and she is actually doing her second year doing game, arts and animation.”

Despite the testimony and measurement from businesses or schools, it is tentative to say that the BC caused a particular outcome. This will be discussed in the next section.

The frequency of feedback or measurement as practised by businesses, schools and BC stakeholders is heavily varying as shown below.

- Immediate (post-event)
- Weekly

- Periodic (programme based such as before, during and after for reading ability, reviewed in cluster meeting)
- Monthly
- End of term
- End of the year (annual)

It thus suggests that there are varying practices of measuring benefits in businesses and schools, for what is counted and how frequently.

7.3.3 Challenges on Impact Measurement

There are many challenges in measuring outcomes expressed by businesses and schools as well as support organisations.

A manager at BC delivery organisation suggests ‘longitudinal tracking’ of pupils in the context of post-school progression into careers. In response to the question about outcomes beyond what happens to schools, a school department head (SCH21) gives a transparent answer stating:

“Well, from what we're doing at present, there wouldn't really be any evidence to say that what's being done has had a significant impact on what comes next, no. We have had [business partner] come in to do assemblies with the key stage five pupils, about jobs within engineering. But the number of children who have gone into engineering hasn't gone up or down, it's stayed significantly the same. So, at the moment, I can't say that that's a definite impact or not. I don't have any physical evidence to say that that's happening or that's not.”

The problem of post-school impact is that the schools “get very little information back” as stated by a school manager (SCH19). This is something the BC managing charity is aiming to work towards, it is similar to the Graduate Outcomes surveys in the UK higher education.

Others complained of difficulties that are harder to measure; too early to measure or not being sure if activities have longer term effect. Among the BC participants, there seems impetus to “make difference on [the] ground” (BIZ01) and perhaps less on measuring it.

The challenges of measuring impact is also at a systemic level and practical difficulties such as availability of data, as stated by BC managing charity manager (CH03):

“We don’t know at the moment and one challenge is collecting data on not just the activity that has happening in a more quantitative way but also the impact its having through evaluation of actual activity, so that’s one challenge we grappling with at the moment, how do we collect that information.”

Similarly, even after the data or evidence is available, attribution is a challenge. A school department head (SCH10) explains it this way:

“A lot of pupils who you know gained hell of a lot ... its difficult to say sometimes – we had pupils who were involved in Business Class council because they were not necessarily the best pupils we chose from each year group. So, once [those] who [said] ‘I hate school and I hate this and I don’t see point in this’ – turned themselves around by the time they got to year 11, so did better in their GCSEs, you’d have expected them to because they changed their attitude.”

The above particular example of involvement in the Business Class council in the school is long-term, and shows changes in pupils’ improvement, along with their partnership with business, it is considered as exceptional success, yet the tone here is still tentative.

Businesses and schools normally pair for a longer time, therefore establishing effects should become more possible, as discussed above about the Business Class council in a school; yet the examples in the research shows difficulty, which is described by a business manager (BIZ01) as below:

“It’s hard to track. For us to find CEO is holy grail and it might be 20 years, it’s almost impossible to track.”

The attribution factor is extremely complex. There are external networks connected to schools and businesses as discussed in the last chapter (section 6.3.2) beyond the Business Class. Such multiple connections/interventions thus makes it difficult to track and isolate outcomes. Likewise, businesses would find it difficult to attribute impact to a certain partnership because

some of the businesses are paired with more than one school. Similarly, at an individual level, beyond what happens in the programme there is influence from family, mentor, peer, employer, teacher and so on and this has an impact on a person, influencing their choices. This issue is exemplified in a school manager's (SCH19) comment below:

“We have [had] that into our school development plan, so the success criteria is there. We would use them feedback from children check the impact; obviously that comes from us Welsh Bacc... when we use pupil outcomes to measure that and there is improvement in all of those areas. It would not be as I would not say that its only down to Business Class but Business Class is one of the definitely – one of the contributing factors.”

There are other different challenges. For example, not many business-school partnerships set out clear aims at the beginning and do not know what to expect in partnership. Similarly, the stakeholders have been talking about self-sustaining partnerships (indicative of goal) but this has not been achieved as testified by the BC delivery organisation (GOV14). Observation of an event at school 34 suggests a need for customized feedback based on varying ability, group and other factors instead of the widely used standard post-survey assessment of outcomes for pupils. Furthermore, businesses do not seem to be intentional about gaining benefits for themselves whilst setting up the partnership, and they present an altruistic tone, speaking tentatively regarding claims of benefits. However, these subtle expectations of both parties are matched in the partnership and the need assessment process.

7.3.4 Changing Context of Impact Practices

The evidence above presents poor impact orientation and practice, however there is a move towards impact orientation as stated in a business manager's (BIZ07) comment:

“I think it was a ‘we want to do it, it's right thing to do, will allow the people to do it’ probably 10 years ago and then overtime it's become actually we want to make sure that we doing the right things we're having greatest impact and there is becoming much more focussed...”

Newer developments important to impact measurement – for example, a reward scheme for pupils’ behaviour, parents being involved, and multi-partner (business) involvement within the school – call for broader ways of capturing impact. Likewise, the anticipated curriculum change in Wales also will have an effect on what is counted by the education inspectorate and paradigm implications on what is required to be done and its value.

Summary of Impact

- The impact story is mainly about pupils (benefits they receive).
- Schools measure outcomes such as attitude, grade and attendance whereas businesses use inputs such as pupils’ achievement, hours volunteered or the number of activities carried out.
- There is huge diversity in how the impact is measured, mainly through post-event survey administered by BC delivery organisation, but also external data, case study and informal feedback within and between schools and businesses; these help in business-school relationships and improvements of the programme.
- Success that is achieved through external standards (proxy) such as press or awards is also used as a measure, however success of pupils’ progression into a job or further study shows impact beyond the school timeline – which is difficult to capture.
- There is some awareness and response to impact through aversion of negative issues (such as NEET, skills deficit) and this is mentioned by some stakeholders.
- Feedbacks and reporting timeline hugely vary; this can be as much as immediately (post-event) to annually.
- The impacts claimed are tentative rather than definite.
- Challenges of measuring include not knowing what happens to pupils post-school and almost all reporting on the impacts complained of difficulty, although long-termness of the programme offers a slight benefit in evidencing change over time.
- There are multiple activities going on in school or in the lives of pupils; thus it would be difficult to attribute the outcomes only to Business Class programme.
- There seems awareness and potential movement towards impact orientation but this is not fully practiced yet.
- There is a changing scenario of programme reach and curriculum change.

CONCLUSIONS ON FINDINGS

The conclusions below are drawn from both the last chapter and this chapter, which have presented the findings.

The last chapter on findings has established the setting of the Business Class (BC) programme; this includes local context of multiple deprivations around which the programme operates; the cluster network of the programme, and activities carried out by businesses for schools. This chapter (seven) is mainly evaluative in nature and establishes key benefits of the programme to different stakeholders in the form of what kind of value (area) has been created and how good they are (quality). Finally, within this chapter, the language of impact coming from interviewees and other evidences has also been analysed and this aids to the focus of this research on impact. The conclusions drawn here generally attempt to follow this discussion trail but there will be many overlaps. I will now integrate both chapters on findings and make my final explanations and conclusions as below.

The economic deprivation affecting local areas, schools and pupils and their lack of aspirations and difficult social situation displays a broader environment that the programme is situated in. Likewise, poor school performance and their lack of management capabilities are other issues related to this. For businesses, both local and from afar, these multiple challenges faced mainly by pupils becomes a source of inspiration to ‘make a difference’; so much so that businesses go beyond the demand of the programme to pull resources from across organisations, or tailor it (such as going out for inspirational trips) to make success of their partnership with schools, and even to share resources. Likewise, businesses are starting to expand programme access to further education colleges and also primary schools, beyond the regular approach of BC supporting secondary schools. On the other side, schools, though very limited at the point of evidence gathering, are trying to reciprocate help to businesses. This dynamic phenomenon explains why the programme is evolving and is a result of a much local context and often specific to particular business-school partnerships. The findings suggest a desire for and move towards ‘self-fulfilling’, mature and sustainable business-school partnerships as well as sustainability of the programme as a whole.

The tension between current culture where grades are celebrated and the expected future state of wider outcomes in pupils through the planned new curriculum changes is an issue that the

BC programme faces. Whilst the BC programme partly fits into current Welsh Baccaulaureate having some community element in it, and perhaps complements the new curriculum, whereas the busy environment of schools limits them from having the BC as a priority. The priority issue is so because the wider involvement through the BC programme may not necessarily result in better grades, something their success depends upon, in the current paradigm of education inspection and reward.

The network of businesses and schools that work in a local geographical cluster have collaborated mainly through curriculum, areas of common interests as well as joint efforts to tackle wider issues in society. Currently, schools seem to progress toward a transition from having a paired partner (business) to having multiple partners within the BC programme which helps create a resource pool that is available to various schools.

Cluster events that are mainly in the form of inter-school competitions are highly successful, and useful creating multiple positive benefits; however, these events come with substantial costs and time. On the other hand, such cluster events present the possibility of part replacing cluster meetings. The meetings face difficulty due to time commitment needed despite being termly. Similarly, clusters in rural areas can benefit from webinars or web-sharing platforms that reduce face-to-face meeting time. However, certain parts of rural Wales have poor broadband posing further challenges to run video conference and other technology intensive collaborations. So, here reduction in meeting time and emphasis on increased cluster events is rational for programme improvement. In a similar vein, within the setting of the BC, cluster (beside context and activity) forms another important value area but also has attracted the highest level of negative attributes (associated to extra time commitment). Therefore, it can be argued that this area of the programme (cluster network) needs improvement, in order to achieve its potential because the current level of value creation is limited, due to the negative effects of time commitment that is required in the clusters.

On the contrary, occasional activities within the cluster means that the current level of value creation from it is limited, thus there is the need to increase cluster level collaborations and activities but it would cause an increase in time needed. In line with the arguments, the potential of clusters for more value creation needs undertaking activities that addresses multiple purposes and creates multiple benefits in balancing the time input. Such suggested

developments in cluster will need consideration in relation to other ways of creating value in the programme eg. business-school partnerships.

These arguments suggest improvement in cluster mechanism but also it is important to remember its existing contribution in value creation, such as through successful events, competitions and collaboration, which is high. Likewise, cluster is claimed to serve as an organisational network infrastructure, so its use beyond Business Class can provide increased efficiency (scale) and utility (scope).

The BC model has four domains of activity (leadership and governance; enterprise and employability; curriculum and wider issues in society). Partnership is established through the pairing of businesses and schools. Within their relationship, which is generally very good, it is important to carry out activities and possibly become independent over time without the regular support of programme delivery organisation. Costs at programme and partnership level is an issue; businesses are reluctant to pay for upfront subscription or direct costs that arise through their partnership with schools.

Enterprise and employability forms the most carried out activity between the business and the school, followed by teacher and staff development within the school and then taking pupils out for inspirational trips. There are other activities, such as literacy/numeracy and health and wellbeing, which are less practised. However, the reported outcomes of employability and softer aspiration related skills within pupils (among others such as numeracy/literacy and attendance with lower scores) is substantially lower than actual activities carried out in schools. For example, eighteen schools carried out enterprise and employability related activities with support from their business partners but only nine schools and businesses reported enterprise and employability related outcomes in pupils. There are benefits for school staff and for school; however, they exhibit the same issue of disparity between activity and actual outcome in terms of how many schools participated in the activity (greater) and how many businesses/schools reported outcomes related to it (lesser). Likewise, the respondents and other evidences were not certain on impact for various reasons such as attribution issues due to external linkages and timeline (post-school). Overall, business-school paired activities showed the greatest level of value compared to other areas of value such as cluster or partnership. These activities were found to be very useful. There were highest level of participations to comment, from both

businesses and schools, as they were more confident to talk about their experiences of being on the frontline undertaking such activities.

Businesses were more transparent regarding their claim for their side of the benefits– mainly reputation and staff development among others, such as recruitment and business networking. The success of cluster events and wider staff involvement from businesses in running the school partnership supports this claim. Likewise, schools are starting to reciprocate help to businesses from whom they receive help regularly. It corresponds with the commitment of businesses to bring more resources to enable the success of their partnership with the school. The other natural supporting factor is a pupil’s willingness to listen to the people in industry who run activities for them. Likewise, both businesses and schools are benefited by their external network, often co-contributing to BC partnership and activity. These factors strengthen programme success and sustainability altogether.

The value creation process in the multi-stakeholder collaborative programme (BC) – as depicted in diagram 6.3 in chapter six – takes place when the primary stakeholders pass over the value to the elements of context, cluster and activity. The value being created is both *specific* to participating stakeholders as well as *common* drawn by all primary stakeholders, but it is also spread in further networks of organisations (*general*) and in turn possibly impacting context, cluster and activity (*residual*).

The short term involvement of pupils within the programme was found to be a challenge for measuring its impact, whereas those exposed for a longer period of time were ideal to evidence; however when they leave school, there is currently no practice of tracking it, a common challenge shared by BC stakeholders.

The reporting of benefits or outcomes by businesses and schools, and sometimes other stakeholders connected in the BC programme, is a challenge because of the attribution issues due to multiple connections these organisations have within and outside of the BC programme. Likewise, a sufficient longer exposure in programme is necessary for tracking long-term impact, due to the fact that what is currently counted is mostly immediate outcomes.

In addition to the confidence in pupils- aspirations, grade and attendance are counted, whereas businesses account for the number of pupils reached, volunteer hours from staff or the number

of activities carried out – showing disparity in impact practices. As presented in various sections, the outcomes do not match with the activities. One obvious explanation of the mismatch is being specific as to what businesses are measuring, which is mainly input such as volunteer hours or activities (in exception to one output ie. number of pupils reached) whereas these are not the ultimate outcomes or benefits. The outcomes for example are skills or success evidenced in recipients. Their practice to account for the inputs challenges their own version of impact (on their own business) coming out of the BC programme such as reputation, staff development or recruitment. Conversely, pupil outcomes such as confidence, grades and so on are useful indicators of outcomes. As discussed earlier about impact stories, a key issue is not knowing what happened to the pupils' post-school, something that could be factored in, among others, as discussed above.

The approach used to capture the benefit or impact data are varying, both in terms of their methods (informal feedback, case report, pupil success, aversion), timeline (post-event survey, weekly, monthly, end of term or even yearly) and external evidence (external data, press coverage, awards). These approaches have been used for feedback to improve programmes and in some cases, mainly with businesses, for reporting. Such practices, methods and timeline, or external proxy being used makes it much more difficult to know of any impact beyond what is immediately possible. Thus, it can be argued that the ultimate impact is not currently measured and that it is very difficult to measure.

There are ongoing changes such as impact thinking amongst businesses, broadening impact from pupils to other stakeholders, and the potential impact of new curriculum. However, impact orientation and current measurement practice among the BC stakeholders is very poorly developed.

In these two chapters, having presented the findings that took us to the scenes of classrooms and the environment around it, this now needs to be related with boardrooms of businesses as well as other theoretical concepts and frameworks as discussed in the literature review. This will be carried out in the next chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT : DISCUSSION

Stakeholder theory, integrated reporting, Business Class England comparison, impact practices, value creation and complexity

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I synthesise the key findings from the last two chapters to relate these to the existing literatures and frameworks as reviewed in chapter two and three. This chapter is ordered in a similar fashion as that of chapters six and seven combined together, reflecting the major themes of research findings. The discussions in this chapter is organised into two major parts: firstly, stakeholder theory, shared value and other associated areas, and secondly, value creation and impact.

8.1 STAKEHOLDER THEORY

In chapter six, the findings on how the Business Class (BC) programme operates in Wales was presented– mainly the local context of deprivation, BC’s organisational network (cluster) and the programme activities carried out for schools. Furthermore, in chapter seven, different kinds of value and how they were created in the BC programme setting, was explained.

In chapter six (findings), it was established that stakeholders involved in the BC programme already possess some types of value such as funding with the government; programme ownership and delivery capabilities from the support organisations; skills and resources with private firms, and opportunity, availability and programme support from schools. As depicted in figures 6.3, these and other types of value from stakeholder organisations were passed over to context, cluster and activity for value creation. Likewise, the value created through this process, is also drawn by both these and likely more stakeholders.

Value is also called benefit, outcome or impact in the last chapter, all meaning some kind of value, positive or negative.

What is already known about this phenomenon of value creation beyond my research? The literature review in chapter two discusses various value created, such as in integrated reporting framework suggesting– for the value creation to take place, one of the basic needs is for stakeholders to come together. Stakeholder theory in its descriptive and normative form is useful regarding stakeholders and the value creation process. Stakeholder theory, with its Scandinavian and US origin during the 1960s, and developments in these decades, present three key tenets namely: jointness of interest, cooperative strategic posture and the rejection of the narrowly economic view of the firm (Strand and Freeman, 2015). I will use these three consolidated tenets of stakeholder theory for discussion in light of my findings.

There is high relevance of stakeholder theory to compare/discuss with my findings because the Business Class is primarily a multi-stakeholder programme involving wider cooperation and collaboration. This is fundamental in stakeholder theory, specifically from the three tenets mentioned above. In this section, alongside the stakeholder theory, other complementary concepts such as shared value, hybridity, trade off amongst stakeholders and pragmatism (philosophical underpinning of stakeholder theory) is discussed.

I now discuss my findings in light of the three key tenets of stakeholder theory as below.

Jointness of Interest

The concept of jointness of interest suggests that stakeholders share some jointness of interest with a company (Freeman et al., 2010). In Rhenman's (1968) and Post et al.'s (2002) language, they say 'interdependence'. In Porter and Kramer's (2011) creating shared value (CSV) term, it is 'joint company and community value creation' – which shows jointness of interest. Similarly, Freeman (2017) suggests that when management can capture this interdependence and push it forward with non-business actors, beneficial results are likely to occur. One of the fundamental aspects in terms of the government's perspective and the very funding for BC project in Wales from them – is in response to employer's concern for skills in general, and

likewise the needs of businesses involved in BC such as their need for talent pipeline and recruitment. This demand and supply mirrors what schools are looking for, such as grades, skills and confidence in pupils. Thus, the jointness of interest and interdependence between government, firms and schools, specifically on pupil outcomes, becomes evident. The findings from this research suggests that the BC programme is a broader collaboration between many businesses, schools and also support organisations (government, BC management, and delivery organisations), which shows a different way how value creation is achieved within a joint programme setting. The co-contributing role of firms among other stakeholders in value creation in the BC collaborative structure, contends the notion of a business surrounded by its stakeholders as believed by theorists and practitioners (cf. firms' position as depicted in figure 6.3a). Therefore, firms should be part of the constellation of stakeholders in order to create value jointly. There is a specific term that is closer to this kind of multi-stakeholder collaboration called 'democratically organised multi-stakeholder processes', with examples like Forest Stewardship Council, Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative from Crane et al. (2014).

Similar to the notion of stakeholder theory, Quelin et al. (2017) suggest the hybridity of such novel forms of public-private and cross-sector collaboration in terms of logic (economic/social) and governance (see figure 2.2). According to their framework, those who follow low hybridity in logics will have unitary belief, such as profit-making social enterprises. Similarly, if the hybridity in logics was low, yet with high level of hybridity in governance, it would be like private management and public supervision which present public-private service contract types of models. Business Class programme, on the other hand, presents high level of hybridity, both in logic and governance, because of multiple participants in value creation for social benefits (mainly to schools) and balancing economic gains (funding from government) as explained in the upper right quadrant in figure 2.2. According to Quelin et al. (2017), this category can have specific needs or groups of communities as beneficiaries (in BC's example: skills and employability in pupils) and manifest in multi-stakeholder partnerships. Similarly, in reference to the consumption of benefits by citizenry (Alford, 2011), it can be argued that businesses (along with other stakeholders in BC) have produced value that is spread among stakeholders and society beyond what they get for themselves. The issue discussed here shows that activities carried out jointly at the intersection of business and society produce benefits for multiple constituents.

The involvement of multiple stakeholders in the programme where logic and governance presents hybridity brings yet another challenge; measuring its impact or success from the perspective of multiple stakeholders, and this will be discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

Though the example from Crane et al. (2014) of multi-stakeholder partnerships like Forest Stewardship Council (FSC), Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) are particular to industry-specific challenges, they closely apply to Business Class in one key respect which is described as the ‘problem first’ (common problem) approach in literature review. The common problem in Welsh education sector is pupil outcomes– mainly qualifications, skills and confidence, and this is the primary reason why the stakeholders have come together in the BC programme. In my literature review, the ‘problem first’ approach which relates to the issue of whether companies fixate to their aims (financial and social) or start with existing social problems to offer solutions. The company oriented aim strand is chiefly followed by the proponents of CSV and strategic CSR (see Porter and Kramer, 2011; Burke and Logsdon, 1996 Marques-Mendes and Santos, 2016) and similar other variants suggesting that business benefits is accrued out of community involvement. These approaches company-centred perspective, thus they struggle to commit fully to the stakeholder theory of the firm because of its normative underpinning. The company-centred value creation sees social problems as instruments to create value for business, whereas stakeholder theory proponents see such problems (interconnections) occurring naturally, as seen in the BC programme, and they pursue value creation jointly to bring as much benefit as possible to all possible stakeholders. I will return to normative and related philosophical debates (mainly pragmatism) just after the discussion on the rest of the stakeholder theory tenets and the trade off, which is continued below.

Cooperative Strategic Posture

Instead of competition in traditional approaches to economic activity (for example in Porter’s five forces or the diamond model), one of the fundamental tenets of stakeholder theory is cooperation; this refers to a company viewing stakeholders as partners. It has roots in the democratic notion of a firm’s negotiation with stakeholders (Rhenman, 1968) such as employees and others. The whole BC programme discussed in the last section (democratically-organised multi-stakeholder processes) and precisely the cluster network in Business Class

essentially supports this notion of cooperative strategic posture. In the words of a business manager (BIZ01) talking about another business in the cluster which operate in the same industry as his – “competition goes out of the window when you’re helping young people, it’s about not business gain... it’s about collaboration”. This statement succinctly represents collaborations among businesses that are natural competitors. The democratic and negotiation elements, such as demand from schools to businesses regarding the needs of the school, and ‘resource pull’ effect, as a response from a business to generate more resources; and at other instances common consensus between businesses, as practised in the BC programme – validates this notion of cooperative posture. Similarly, CSV suggests collaboration with public-private sectors and connecting to stakeholder goals with a company-centred overtone. In the CSV paradigm, the business at the centre actively seeks cooperation with suppliers and other stakeholders for better efficiency. This does not adequately explain BC in Wales, as several businesses have come together for a common purpose because there exists a problem that needs a response from more than one business, as well as from several other stakeholders. This closely relates to the ideas of Freeman (2017) who suggests using imagination to create sustainable collaborative relationships with stakeholders for value creation.

Rejection of a Narrowly Economic View of the Firm

Coming from Rhenman’s (1968) work and evident in subsequent development on stakeholder theory, the theory suggests that the firm’s purpose is a result of co-mingled efforts to satisfy the interests of various stakeholders, both outside and within the firm. It is about creating value for a broader range of stakeholders as a primary objective of the firm, and not just confined to economic purposes (Post et al., 2002). Therefore, it is not just a dyadic firm-stakeholder link as an ultimate source to create value, sustain and enhance it, but Davila and Molina (2017) show that stakeholder relationship, and indeed, research perspective without having focal organisation at the centre of the activity is important. It is also discussed in jointness of interest and strategic cooperative posture sections above.

In relation to the discussions above and using the BC case, the businesses that were interviewed in this research did not obviously deny their financial goals. In fact, one of the strands that was developed early in chapter six was the ‘cost’ where businesses have been reluctant about paying

upfront costs; however, they have contributed time and resources for Business Class partnerships, or in other words– engaged in maintaining the relationships with stakeholders. Secondly, as Post et al. (2002) suggest, these relationships are indeed not dyadic, but multiple connections among businesses, as shown in the last section of their interactions with schools and other stakeholders. Furthermore, these relationships supported by the BC programme are dynamic, thus the co-mingling of relationships, which means it is not always about what a company plans, but evolves from stakeholder needs as well as their response; such as schools who desire to reciprocate help from businesses. The relationships with stakeholders within and outside the firm make co-mingling inevitable in creating value, therefore it can be argued that the firms present multipurpose behaviour.

The example of CSV, Porter and Kramer (2011) provide under the ‘local cluster development’ is about organising and supporting a local supplier and other stakeholders to increase sector specific competitiveness. BC Wales programme came into being because of an already existing problem; that is, lack of skills and confidence in pupils with the underlying problem of deprivation and other multiple disadvantages. Businesses, schools and other stakeholders came together (co-mingled) to tackle the problem, thus creating value that is wider, including value for themselves. In this, and as discussed above (cooperative strategic posture), existing social problems are dealt with in collaborative fashion, unlike what CSV suggests as deliberate design of cluster or stakeholder interconnections and value chains involving them. The underlying explanation of deliberate and company-centred value creation approach is in its instrumental approach (see Crane et al.’s 2014 critique on CSV), which is elaborated upon below and revisited in section 8.1.3.

A case study on farmers’ coffee cooperatives in Mexico by Davila and Molina (2017) – discussed in the literature review – shows the concept of managing stakeholders from the eye of a focal organisation, undermines their actual position because of lack of acknowledgement of co-contribution of stakeholders in value creation. Alternatively, BC as a multi-stakeholder initiative, as well as in the Mexican coffee farming case shows that multiple stakeholders have come together to solve a common societal problem; the livelihood of farmers in Mexico and education and skills of pupils’ in Wales, and they have created value collectively. Thus, it is not just the focal organisation’s aims (narrow economic purpose of the firm) but what issues already exist (or may exist in the future), thus intersection and co-mingled efforts of firms and

stakeholders to resolve it. Consequently, it can be argued that the *multi-stakeholder arrangements in value creation tend to have 'problems first' approach*.

8.1.2 Trade off among Stakeholders

The vagueness in stakeholder theory (see Bowie, 2012) about trade off (who to count as stakeholder or balance thereof) is evident, however, there is some relaxation due to futuristic approach applied in the theory. My research on BC in Wales, where the business manager (11) states: “we just can’t do that” as a common response from businesses to schools about the schools’ expectation of dedicated support (which businesses could not afford) – shows some potential trade off at cluster network. However, this isn’t the case where stakeholder(s) were removed or the relationship recalibrated. Also, the fact that all business-school partnerships in BC, in exception to one, were working well (during my research period), shows no remarkable or substantial trade off. Similarly, the reciprocity from some schools in response to the support from businesses makes it harder for any such trade offs to take place. Though Freeman (2017) declares that trade offs are managerial failures for creative imagination, but in the same passage acknowledges “[o]f course, sometimes they have to be made, because we cannot imagine an alternative” (pp.459-460). So, as in BC, trade off cannot be denied, yet it is insignificant. Therefore, this issue is a balancing act. There is also the need for response to stakeholder demand (called ‘resource pull’ in chapter six) and the discussions here, in fact, supports the third tenet of the stakeholder theory that a business is the result of co-mingled and negotiated effort.

8.1.3 Pragmatism

Following the discussion above using three tenets of stakeholder theory as well as implication (trade offs) leads to another key aspect that is its underlying philosophy. Freeman et al. (2010) and also highlighted in their book review by Bowie (2012) – state that pragmatism is at work both in the theory and reality as it is evident from my research. In the literature review as well as in the methodology chapters, it was established that experiences impact our understanding

of the world, and this understanding (or knowledge generation from it) occurs in a social context, coming from Dewey (1934) and, likewise, justification from Rorty (Rorty et al., 2004) in pragmatist paradigm.

There are challenges in determining the stakeholders or their role. Since there are a variety of business organisations, and since any business finds itself in a variety of situations, the definition of who counts as a stakeholder depends on the situation, according to Bowie (2012). The local context and experience of it, as noted above in Dewey's tradition of pragmatism, is crucially important to understand value creation. The experience is emphasised in Weick (1979, 1993) wherein people act based on their experiences, and attach meaning to it, instead of others imposing the meaning.

The context of deprivation and multiple disadvantages experienced by pupils – which led several organisations mainly businesses to come together for solution (through Business Class) – is essential in value creation, and, importantly, a shared reality among stakeholders and motivations from businesses as well. This context of deprivation and issues of skills and aspirations in pupils, in effect, is a common reality and joint interest among stakeholders; to act and create value for all, organised through multi-stakeholder initiative ie. the BC programme. Thus, the local shared context is important in value creation and it has been extensively presented in chapter seven (section 7.1.1).

I will now discuss the notion of justification from both Rorty and Weick through consensus in pragmatist philosophy of reality. The other aspect to justification is also attached to Dewey's context whereby sense-making occurs within social structures and practices. As stakeholder theorists, Freeman and colleagues state: people within organisations jointly seek and create meaning, thus the perspective of managers must be counted. In line with this argument, and by extending this co-creation of meaning from within organisations to other stakeholders, the very act of my case study research using multiple sources of evidences representing diverse participants such as pupils, teachers, business managers and executives of charity, support organisation and government, shows that the BC programme and its impact is essentially a shared and justified concept/work.

Furthermore, the relevant application of Rorty's (Rorty et al., 2004) notion of justification and consensus is that the voice of these stakeholders is honoured in establishing the facts and reality

of the BC programme from various perspectives, as experienced by the stakeholders. Furthermore, it is not just about the voice but the very importance of it comes from their integral role in value creation, which is often missed. This was discussed in the last section.

The pragmatist approach helps gain insight into the reality of value creation descriptively and how this can lead to doing things better or making lives better. The stakeholder theory using pragmatism has shown the overall arrangement of stakeholders, their approach and their role in joint value creating activities in the above discussions. I now use integrated reporting to expand this discussion into how exactly these work and what kinds of value are created.

8.2 INTEGRATED REPORTING

To recap what has been just discussed above using three tenets of stakeholder theory and associated philosophy of pragmatism and other related concepts – that businesses and schools, with support from other organisations, are able to create value, which is a shared interest among them. Through such partnerships, broader cooperation and economic and social purposes are carried out.

The value creation process and involvement of stakeholders can be explained using integrated reporting (IR). The International Integrated Reporting Council (IIRC) in early 2010 developed the integrated reporting which focuses on integrated thinking, multiple capitals and value creation over time. It is useful to understand value creation in the Business Class programme from the perspective of businesses involved, as well as other multiple stakeholders. Within the integrated reporting framework, it explicitly frames ‘value creation for the organisation and for others; ‘others’ being stakeholders and society at large as shown in figure 3.8. The value for the organisation would be mainly financial for shareholders, but also intangibles, such as reputation, workforce recruitment and development as evidenced in BC (the latter coming from CSR related activities only and not the main business). The providers of financial capital, as it says, are interested not just for their return but also that of others, especially when it affects the ability of the organisation to create value for itself through activities, interactions and relationships, such as with customers and suppliers and broader society (licence to operate). Similarly, Rivera-Santos et al. (2017), looked into business-NGO alliance through the lens of

an agency problem; the suggestion was that a beneficiary (as third party) can claim to be a principal that is being recognised as a stakeholder and has a voice of their own (see also Davila and Molina, 2017).

Businesses participating in Business Class have not only created value for themselves, such as reputation and human resource advantage, but also for others, such as in schools (being a primary beneficiary) promoting skills and ability within pupils, school staff development and enhancement of the schools' managerial capabilities. Beyond this, also the relationships and collaborations with schools and others. As the integrated reporting system asks: are these (CSR activity through BC) materials pertinent to the organisation's ability to create value for itself (externalities)? The answer is— perhaps not! A manager at a large business (BIZ08) gestured a not sure face whilst saying “does [BC] increase our share price?” but also acknowledged staff development has a “definitely something tangible” outcome from it. The integrated report concept shows a pragmatic approach in the sense that value is created over different time horizons and for different stakeholders through different capitals, hence the need to balance and sustain these capitals. IR therefore complements and supports the application of stakeholder theory and associated philosophy of pragmatism as discussed in previous sections of this chapter.

The integrated reporting value creation framework- as shown in appendix eight – is mainly used by businesses, particularly for investor audience, but through its application in the BC programme, it can be tested for project reporting, as well as increasing the audience to a wider range of stakeholders. The table in appendix 8 applies the integrated reporting framework to show value creation in Business Class at programme level.

The value creation framework and associated elements within and outside business shows value being transformed in many different ways. Various types of value are called ‘capitals’ in the integrated reporting framework, but I use the term ‘value’ as common terminology including for capitals. As the framework is typically for a manufacturing firm, some areas such as manufactured and natural capitals show less relevance. Likewise, because of the nature of the BC programme being not-for-profit, financial outcome is less relevant. Conversely, intellectual, human and relational outcomes (capital transformation) is much more visible in this service based project (ie. BC programme).

The sustainability of the programme, as it is continually expanding, presents some risk on the funding side, though the government has continued the funding of the BC recently, whereas persuading businesses to pay for programme subscription has issues.

The benefits through aversion of a negative impact like NEET, increased ability on programme delivery and competency in staffs involved (business, school, support organisations) and increased relationships among stakeholders are great achievements matched by supporting factors. The supporting factors – mission, vision and specific strategy – are consistent and focused towards specific outcomes and are grounded in the local context (external environment) that surrounds organisations and people – are generally good at supporting the success of this programme. The application of integrated reporting shows the BC programme’s generally high level of performance across various domains, and benefits to various stakeholders, programme enhancement and overall increase in outcome value (also called impact). The narratives from respondents, observations and documents, as well as its judgement through different lenses (quality of value in last chapter and IR here) show *diverse and sizeable* value creation.

Whilst it is perhaps easy to corroborate evidence to justify success of the programme/value creation, it is difficult to ascertain how much value each stakeholder has drawn from the project. The diversity of value (areas) and its quality in the last chapter suggests an overall picture of the programme but it is very limited in reporting about the gains of individual businesses or organisations. Likewise, the application of IR framework suggests similarly the broader success of the programme and very little about the value attained by individual stakeholders. In the next section, I compare value creation using a peer programme.

8.3 BUSINESS CLASS IN ENGLAND AND WALES : A COMPARISON

There are two researches on Business Class in England being discussed in the literature review: one by Cass Business School (2010) and another by University of Warwick (2015). Because of the very early stage of BC used in the Cass 2010 report and the time gap since then, the Warwick 2015 report is more suitable for extensive comparison here.

The University of Warwick's Institute for Employment Research carried out an evaluation on the impact that Business Class had on pupils in England who had participated in the BC from 2013 to 2015 by Gambin and Hogarth (2015). It is the closest match for my research on the BC programme in Wales for comparison. However, their evaluation report is mainly a quantitative study using context-mechanism-output method (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) and primarily uses questionnaires on pupils; between those who received BC and others who didn't (were yet to receive it) and supplemented by semi-structured interviews with pupils and employers. There is some similarity in using multiple people groups for evidence within my research in Wales, which is mainly interviews with multiple stakeholders (schools, employers and enabler organisations); it does not ask pupils directly but rather uses associated documentary evidences and observations. The difference also lies in how the evidences are used, as the England survey and interviews are put separately, whereas various sources of evidences in Wales are converged to form combined arguments using data triangulation. In Warwick's report, for example, the statement "I believe that involvement in BC will help my pupils do better in the job" by school staff within the school experience, and similarly, within the employee volunteers section (separate) where business staff volunteers (39% of them) claim that BC activity "Improved [pupil's] knowledge of the careers options open to them". Similarly, reflecting on interviews with pupils, statements are made, such as: "Mock interviews were particularly valued because of the feedback that the pupil received afterwards from the employer's volunteer". All three statements here indicate very similar matters on student benefits on employability from the perspective of school staff, business staff and pupils themselves respectively, but these were never put together, rather the final conclusion of the report summarises these and other aspects of programme. Thus, lack of convergence of data on the same topic in the Warwick report is a key issue. It is important to note that their goal for evaluation was to understand how the various interventions brought about positive outcomes for pupils, whereas my research broadly evaluates the programme in Wales and identifies (among others) benefits for primary stakeholders (mainly schools, businesses) using multiple value creation approach. These are fundamental to how findings are presented and interpreted in both researches.

Both research account the context of multiple and high level of disadvantage (specific details on lack of skills/knowledge in England whereas multiple disadvantages and lack of aspirations in Wales) and likewise the commonness in labour market demands for skills, attributes and attitude in pupils. The enterprise and employability related activities forms the largest portion of activity in both research, whereas Wales seems to have slightly more variety; to give

example, teacher and leadership support in school and numeracy/literacy (less mentioned in both) and popular venue (office/hotel) visits for pupils, and so on, which are tailored and specific to particular business-school partnerships in Wales. The outings (workplace visits in England) are more sophisticated in Wales as they come in a range of other venues such as work sites, stadiums and hotels; this has connections with supporting pupils facing high deprivation and who lack aspiration, which is limitedly expressed in the English context. In both cases, pupils enjoyed knowing about the job employee volunteers did when they visited business premises. The following table gives the value that pupils attributed to BC from Warwick's report, and similarly, this research shows benefits coming from BC related to pupils and are claimed by their school or partnering business. Essentially, both researches suggest that BC was useful in creating various benefits for pupils. This is presented in following table.

Before the table is presented, some intricate details on research approaches will help understand the issues clearly. There are some areas between the two researches where there is no exact match. The Warwick report gives two different approaches to BC delivery of intensive and less intensive activities but such distinction was not evident in Wales. Though both are tentative, Warwick's research is informative with regard to the pupils' knowledge/perception and engagement in activity, whereas my research in Wales focuses more on resultant outcomes, such as skills and ability. The purpose of the Warwick research is to predominantly focus upon: is all this activity (BC) going to help when trying to get a jobs/career? (which the comparator group does not have) whereas in Wales, it basically focuses on value created for multiple stakeholders and quality of value in the programme.

The benefits to pupils, mainly schools and businesses, are presented in following subsections, to compare the BC research between England and Wales.

Benefits to Pupils

The below table compares benefits received by pupils as shown in BC programme research in England, and in Wales.

Criteria	Match/mismatch /applies only to	Explanations (if any)
Information provided by industry people helped pupils to ‘switch on’ and understand/work more seriously	Match	
Increase in employability (CV writing, presentation)	Match (a significant findings in both)	Warwick details on BC shaping ‘views of pupils’ about the skills/qualities that employers value whereas this research indicates did BC lead to developing those skills
CWW (Careers and the World of Work): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ informed understanding of 	Warwick only	This area was not separately reported in this research
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ skills and information about 	Match	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ activity for it considered useful 	Match	this research accounts for range of activities which are highly valued beyond enterprise and employability

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> those who had exposure to BC would have better transition into labour market 	Warwick only	Wales does not conclude this aspect specifically yet expresses some probability
One-to-one engagement (mock interviews) considered better	Similar	Not necessarily a high level theme in this research
Work experience valued by pupils	Similar	Wales does not subcategorise but has similar evidences of it
Increase in confidence and aspirations	Wales only	The lack of aspiration was widely reported in Wales context
Literacy/numeracy	Match	

Fig. 8.1 Benefits to Pupils Comparison between BC in England and Wales

Findings from both researches compared in the table above are very similar in the sense that there is enterprise and employability focus in activity and expected or tentative outcome towards increasing pupils' chances for a smooth transition from study into work.

The Warwick report has more detailed categories of activity answered by pupils, their usefulness, and potentially leading to informed career choices, whereas my research shows activity and overall skill related outcomes in pupils (among other stakeholders). These were reported by school teachers or business staff, or evidenced in documents and observations. My research in Wales does not link every activity to specific skill outcomes (the isolation issue is

discussed in the impact section later in this chapter) and the diverse feedback tools used in the programme makes it difficult to ascertain an activity-outcome link. A distinct finding that is particular to BC in Wales is firstly the context of multiple disadvantages and deprivation followed by an increase in confidence and aspirations (outcomes) of pupils; this is not shown in the Warwick report.

Benefits to Schools

Schools reported having a good relationship with employers (with very limited exceptions) in both research, and that it takes time to build a relationship. Schools participating in BC reported massive benefits from it, though this is unclear as it is difficult to isolate to an organisation and the benefits would be accrued by staff, leadership or pupils in the school. The England case seems more interested in engaging with employers, whereas the Wales case shows more a story of creating difference, and the ‘resource pull’ effect of businesses going the extra mile to gather resources to help the school support this claim. Similarly, the staff training in the school was found useful for having rich experience in Wales, but this is not reported in the English context, and their report concludes by stating “impact on leadership and governance, management skills and wider knowledge among teaching staff of the opportunities for pupils in the future” (p37). The broader school benefits in Wales are information, resources and curriculum collaboration. Likewise, in Wales, the schools had or developed external (multiple) connections with other national initiatives or organisations (thus causation being a difficulty). This does not appear obvious in BC England’s case.

Benefits to Businesses

Though the pupils are the primary beneficiaries in the BC programme, there are other broader benefits, including those that are accrued by businesses. The usual networking kind of benefit, such as increase of business contacts through involvement in BC, was common among

businesses both in England and Wales. The staff development benefit for participating staff in businesses (knowledge and skills) was reported in both cases. Similarly, staff surveyed in England expressed their satisfaction for volunteering and better motivation; this generally matches Wales. England offers more details on student placement such as how this benefited the business staff beyond the pupils as the primary beneficiaries.

Both cases displayed highly correlated information regarding the aspect of how businesses reported recruitment related outcomes, stating that this is not something that has already happened, but that they would potentially recruit in the future. For the businesses, BC was a way to showcase their responsibility in the community and gave a reputation related advantage, which is common in both cases.

One of the issues coming from businesses is the costs involved in BC. In England, some schools are paying for programme subscription (apart from UKCES) whereas in Wales it is the devolved government that funds/pays for such cost through licensing to BITC. However, in both cases, upfront cost for businesses is a problem. Furthermore, staff time is considered a real investment by the participating businesses.

Cluster Mechanism

Though the Warwick report has focused mainly on pupils' outcomes, they also have diversified into other stakeholders and programme mechanisms. This research in Wales looks extensively into how cluster creates value, currently below the potential, yet has claims of being organisational infrastructure over time. A key difference in Warwick's report is their comparative study of two kinds of partnerships (built into clusters): 'enhancement' partnerships which existed before the BC format and later 'expansion' which started in 2013 following the UKCES funding. The Wales example of BC's early work in 2013 and onwards (pilot stage) and its expansion following the Welsh Government's funding in 2015 is taken as a continuation of it without a comparison between them because clusters have mixed partnerships, both old and new.

The generic purpose of cluster for sharing best practices, learning, innovation and improvement, shared issues, commitment and relationships among businesses and schools is common between both researches. Likewise, difficulty in cluster building at the initial stage is a common issue between both England and Wales.

However, in most other areas, the Welsh example differs from the English. The paired partnership between one business and one school seems to be slowly moving towards multiple partnerships in Wales; however, the report does not indicate this finding in England. However, it must be noted that, in my research in Wales, it has not been established if the multiple partner model is more beneficial, due to the fact that it is newly emerging. Likewise, the other area the Warwick report does not mention is events at the cluster level, such as inter-school pupil competitions, popular in Wales; this could either be because this was not in their research agenda having pupil focus, or that it wasn't practised in England. The cluster mechanism in Wales is perceived as an organisational infrastructure. This means some more extraordinary developments such as programme improvements through technology innovation for connection in rural areas, cutting down meeting time and perhaps increasing cluster events (competitions) are discussed. If the evidences available were to be compared, Wales would seem to be ahead in this aspect (cluster) of the BC programme; but also what must be kept in mind is that the value creation in clusters within Wales is relatively lesser as compared to other areas, such as activities between businesses and schools.

Summary of Business Class in England and Wales Comparison

In revisiting this section, research on BC Wales is again compared with similar research on the BC programme in England – I now highlight some of the key debates. The very distinct nature of these two researches in England and Wales, as discussed above, show a different focus in approach (quantitative and qualitative respectively) and scope (pupils benefit, value creation in programme respectively) and outcomes in terms of overall findings, and exhibit some common challenges.

Pupils facing deprivation is a common context in which BC works, in both England and Wales. Similarly, labour market demand for skills and attributes in pupils is a concern in both England

and Wales. This context follows tailored activity; for example, in Wales, visits to stadiums, hotels and businesses was much more evident and is related to increasing aspiration. This is so because simple events such as businesses taking pupils to fine quality hotels “should have boost in their confidence and for [them] if that helps them: go back to school.. works 5% harder, that is a job done” (BIZ01). Likewise, the cluster mechanism forms a major theme in Wales and its contribution on overall value creation, including successful events at cluster level, whereas this does not seem equally evident in England due to the limited data on this within the Warwick report.

Enterprise and employability themed activities form the largest portion of activities both in England and Wales. It derives mainly from labour market demands for skills and need of preparedness for employment. The inspiration-building outings for pupils is specific to Wales. Beyond pupils as primary recipients of BC, other stakeholders who benefit from it, are the schools; this is recorded in Wales and is not so evident in England; however, in both cases, businesses participating in BC have recorded benefit for them. The success of BC Wales becomes evident considering multiple value created for multiple stakeholders by comparing with BC England.

The Warwick report suffers from their alignment to deductive methodology generally, and in particular, a comparative study to what was undertaken by Yates et al. (2011) on issues of alignment of career aspirations in pupils and the potential risk of them becoming NEET. The Warwick report also informs on activities and impact on mainly pupils among others. Methodologically, the questionnaire and interviews were separately presented in England without necessarily having integration, despite their claim to have combined together. The BC research in Wales, on the other hand, brings evidences from multiple sources together to discuss each matter or thematic topic, such as cluster (collaboration for schools, businesses, pupil competitions and so on) in a convergence fashion. BC Wales research shows the issue of linking activity with outcomes within schools because they have multiple connections. This issue of attribution is not evident in England. The attribution issue will be discussed in the next section.

8.4 IMPACT MEASUREMENT

In the above sections, the discussions thus far have been mainly about the value that has been created in a collaborative CSR project, and what kinds of value (benefits) were created for different stakeholders involved.

In this section, I will discuss value creation, measurement and stakeholder connections, which is one of the important areas of this research. The evidences, mainly from interviews, documents and other sources of evidence, suggest varying emphasis attached to the success of various aspects of the programme (value areas). These are detailed in chapter seven.

Businesses, schools and other stakeholders were able to make comments on programme benefits (value) and its quality for themselves and others, unlike the current paradigm of determining value of activity from the point of focal organisation, as discussed earlier in this chapter about stakeholder theory. For example, the integrated reporting framework (in figure 3.8) discusses the value that is created for the organisation and stakeholders, but this and other aspects in value creation (eg. capital input and transformation) is essentially a claim by a company about value, and not what the stakeholders who co-contributed in value creation experienced or said. Likewise, what was discussed above in stakeholder theory and its appropriate application is that stakeholders not only participate in value creation, but also they are able to determine the value of activity or enterprise.

The nearest research to this stakeholder-oriented value determination concept is a survey among tourists, local communities, entrepreneurs and local community organisations in Nepal regarding two tourism clusters of protected areas supported by government, non-government and private sectors by Poudel et al. (2016). Their research gathers subjective perceptions of diverse stakeholders about the advantages and disadvantages of sustainable tourism (ecological, economic and social) in those tourism clusters and perception on these general issues such as “[does] tourism increases the price of goods and services” than about their actual experience. In other words, their study measured a general phenomenon (tourism activity) rather than a particular intervention (programme). My research on the Business Class programme in Wales generates an account of experience from stakeholders participating in the programme, regarding its value. It fundamentally differs with the research of Poudel et al. (2016) because what the participants within their research sample essentially did was to agree

or disagree (in Likert scale) on statements of effects of sustainable tourism; to give example, the increase of price of goods and services rather than what they themselves experienced or gained out of it. Their agenda was a general sustainable tourism outcome in two tourism clusters in Nepal, thus it did not necessarily involve participants sharing their actual experience in response. The nature of my research within Wales involved interviews (and other sources of data) undertaken by participants, during their natural conversations and expressed quality (through satisfaction, success, outcome, usefulness or otherwise) about the areas of value and outcomes. In such conversations on BC Wales and similarly in Poudel et al.'s research, participants were able to comment both on the positive and negative impact of the phenomenon, thus the resultant "net impact" is established. The concept of net impact is also discussed using my previous research (Nyaupane, 2015) and similar argument in NPC, EU IMPACT and integrated reporting on accounting negative impact as well as positive. For example, within the BC programme, the cluster mechanism gathered the highest proportion of negative comments (as compared to other value areas) as well as the positive, thus showing the issue of its contribution to overall value creation. Consequently, improvements were suggested, as presented in the last chapter. So, it can be argued that stakeholders are able not only to give their voice (as in Poudel et al.'s research, integrated reporting, and discussion in the earlier section on stakeholder theory) but also they can mutually determine value of an activity (Nyaupane, 2017). In addition, stakeholders are able to decide the quality of value (how good) and whether these are positive or negative.

Some of the success attached to the BC is in the strong mutual partnerships and activities (with a high level of positive remarks) based on the stakeholders version of value. Whilst the BC is a multi-stakeholder, public-private and non-profit venture, the same method can be applied to analyse value creation in firms. The stakeholder theory discussed earlier and its application, such as in Poudel et al.'s, sustainable tourism impact helps understand value creation in firms and programmes, and determines value as claimed by multiple stakeholders and not just by one stakeholder (the firm) due to the fact that stakeholders' participation and contribution is critical for value creation.

As discussed in the early part of this chapter on stakeholder theory, a key repeated issue about the drawbacks of stakeholder theory has been trade offs between stakeholders (Poudel et al., 2016; Bowie, 2012), but there were no substantial trade offs witnessed in my research at programme level, whereas a business manager expresses their difficulty with what can be

reasonably committed in a school partnership, stating “we can’t spend five days out of the businesses” (BIZ11). Similarly, there was contradiction within the residents’ comments on mainly the negative ecological, negative social, positive economic and negative economic impact with the tourists, but their responses concurred in positive ecological and positive social impacts in Poudel et al.’s (2016) research, which suggests some trade offs are possible. As Bowie (2012) says that trade offs are an area unclear in stakeholder theory furthered by Freeman and colleagues; it is reasonable to say that trade offs, to some extent, are possible.

Having discussed roles of stakeholders in value creation, organisation and measurement above, I now focus on estimation of value created.

8.5 VALUE CREATION, THEORY OF CHANGE AND COMPLEXITY

In this section, I revisit key findings on value creation and discuss the theory of change along with many complex factors in value creation and estimation. Subsections towards the end of this section discuss whose perspectives are counted in value estimation and practices of impact among BC stakeholders.

In the findings (chapter six), the research on the BC programme in Wales has established how value creation happens in a multi-stakeholder collaborative arrangement, and through this, among others, private firms’ CSR in the community (schools) is delivered. The practice discovered in Wales using the BC programme setting suggests value creation happens when programme, funding and delivery (organisations) work with firms and schools to pass the value (what they already have) over to context, cluster and activity as depicted in diagram 4.2. This connection to context, cluster and activity is pivotal in value creation, in order for value to increase, decrease or transform. For example, funding from government; operational support from CW (staff skills/time) and cooperation from school (pupil/staff time) and business (resource/skills/staff time) input into activity (student Dragon’s Den competition) or cluster event (Lego competition) creates value of inspiration, skills and ability in pupils, among others. These benefits for pupils are new value created, *specific* to the participating stakeholders – in this case school and business – for outcomes such as reputation or staff capabilities. Such varieties of value generated through context, cluster and activity are specific both to

participating schools and businesses as well as *common* to other primary stakeholders; for example, learning, collaboration and programme improvement for support organisations (BITC/CW/WG) that are gained through the BC programme. This value creation process continually changes or transforms the elements (*residual* value in context, cluster and activity) as more and more value is created and drawn by stakeholders. This, in turn, is passed over to these elements and used for other purposes. Finally, it would be unusual if other outside organisations connected to any of these primary stakeholders (schools, businesses and support organisations) did not receive from their gains, improved capabilities and learning coming from their involvement in BC. It also follows from the findings that business and schools have external linkages beyond their involvement in the BC programme, thus a *general* value having a spill-over effect within networks that surround these organisations involved in BC (the value web) is logical (see Holmes and Smart, 2009).

In addition to the application of integrated reporting, aiding to the explanation of this phenomenon of value creation, the theory of change (Weiss, 1995) is widely used in programme evaluation and is useful to help understand how the value of an activity, or change through it, happens. It has variants; such as in Warwick's report, the CMO (context-mechanism-outcome) method is used (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) and in my literature review the common term 'input-process-outcome' is used to typify similar works such as EU IMPACT project, BCG framework, SROI, NPC framework, impact value chain framework by G8 social impact investment taskforce, and the integrated reporting, applied above.

The linear model of input-process-outcome (or the theory of change) essentially works by identifying goals and working backwards to see the conditions and how these conditions relate to one another causally for the goals to occur, helping to establish how and why an initiative works (Weiss, 1995). The value creation process in BC Wales described just earlier, however, shows several complexities which will be discussed below in detail, in light of the existing literature.

The local context in which BC operates has several problems, such as multiple disadvantages and issues faced by schools (poor performance, busy environment) and pupils (deprivation, lack of aspirations). This is a reality shared with businesses also.

The example of how BC works is complex representing its value creation process in a collaborative arrangement involving various stakeholders. The broader process of value creation and eventual impact on pupils, for example, is not straightforward; such interventions like activity between businesses and schools can be assumed for a certain outcome, such as if pupils were sent to a star hotel “go back to school and [if it] helps works 5% harder, that is a job done” (BIZ01). However, even such simplistic activities may be linked to ‘external linkages’ a firm or school has (explained in findings chapter section 6.3.2) and perhaps some learning from cluster as discussed above in section 8.3. Likewise, if one of the support organisations (BITC/CW/WG) wanted to create specific impact on school staff, such as leadership skills, they still need the value creation process to work and participation of other stakeholders for it (see earlier discussion on stakeholder theory). Thus, even the simplistic bilateral activities need some collaboration and cooperation from others to reinforce relevance of stakeholder theory in value creation as discussed above in section 8.1. In such value creation settings, where there is participation of multiple stakeholders, these stakeholders represent different logics (operation, purpose) and governance (organisational design, coordination) and combined together for a programme, show hybridity (Quelin et al., 2017). Because of such complex relationships and workings of stakeholders; creating, drawing, understanding and accounting value from the perspectives of different stakeholders is complex. This is evident in a multi stakeholder collaborative arrangement such as the BC programme, and offers an explanation on simplistic value creation in an enterprise.

Following on from above, on external linkages, tracing how pupils’ confidence in a BC participating school has increased, it is extremely difficult to trace where the pupils have been exposed to numerous activities in school and from outside (BC and other projects), and this is exactly what a school manager is saying: “I would not say that its only down to Business Class but Business Class is... [but] one of the contributing factors” (SCH19). A very similar finding is shown by the EU IMPACT research stating “[i]t is of course hard to discern the effects of Milky Start from other effects”. Milky Start is a nutrition programme, formed for families to work together, for an affordable child nutrition product in Poland in a multi stakeholder fashion, and comprised of information on health, nutrition and included participation of retailer companies and a research institute. Thus, attribution is a key issue in impact assessment as seen in my research, and that of others. This issue is identified in the literature review.

There are some examples of the success pupils had through long-term involvement, even though it is difficult to ascertain if this was “only down to business class” (SCH19). As stated above, not only do schools connect with various projects and organisations in partnerships and cluster within BC programme but also their external linkages make it harder to attribute BC with pupil outcomes. Not only with organisations or projects, but also pupils have relationships with family, mentor, peers, employers and so on, which further adds to the complexity of attribution. The issue of attribution was very visible as many interviewees made tentative claims about the benefits and impacts of the programme; this is because, among other reasons, the pupils were exposed to many different projects and partnerships. The influence of multiple stakeholders and constituencies in a project or impact was a theme developed in the literature review and, as a result, isolation of impact is difficult (Reeder and Colantonio, 2013). This stands true in the case of the BC programme in Wales.

The stakeholders who drew tentative value have given testimonies of benefits but these come with multiple cautions, including attribution, lack of sufficient reporting or impact that has taken place outside local context (place) or timeline; for example, in pupils in a post-school scenario. The CMO (context-mechanism-outcome) approach is helpful in one way in that it acknowledges that context plays a vital role to trigger certain intervention (mechanism) as it is the case in BC where a local context of deprivation and other multiple problems has inspired many businesses to come on board for the programme. Likewise, the input-process-outcome model based on theory of change complementing the CMO helps to understand that there is input (termed as ‘value pass over’ in my research or ‘capitals’ in integrated reporting) – which is necessary for value creation. Though these models simplify how a value creation might happen, evaluators and theorists like Pawson (2013) recognise that there is “endless complexity of programmes and the situation in which they are embedded, [thus] it is a task in itself to contemplate the very many ways in which change might be engendered, the multiple constituencies of stakeholders and their myriad responses” (p23). Likewise, the question of what works, for whom and under what circumstances, from a realist perspective (Pawson, 2006) stands true for BC Wales because it creates value and impact by stakeholders for themselves – mutually and in common – in response to the shared reality of local context of deprivation and multiple disadvantages.

The rhetoric on value creation or impact is also important within managerial mindset and practice. The quantifying social impact framework from BCG which uses theory of change

suggests value creation (monetary value) only after impact creation, whereas the BC shows that once the value is created, then only it is drawn by stakeholders in different forms (reputation, skills, confidence), known as benefit or outcome with reference to my own research. Thus, the notion of value or perspective is different to different audience and constituency.

The managerial mindset is found to be a real issue in EU IMPACT (2014) research, and it says that “the idea of systematically measuring, monitoring and especially managing over time the performance and impacts of a company’s activities is not commonly found... [t]his is not caused by a lack of willingness of most companies to do so but by the lacking impact mentality” (p26). The BC research in Wales shows that what is measured is, essentially, inputs (staff hours) or outputs (pupils reached, or their immediate attainment/outcome like attendance, attitude, skills and grade), and the corresponding instruments used for measuring shows a lack of impact thinking and practice. It was also testified by interviewees – mainly from schools – that it is partly due to issues of attribution and inability to capture ultimate data (post-school) as discussed above. There seems awareness and potential movement towards impact orientation (from inputs to outcomes) but, currently, this is not visible in practice.

Within the value creation process– the context, cluster and activity elements when blended with value with inputs from stakeholders not only creates value, but they themselves absorb that value in the form of improved and better activities, greater collaboration and learning in cluster, and a context that is changing (also called residual value above in section 8.5 and in chapter six). Thus, it is not just supporting organisations with participating firms and schools (altogether forming primary stakeholders) that draw value (also called benefit or outcome) from the BC venture, but also there is residual value in the elements (context, cluster and activity) as these are continually reformed. These elements of context, cluster and activity are of course abstract, wherein stakeholders own or carry varieties of value. When value (outcome) is used again, they should normally become greater through experience, learning and improvement. This phenomenon well supports what Reeder and Colantonio (2013) say, “the existence of inter-related impact effects, which means that the overall impact of a project differs from the sum of single activities – or ‘aggregation’ issue” (p11). Furthermore, it also reinforces the system of accounting of positive and negative impacts, which are called ‘net impacts’, discussed above in section 8.5. Also, it refutes the claim that context is a given factor in a programme and impact measurement (for example the CMO model used in the Warwick

report) as the context itself changes, though perhaps at a lesser pace than other elements, such as cluster (network) and activity. This further triggers another issue in impact measurement, which is baseline – or what is currently present – compared to the changes that have taken place. Because this baseline in the form of local context (as shown in NPC’s four pillar framework), continually changes as argued here, thus measurement of this change is difficult as it is not static. To put this into an example using my research on BC for a school in the heads of valleys in South Wales that started in 2013 (SCH10), the pupils (their situation), following exposure to BC has changed (such as gaining increased confidence) and this new capability becomes the baseline for the subsequent year (2014), and likewise onwards. The baseline can also be the demand from employers about employability skills of pupils as stated by the government official (GOV18). However, the full baseline in BC Wales was not captured at the start, thus not reported here.

Beyond the claim of impact and value creation by many stakeholders, the other issue that adds to the complexity of impact measurement is ‘counterfactual’; this means what would have happened anyway in the absence of intervention, also called deadweight in Reeder and Colantonio (2013). It thus suggests estimating what would have happened anyway (Clark et al., 2004), for example in the case of the Warwick report on BC in England, using a comparator non-treatment group with the actual result – “so impact is the difference between actual [outcome] and estimated” (NPC, 2014). In relation to BC in Wales, this fundamental aspect of counterfactual becomes evident, as some businesses said they could “continue to engage with the school and do all the stuff” anyway without the BC support (BIZ28). There is no clarity or evidence to suggest what would have happened anyway, yet this needs to be deducted from total value to establish net effect (OECD, 2015).

The discussions above generally suggest longer-term intervention has a sufficient level of impact, as argued by integrated framework, and on the other side, sustainability of the project is reliant on stakeholders (carriers of value) and their continued participation, as argued using the stakeholder theory earlier. But, on the other hand, it can also be argued that if the value (programme, resource and capabilities) is sufficiently transferred to – for example, schools and firms making these ‘self-fulfilling’ sustainable partnerships (GOV14) other support organisations (BITC/CW/WG) may not always be needed (actually desired by them). Consequently, from this proposition, value seems to be more important than the stakeholder participation, but it contrasts with the notion that stakeholders carry, create and pass/trade

value. On the other side, the quality of value such as in partnership, activities or clusters are a result of relation and joint efforts which are identified as ‘social and relationship’ capital in the integrated reporting framework, thus the role of stakeholders in BC’s success is still very important. However, it seems a successful and sustained ‘value passing over’ to the context, cluster and activity elements also means some supporting stakeholders (BITC/CW/WG) or their roles can be freed-up, because of increased capability in primary participating stakeholders (firms and schools) to carry out activities more independently without much help of supporting stakeholders. This stands true in some mature BC partnerships. This development on mature partnership has possible links to expansion of programme into more schools recently. As discussed previously regarding stakeholder theory using Mexican coffee farming case study by Davila and Molina (2017)– stakeholders, their participation and their role (position/salience) is dynamic, it changes over time. BC Wales presents this issue to be true.

Apart from the above, where stakeholder position and participation changes over time, the long-term approach to the programme is desirable, yet this has challenges such as tracking effects of BC in pupils who leave school post-16 years. This is also an issue in England, as reported in the Warwick research. To tackle this issue of long-term impact measurement, BITC aims to create a post-school survey or similar measurement instrument.

Now, with the discussions above, it is not difficult to suggest, collaborative arrangements, as in BC and also generally, that value creation and estimation is very complex – far beyond a linear way of inputting something which is processed to transform into some outcome, as theory of change and its proponents suggest.

Whose Perspective is Counted?

The claim on the impact, as a result of the BC programme on its stakeholders and broader society, hugely varies with regards to practice in schools and businesses participating in the programme. In schools, what is counted are: aspirations, confidence, grade and attendance outcomes and in pupils, these represent the impact story for them. Among businesses, the impact story is about the number of pupils reached, number of staff, and their volunteer hours and number of activities, which actually are inputs. Before this area of research is discussed

further, it is useful to know that not many participants who took part in the research or within the reports understood the meaning of impact, despite a section of the interview explicitly dedicated for this discussion. This issue has also been discussed earlier when talking about impact thinking and practice. On the other hand, the benefit of businesses, recorded by businesses themselves, such as reputation, staff development and talent acquisition are, in fact, outcome oriented.

Maas (2009), in her doctoral thesis on corporate social impact measurement, brings together many different methods of measuring social impact and categorises them using different canons: one of them being orientation. The orientation, according to Maas (2009), relates to whether the difference is in 'input' (with or without activity); for example, cost saving as a result of staff satisfaction from social activity (also known as aversion), whereas the 'output' is used to assess differences in output as a result of an activity such as changes in a level of reputation. Pupils are the primary beneficiary of BC programme and the activities carried out for them has helped them gain employability skills, learning skills and confidence. On the school side, there are also benefits such as staff and leadership development. In the orientation classification from Maas (2009), these benefits fall into output showing the difference in pupil and staff ability co-contributed by BC. Pupil outcomes such as skills, confidence and attendance also might mean aversion effect or difference in input for government, if pupils were to enter into NEET, causing increased welfare costs for the government. This shows *whose perspective is it representing in terms of value* or impact (cf. earlier discussion using Quelin et al., 2017 on hybridity). Likewise, the difference in perspective can also be found in impact practices amongst businesses. The businesses would usually record what they have contributed themselves to society (inputs such as staff hours or number of activities) instead of what has happened in society (actual impact). This impact measurement practice is different within businesses as they use outcome measurements such as reputation or staff development, to account their own benefits. In this way, though the businesses are able to measure impact on themselves (reputation, staff development), it is paradoxical in the sense that what they measure for others (schools) is actually input. I will explain this issue further as below.

Impact Practices

Broadly, the inputs (volunteer hours), activity/process (amount of activities) and outputs (number of pupils reached) are not essentially impacts (cf. BCG social impact and G8 social impact frameworks). According to Kolodinsky et al. (2006), outputs and outcomes are related to providers of the activity, or product/service, whereas impact is found in the user. A similar observation is made by an EU IMPACT research project; the observation being that impact is situated at the level of society. Therefore, the social impact measurement practices in businesses participating in the BC, seems to be more of input and not impact; an issue that concurs with EU IMPACT (2014) findings suggesting “impact thinking is relatively poorly developed in business” (p12) in the pan-European context of their research. However, this is changing in Wales, as a business manager (BIZ07) speaks of what used to be in the past (and is now changing) – “we want to do it, it’s the right thing to do... probably 10 years ago, and then overtime it’s become actually we want to make sure that we [are] doing the right things, we’re having greatest impact... much more focused”. Though the current scenario through the evidence of the BC programme does not allow me to definitively conclude this new trend of impact thinking or practice, businesses are becoming more aware and interested with regard to creating and measuring impact.

The methods that have been used to measure impact mainly on pupils are post-event questionnaires but also others such as external data, case reports, job or university places for pupils, programme feedback among peers (school and business), press coverage or award, through aversion (alleviation of NEET or skill deficit). It is difficult to capture views of multiple stakeholders using such measurement tools. There are challenges about the effectiveness of post-event questionnaires, a standard method of capturing immediate impact that is ‘longwinded’ as expressed by the participants, and that it does not capture long term impact. The more important challenge is getting information after pupils have left school, when ultimate effects might be visible but this has not been done and it is difficult. The impact measurement tools are diverse in what they capture (input, output) and they appear to be ill equipped to capture the actual impact in multiple stakeholders.

CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

As established in the findings chapters, the stakeholders participating in Business Class programme pass over value to context, cluster and activity in order to create more value, which is specific to a business-school partnerships, but also common for all primary stakeholders who draw from this mechanism, known as benefit, capital, impact or value. In addition, there are general and residual value created, which, together with specific and common value, help locate where the value outcomes are situated. These stakeholders have come together in response to employability and other issues for pupils, by forming a *collaborative arrangement* (Crane et al. 2014; Quelin et al., 2017) as reflected in the BC programme. Here, it is this ‘jointness of interest’ that brings stakeholders together to create value, but for instrumentalists like CSV (Porter and Kramer, 2011), it is about creating value by putting firms at the centre amongst the stakeholders and contributors

Many private firms that join BC exhibit cooperation and, in fact, schools are also learning to do so; the most evident practice being the collaborations in the cluster network within the BC programme. The continual participation and cooperation from multiple stakeholders is vital to value creation as well as learning and adoption to changes in stakeholders in the value creating mechanism. However, putting a *company at the centre* that competes with everyone else (Porter, 1990) and creates benefits in this way (Porter and Kramer, 2011) gives an unrealistic picture of the value creation process as seen in the case of the BC programme in Wales, and also in Davila and Molina’s (2017) case in Mexico’s coffee cooperative research.

Freeman (2017) says that business enterprise has a greater purpose (beyond profit for itself), which is to create value for all stakeholders. The firms in the BC have of course not denied their profit-making purpose but in tandem they adjust to stakeholder needs as much as they pull resources for the success of their partnerships with the schools. Thus, beyond transaction, relationship is valued, where some schools are desiring to reciprocate help. These relationships built around solving *common societal problems* evolve naturally over time (Davila and Molina, 2017), thus the company’s goals become co-mingled (Strand and Freeman, 2015) rather than a deliberate set up of such interconnections as perceived in CSV (Porter and Kramer, 2011). It thus questions the notion of stakeholder management as they organise themselves. Furthermore, this supports the notion of the *firm as multi-purpose entity* creating value for multiple stakeholders. These discussions lead to support that *multi-stakeholder collaborative*

arrangements align to 'problem first' approach and stakeholder orientation in governance and value creation and embody hybridity.

Stakeholders connected to the local context through the BC programme in a joint action, need to be heard, in order to see/measure impact from their perspectives. Pragmatism applied in stakeholder theory sees shared reality and justification of actions from stakeholders within and outside organisations. In essence, the co-creation of meaning among stakeholders, and likewise their voice (Rorty, 2004) can *co-valuate* the worth of an activity (value), and my research on BC Wales exactly does that by using multiple sources of evidences from various stakeholders (also showing the usefulness of the case study method employed in this research).

The multi stakeholder collaborative model of BC is a result of a response to societal problems, thus businesses have co-mingled efforts and not just their own interests at the centre. Here, it can be argued that the shared reality of context, co-mingled efforts and impact decidedly shows their co-contribution in value creation and co-valuation of value in their own voice as necessary.

Stakeholder theorists, their critique and the BC Wales case seamlessly show that trade offs do exist, though insignificant, therefore trade offs can happen in pursuing as much value as possible for all stakeholders (cf. WBCSD, 2017). On the other side, this issue essentially supports the notion of pragmatism balancing co-mingled negotiated efforts of firms and stakeholders and collaborative arrangement, having hybridity in logic and governance (Quelin et al., 2017).

Likewise, firms were discriminately reporting the value of the BC activity with outcome for themselves (reputation, staff development) whereas input for society (staff hours, population reached) shows a differing *perspective* within a discrete organisation in the hybrid collaborative arrangement. This therefore supports the need of co-valuation, so the value measurement is not confined to a focal organisation's version or that of the other stakeholders only.

The integrated reporting framework, applied to explain the value creation process and outcome through the perspectives of multiple stakeholders has been useful. The integrated reporting is more typical for manufacturing businesses than service such as the BC programme. What has been discussed here is the value of CSR only and not the core business or other activities in a

firm. In addition, external factors such as outlook, risks and opportunities (called dependencies in WBCSD, 2017) and internal factors like strategy and resource allocation are useful indicators beyond the core value creation process, to evaluate the success of a certain venture. The framework has helped put together comprehensive accounts of BC in Wales. Within the value creation process, similar to an argument from Kolodinsky et al. (2006), IR distinguishes between output being within the organisation such as product/service and resultant capital (impact) with users or stakeholders. Ultimately, the application of IR framework confirms that the BC Wales has created diverse and sizeable value.

As the integrated reporting says, and it is so with the BC that it is not useful to isolate every value (contributed and drawn by stakeholders) but on the other hand, it is possible to have an aggregate picture of overall performance (eg. a programme in this thesis) and its effect or usefulness externally to the stakeholders. However, unlike Wales, issues like isolation of activity outcome – because of external linkages of stakeholders – is not revealed in the Warwick report, though they acknowledge complexity of the phenomenon researched. Consequently, the BC England report puts the focus on pupil outcomes related to alignment with career. The Wales research, on the other hand, gives a broader picture of value creation at programme level involving multiple stakeholders. The BC programme in England and Wales show that these programmes are the result of local context, needs, and outcomes different, according to the perspective taken by the researchers.

The Warwick report on BC England is mainly quantitative (with some interviews as well), whereas the Wales report being a qualitative in nature uses case study approach to bring together various evidences and their analysis in convergence fashion (Yin, 2009). The analysis and conclusion made in convergence fashion by triangulating evidences (data sources) in my research gives insight into each topic (theme) from multiple perspectives, as compared to the Warwick report where the evidences are presented separately and a conclusion made at the end, for example, on the student employability matter in their report.

The enterprise and employability related outcomes in pupils are common in both, owing to the need of the labour market. In both cases, businesses seem to benefit from networking, reputation, talent pipeline development and community relationships. Welsh context of lack of aspirations and confidence within the pupils and associated activities such as stadium tours or hotel visits is more specific to Wales. Similarly, the cluster development aspect of the

programme in Wales shows good potential with regard to value creation, and its ongoing improvement, as well as successful inter-school events at cluster level beyond the basic function of sharing and collaboration that is common to both. The BC programme in England and Wales broadly match, yet offer some distinct features, suggesting that BC activities and by extension the programme, is a result of much local context, and is evolving with participating stakeholders.

The success of BC programme in terms of overall value creation is high considering performance through the application of integrated reporting and in relation to Business Class in England, as well as the supporting feature of inherent multi-stakeholder business model. In addition, the quality of value exercise in the last chapter (section 7.2) also supports this claim on success. For this, application of different value creation models such as stakeholder theory, and integrated reporting have established how value is created and measured.

The impact of a business activity or programme can be both negative and positive as reported by firms and their stakeholders, thus a resultant co-determined *net impact* has been established using integrated reporting, Poudel et al.'s (2016) tourism destination research, as well as my previous research and this current research on the BC Wales. The net impact concept also means taking into account other issues as outlined here. The process of identifying change and its backward causal relationship – called the theory of change (typified as input-process-outcome) though able to explain some simplistic value creation process, falls short in many aspects because there are many complexities in value creation and estimation. Firstly, the local context of deprivation and multiple disadvantages faced by pupils as well as other stakeholders, is changing and can change through the BC programme, thus context is not static. Secondly, even simplistic activities need some collaboration and cooperation from stakeholders. Consequently, the third aspect is estimating value from perspectives of different stakeholders who participate in value creation, also called co-determination/co-valuation (Quelin et al., 2017). Fourth, value is being transformed continually, therefore what was input once (funding) becomes different in outcome (capabilities in pupils). Fifth, the issue of attribution in a multi-stakeholder environment or even in a normal setting, the actions of others co-contributing in a programme (eg. isolating school's external linkages or pupil's connections from BC) is a key challenge. Similarly, within the BC, which activity creates what outcomes is not easily delineated and pathways are unclear. Furthermore, co-contribution has other strands associated with it – the sixth being aggregation of impact, whereby the sum of activities (programme level)

is more than single activities such as business and school partnerships in BC (see value area such as relationship as explained in section 7.2; see also, value creation mechanism in chapter six). Likewise, seventh, the disparity between activity and outcome of the BC programme is partly due to hesitation in reporting impact where attribution is one of the difficulties faced by schools and businesses alike. Eighth, value can occur outside of both place and timeline (post-school). Ninth, impact mentality and practice is another challenge as businesses discriminately consider inputs such as staff volunteer hours (input) as their contribution to society whereas reputation for themselves (outcome), and the schools measure grade and skills in pupils (outcome). This issue of accounting value reinforces what was discussed above (in the third point) and previously about different perspectives on value by multiple stakeholders beyond that of a focal organisation. Tenth, counting of the baseline from where the programme started is important, to compare as well as to indicate the portion of effect or impact that would have happened anyway without the presence of activity where BC has not captured it at the outset (Clark et al., 2004). Eleventh, related to the later part of the last issue is what would have happened anyway or the counterfactual where there is some suggestions that businesses would carry out activity even without formal BC programme present – yet this is difficult to compare what would happen without the BC. Twelfth, though long-term programmes are desirable generally, and also seen in the example of BC Wales programme, it presents some paradox. Once the support organisations pass sufficient value over to the context, cluster and activity through the participating firms and schools, the latter become more independent enabling ‘self-fulfilling partnerships’; thus the role of support organisations becomes less needed. However, this also affects the relationship between stakeholders, which is one of the strengths of the BC programme, but, on the other hand, it reinforces the dynamic nature of a stakeholder relationship which changes over time, as shown in Davila and Molina (2017). The issues discussed here show that value creation and measurement is complex.

In the next chapter, I provide conclusions to the whole research discussed here and in other chapters of the thesis.

CHAPTER NINE : CONCLUSIONS

Expansion of stakeholder theory, three dimensional value measurement tools, methodological reflections

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I conclude the whole thesis. To operationalise this task, I present theoretical contributions of this thesis as well as suggested advancements in practice and policy, with some considerations on methodological applications. The main part of the chapter is organised into four sections on topics of stakeholder theory and CSR, impact and value, practice and policy, and methodology. These topics will guide the presentation of contributions and simultaneously incorporating limitations of this research as well as underexplored areas, suggesting how future research might benefit from my contributions, experiences and issues. At the end, it summarises the chapter and answers the research question succinctly.

9.1 STAKEHOLDER THEORY AND CSR

In this section, using examples of CSR activity investigated by this thesis, I present my contribution on stakeholder theory by relating its original form with what I have expanded. Stakeholder theory describes how businesses create value in association with stakeholders as they share joint interest, involve in mutual partnerships and their purposes are co-mingled (Strand and Freeman, 2015) – and in this way, affecting and being affected by business operations (Freeman, 1984). The redefined theory now reads as: *stakeholders (business, community and others) together participate, co-contribute, co-create, draw value, and they can co-valuate activities carried out jointly*. Consequently, stakeholders are not ‘managed’ but are equal partners in value creation, so my suggestion is to replace the concept of ‘impact’ with the term ‘value’, accounting positive and negative outcomes (as opposed to affecting others). I now recapitulate this thesis, in order to show how this theoretical development took place.

This thesis is built in the current environment where businesses face public mistrust not only about their core business but also their voluntary work such as CSR (Porter and Kramer, 2011; Margolis and Walsh, 2003). There are two key themes that relate to this issue – ethical principles and conduct and consequences of activity. The primary aim of this research, as set out in the first chapter, is to identify the impact of CSR, particularly for those who receive help/project from businesses. As discussed in previous chapters, what we currently know about CSR is based almost entirely on the claims that companies make, which might not necessarily be true. For this reason, the first activity in my research was to explore how value or benefit is created and measured for all stakeholders including firms. The literatures on stakeholder theory (such as Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010; Strand and Freeman, 2015) and related developments such as CSV (Porter and Kramer, 2011) and its critique (Crane et al. 2014) have helped me develop critical understanding about the role of stakeholders, process and outcomes in value creation, mainly at the intersection of business and society. I will now summarise key concepts of existing stakeholder theory, therefore to establish why and in what ways the theory is different as a result of my research and its implications (Phillips and Pugh, 2010).

Stakeholders are affected by business operations and they have some influence over the businesses due to joint interests, cooperation and co-mingling with firm's goals and purposes (Freeman, 1984; Strand and Freeman, 2015). The specific strand in the literature review that helped my research to focus on stakeholder value creation was multi-stakeholder process or initiative (see Crane et al., 2014). The pragmatist philosophy of context, experience and justification informed the usefulness of case study method in gathering multiple sources of evidences from diverse stakeholders including directly from the beneficiaries of CSR in their own words and context. Building on this, the findings show that multiple stakeholders (including the firm and their community partners such as schools and support organisations) in the Business Class Wales programme participate, collaborate and create joint value as shown in the BC value ecology framework (figure 6.3). Reciprocal relationship between businesses and schools and other collaborators within the BC programme and beyond, demonstrate that value has been received by all stakeholders, including the firm. It is important to recognise that beneficiaries and the firm itself are part of a stakeholder consortium who together co-create value in the BC programme. In this way, firms are no different to any other stakeholders (often called recipients) as much as they contribute to and draw value from a joint enterprise like any other stakeholder. This challenges the prevailing narrative of CSR as one way gift from companies to communities.

In fact, my research shows that businesses receive help from stakeholders to carry out CSR activities which in turn benefits the businesses and stakeholders. This challenges the narrative in strategic CSR and other related strands such as CSV where business benefit is a key objective, and for those to whom social benefit alone is a concern. Stakeholders including businesses and communities likewise contribute and receive value. This questions the notion of CSR as anything that is beyond the interest of the firm and what is required by law (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001) because, as this thesis suggests, the very process of carrying out CSR accrues benefits to the firm and other stakeholders, irrespective of their intention. This further suggests that CSR is a regular value creating activity as much as it is with any other product, service or initiative of a company. Resultantly, it can be argued that CSR should cease to be a distinct external activity and instead be considered as a usual value creating avenue for firms.

Continuing the discussions from the previous section on stakeholder theory and value creation – beyond the role of participation, co-contribution, co-creation and drawing of value – stakeholders can co-valuate the worth of an activity or outcome (value). This specifically originated from chapter seven, where I outlined how the value gained by various stakeholders and the quality of the value expressed in their own voice demonstrates that they can co-evaluate the value or worth of an activity. The application of pragmatism, particularly Rorty's notion of justification, supports this concept of the stakeholder voice and the possibility of the stakeholders deciding on worthiness or value of an enterprise (co-valuate). Similar research which have gathered stakeholder perceptions or experiences of value (see for example Babiak and Kihl, 2018; Walker et al. 2017; van Schie, 2010) demonstrates the possibility of co-valuation (see also Hall et al., 2015). Of these, Babiak and Kihl (2018) and Walker et al. (2017) and very few others are the only CSR focussed research that involved beneficiaries. In response to this, my research placed a strong emphasis on the involvement of beneficiaries (stakeholders) in the research and builds on the limited existing research involving the beneficiaries of a corporate social programme. My research has contributed to a deeper and more rounded view of all stakeholders involved in CSR, and further challenges the prevailing narrative of firms as givers only, rather than receivers of social benefit through co-contribution, co-creation and co-valuation of business activities with stakeholders.

Having said this, it is important to recognise that the meaningful participation of community and other stakeholders is not always easy (Walker et al. 2017). Having interviewed almost all

stakeholders benefiting from BC, the pupils who are the ultimate beneficiary of a BC programme were not included in my research interviews because of the requirement for further ethical approval on the university's side beyond what was already agreed, as well as the practical difficulties in arranging such interviews from the perspective of the school, despite the efforts made with BITC. This would have required a disproportionate amount of time for both preparatory work and field research. Having said this, school pupils present in events such as the Dragon's Den student competition and the education symposium in Cardiff, were observed in line with the case study protocol. As a result, their participation within my research was not entirely absent. Furthermore, multiple evidences in my research show that the businesses, schools and support organisations have claimed benefit for themselves as well as for the pupils. Whilst recognising the limitation of my research regarding extensive participation of pupils, but it has usefully established many parameters that can be used to frame further research directly on benefits to pupils, about their perception and the value of the programme from them.

Here, I continue from what has been established thus far on co-valuation of activity carried out at the intersection of business and society usually in the form of CSR programme. The implication of co-valuation in terms of theoretical and ethical frameworks as well as implementing it in practice, are both deep and wide. Firstly, ethical, social responsibility and environmental sustainability indexes such as Dow Jones Sustainability Indices (DJSI), MSCI ESG and FTSE4Good which mostly use business and third party information will need to incorporate the authentic voice of community and that of other stakeholders for such ratings/benchmarking. Among these, the LBG benchmarking model, which uses theory of change in measuring and managing corporate community initiatives, is considered a better index in terms of accommodating the voice of the stakeholder; however, the theory of change itself has issues challenged by complexity which I will return to in the next section. Generally, such ranking indicators that are created to assist investors in their capital allocation are accused of omitting stakeholder voice (Fontana and Nyaupane, 2016; see also Strand et al., 2015). As a consequence, if a company is to be rated in this new paradigm of co-valuation of value, then the existing methodology needs to be refined to include stakeholder voice in a meaningful and effective way. Secondly, the implications of new perspectives on value creation means reporting a framework such as GRI, ISO 26000 and IR should not be restricted to limited customary/superficial stakeholder consultation but should be open to the co-determination of the value approach through more mutual and reciprocal engagement with stakeholders (see

Arnstein, 1969). Furthermore, reporting that is entirely based on a company's self-claim of value both financial and non-financial needs to change (see Wood, 2010; Visser, 2018). The approach that I propose here requires co-defining and co-valuation of social and varieties of value by all stakeholders acting as equal partners. This requires a performance framework that goes beyond financial benefits and extends into the realm of stakeholder values, relationships, and anticipated as well as unanticipated co-created benefits (Coulson, 2016). I will return to the implication of this notion on stakeholder value co-measurement on policy and practice in the following section.

This multi-stakeholder approach to defining value appears to be better developed in non-profit multilateral organisations and public sector such as the contributions of NPC, OECD, WBCSD, EU and G8, as discussed in the literature review. These are usually in the form of programme evaluation and value frameworks, for example MSC technique or IR. Likewise, audit and consulting firms such as BCG, KPMG, and PwC have practitioner focussed impact frameworks and sustainability methodology and metrics which are transferrable to the private sector, so long as attention is paid to any ontological and methodological issues (Coulson, 2016).

Finally, as mentioned above, the methodology behind the various value frameworks – the reporting, ranking and benchmarking system – remains an unexplored area which seems to be the next possible research area for me and others. Specifically, the redefinition of stakeholder theory on stakeholder participation, co-contribution, co-creation and co-valuation calls for fundamental methodological changes, which has implications for accounting, reporting and benchmarking. The co-valuation and other developments from this research can only be fully realised by developing appropriate methodology, metrics and by using an accounting system that is suitable for this.

Terminologies for New Stakeholder Theory Paradigm

Following the arguments above on stakeholder value co-creation and co-valuation, there is also the need for technical changes for this new version of stakeholder theory. The term 'stakeholder management' used in most literature and practice needs to be replaced (see Freeman, 1984; Bowie, 2012; GRI, 2008; Post et al., 2002). The businesses and schools participating in the BC

programme often used the term 'relationship' referring to their paired partner. However, the dominant narrative of CSR as something the firm has done for the community rather than with them (and other stakeholders), will need to change. Unless it does, it may continue to be seen as a tokenistic PR exercise that fails to achieve meaningful social outcomes (Margolis and Walsh, 2003). It should instead turn into: various parties (stakeholders including firm) come together to solve a social problem from which they all benefit according to their experience in it and what they say about its worthiness (co-valuation). This different approach is evident in Mexican coffee farming cooperative research, BC programme in England and Wales as well as CSR programme for youths in sports sector; all of which are extensively discussed within this thesis. Approaches such as these call for a shift away from treating stakeholders as uninformed and passive beneficiaries awaiting some kind of help from the firm, towards an understanding that *all* stakeholder have common interest and something to give. This suggests cooperation and co-contribution in value creation as well as co-mingling in purpose of the firm (see Normann and Ramirez, 1993; Strand and Freeman, 2015). This proposition is fitting because of the argument developed in chapter eight on current approaches that are centred on focal organisation. This calls for the *'stakeholder management' approach and associated terminologies to become obsolete*. Consequently, the current definition of 'impact' also needs redefining.

The narrative of the firm at the centre of value creation that creates positive benefit or harm to stakeholder groups and the environment (such as Wood, 1991) and is often referred to as impact, needs to be replaced so that the firm is no longer considered at the centre. In the new paradigm, all stakeholders including the firm and people from the local community contribute, draw and co-value the worth of an activity. As a result the focus is not on who is impacting whom, but about how stakeholders co-create value as shown in the BC value ecology framework in chapter six. Therefore, whilst the term impact might be applied in different connotations, for example suggesting purely harms (negative value) but if this means general outcome of business activity, then *the word 'value' would suffice as common terminology* across academia, reporting and business practices. Regarding value, I will return to a related concept called net impact in section 9.2.

Multi-Stakeholder Initiatives

Stakeholder theory suggests multiple stakeholders (including firms) come together to contribute and draw value from certain activities or enterprises. The notion of CSV which is critiqued for being company-centred perspective led Crane et al. (2014) to suggest democratically organized multi-stakeholder processes or initiatives (MSI) such as FSC, ETI and RSPO industry-civil society alliances. The Business Class programme itself presents a similar kind of multi-stakeholder process. This concept was developed further using logic and governance hybridity (Quelin et al., 2017) in chapter eight. Similarly, it was claimed that such novel forms of multi-stakeholder organisation, often in cross sector settings, instead take a needs-led approach focusing on a locally relevant/identified social problem (called ‘problem first’), thereby rebalancing firm’s economic and social priorities. By working together, firms, local communities and other stakeholders respond jointly to social problems that already exist, such as socio-economic deprivation, lack of aspirations, skills and performance in pupils within the context of the BC programme in Wales. Whilst this debate has added to stakeholder co-contributed value in firms and multi-stakeholder process setting using specific example of BC programme, this remains underexplored as it was not central to my research area. For example, there is a practical need to determine whether CSR delivered through such multi-stakeholder arrangement creates superior value for all stakeholders, as compared to firms doing such activity directly with a community (see Freeman, 2017) and furthermore how useful or sustainable the MSI can be (such as Biermann et al., 2007; see also Moog et al., 2015; Mena and Palazzo, 2012; Fransen and Kolk, 2007). There is also a need to usefully link MSI to hybridity in logic and governance (Quelin et al., 2017) in order to enhance operationalisation. Other underexplored area related to the multi-stakeholder process is the accounting system that can accommodate multi-stakeholder perspectives (cf. Miles, 2014; see also Mitchell et al., 2015; Quelin et al., 2017 on social value) as argued earlier.

Other associated areas in stakeholder theory and value creation confirm to earlier findings; these findings are that value creation takes place within a context (Gambin and Hogarth, 2015; IIRC, 2013), for example, the case of multiple disadvantages as seen in BC Wales programme. Likewise, trade-offs among stakeholders happen – though they may be insignificant – which is in harmony with its basic philosophical position of pragmatism (Freeman et al., 2010).

9.2 IMPACT AND VALUE

Building on the discussions about stakeholders' participation, contribution, drawing and co-determination of value of an activity from the last section, I now discuss measurement of such value.

The current paradigm in both practice and research, aligns to a company's perspective on value which was discussed using terms such as focal organisation within this and the last chapter. Such perspective has fundamental implications for understanding value creation and measurement. At this stage, before I outline the contribution of my research in this area of stakeholder and value measurement, it is important to recap on the new narrative as outlined in the previous section. In this new narrative as a result of this thesis, all stakeholders, including the firms and community, participate, contribute, draw and determine value in a multi-stakeholder cross sector collaborative arrangement, also known as multi-stakeholder processes (MSI). As argued in last chapter, MSIs tend to use a local need or problem as the starting point for action, instead of the firm's aims, goals or agendas. The BC Wales research programme is an example of such MSI, within which firms execute their CSR activities interdependently and co-create value with stakeholders and organisations.

Having established some features of MSI such as plural perspective on value and 'problem first' approach, it is now the time to explain my contributions on measurement of the created value. Whilst the term beneficiary has often been used (mainly in the literature review), the findings where the beneficiaries such as schools, pupils as well as the firms and other support organisations all forming primary stakeholders (as shown in BC Wales value ecology framework in figure 6.3) show their characteristics to be of a similar kind in terms of contribution, drawing and determination of value as discussed in the last section. This therefore calls for *replacement of the term 'beneficiary' and to use the term 'stakeholder' instead*. The case put forward in this thesis is that value creation within a CSR programme that is targeted at a community can be enhanced by challenging and refining the prevailing CSR narrative which frames communities as recipients rather than co-contributors of benefits.

In current practice, organisations usually establish aims, objectives and outcomes using theory of change that is referred to as input-process-outcome approach. This gives them a rather simplistic way of designing projects (eg. community intervention) and measuring value

creation in a predictable, linear fashion, which can fail to take into account the true nature of complex adaptive systems (Auspos and Cabaj, 2014). The value creation process and measurement as evidenced in literature as well as my research is very complex and emergent rather than predictable. In the previous section, I established how multiple stakeholders need to be involved in value creation and the co-determination of value. This requires a pluralistic and dialogic approach to discussing the value or worth of an activity or enterprise. In the BC Wales programme, the government executive (GOV18) who was interviewed, when he spoke of value– it meant helping “those young people make a smoother transition” to work and not to fall into the category of NEET. However, for BITC, value means success of the programme or its elements, such as cluster network. Similarly, for schools, the term value usually means confidence, employability skills and good grades for pupils, whilst for businesses it is seen as reputation and staff development outcomes. This polyphony of definitions reinforces the need to explore and *define value from the perspective of the multiple stakeholders*. This requires a shift from the focal organisation’s version of value to plural perspective as argued earlier (cf. Figge and Schaltegger, 2000). The semantic refinement in the new version of value creation and measurement is essential in order to convey the substance of many issues as well as the elements and processes within it as discussed in this thesis. This new definition requires skilled dialogue and deliberation (Escobar, 2011).

The concept of net impact, whereby both positive and negative outcomes are taken into account from the perspectives of multiple stakeholders, has already been established in my discussion chapter. The net impact concept also came out of my previous research (Nyaupane, 2015), where all outcomes of businesses, both CSR and regular businesses, are accounted for, by constituting net value as created by a business enterprise which includes the perspective of all stakeholders involved in value creation. When it comes to measuring value, there are number of technical issues to be considered which are generally in line with previous research and they question the linear input-process-outcome model of value creation. For example, when compared with a counterfactual context, meaning where something would happen anyway in the absence of intervention, it shows the need for deduction. Similarly, in a programme where multiple stakeholders are involved or have influence over it, there is a need for isolation (thus the issues of attribution) as discussed in the last chapter. Conversely, interrelated effects which lead to the overall impact of a project, will be different from the sum of single activities (aggregation), such as the effect of increased combined value which was evident in BC. These approaches to value measurement support the concept of overall net value created. Because of

these issues as well as others such as impact beyond timeline or place of project and what stakeholders consider to be impact/value (ie. perspective) shows the *complex nature of value creation and measurement*. Business organisations and communities are made up of people and people often cannot be predictable or logical. They operate not as a mechanistic system but a complex adaptive system (Auspos and Cabaj, 2014) that demands for us to embrace the notion of complexity in value creation and estimation (such as Zadek, 2001; Freeman, 2017; Nyaupane, 2016). The hybridity in logic and governance inherent in innovative, cross-sector collaboration or the MSI (Quelin et al., 2017) as developed in the last chapter, also highlights the need to embrace complexity in value creation and measurement. The reality of change/progress within BC programme, such as relationship between stakeholders, supports the complexity approach.

This challenges the wider use and reliance upon theory of change, suggesting predictable and linear process of input-process-outcome in understanding value creation and measurement, as applied in frameworks like SROI, integrated reporting and several other CSR/social impact assessment tools. The example of the BC programme in England and Wales and other relevant research involving stakeholders such as Babiak and Kihl (2018), Walker et al. (2017) and Davila and Molina (2017), illustrates that programmes involving multiple stakeholders are usually situated within challenging social contexts. The context is characterized by multiple disadvantages involving many interdependent factors and it is complex in process and the outcomes are difficult to ascertain and attribute in terms of causality as well as establish individual gains for each stakeholders. Therefore, measuring value in such multi stakeholder collaborative settings, built upon the assumption of linear progression from input to process to outcome, is fraught with danger.

There is another issue that adds to the complexity of value measurement. This is the practical difficulty that many organisations and practitioners face in the process of identifying goals, objectives and associated activities to populate a theory of change. One of the greatest dangers is the potential failure to acknowledge a range of unexpected value outcomes that can emerge from complex systems, as well as those which are outside of an organisation's goals and objectives. The BC Wales research has illustrated, through evaluation of the programme comprehensively, the reason and viability to capture more than just the predictable goals and objectives. It has identified a range of issues as discussed in previous chapters such as concepts of context, external linkages and resource pull. If value measurement is confined to a firm's

aims and objectives, then a vast amount of value is likely to go unnoticed and unaccounted for (see for example Walker et al. 2017; Gambin and Hogarth, 2015). My research has practically contributed to measuring the total value as like in a water pool concept (I return on this concept below), expanding the vision of value creation in a way that goes beyond the organisation's goals and objectives.

The BC Wales research has been useful to evaluate the programme comprehensively and has been able to capture more than just pre-defined goals and objectives such as the themes developed in previous chapters: context, external linkages, resource pull and so on. *So, if value measurement was to be confined to aims and objectives of an organisation, a lot of value will be ignored and unaccounted.* For example, the focus on CSR participants' value in Walker et al. (2017) and likewise pupils in BC England report by Warwick where limited attention has been given for wider outcomes of programme supports this issue. In this way, the programme creates value beyond aims and objectives of organisations and measuring rounded value in a water pool concept was found to be useful. The contribution of this research for understanding and measurement of value created at the intersection of business and society and involving multiple stakeholders as depicted in figures 6.3 not only expands territory and areas of value beyond a firm's goals and objectives but also that value is potentially passed and received in external networks, beyond the sphere of the immediate value pool (eg. the BC programme). Therefore, what has been suggested here is the concept of one water pool among infinitely connected local and global water pools (ie. value ecologies). The issues of attribution and isolation of impact (or value) discussed in the last chapter adds to this notion of connected value ecology using the water pool concept.

My research has also identified reporting disparity, whereby firms have claimed tentative benefits for themselves, for example, reputation and staff development as a result of being involved in the BC programme; however, this does not appear in the same way in their practice or reports. Instead, what appear are their inputs such as volunteer hours, money donated or people reached which shows issues in understanding of value or impact. Not only this, but also businesses, schools and other stakeholders in the programme seem to use cursory evidence, therefore lack of complete benefit or value measurement in practice. Practice of value measurement among stakeholders is very diverse as it can be seen in chapter seven. Therefore, the current practice of measurement of outcomes of CSR activity needs to change.

As discussed above, the issue of confinement of value to goals and objective or benefits to certain stakeholder groups or improper measuring practice (input vs. outcome) suggests a need for a better and more integrated approach which I will return to in the next section to advise mainly the practitioners. This issue of goals and objectives versus all round value that has been identified by my research can also be the basis for detailed research in the future, which might investigate it from a perspective of both value creation and reporting. The other aspect related to this is the concept of reciprocal rather than one-way benefit, within which all stakeholders, both contribute and receive by using co-creation and co-definition approach. This was discussed in the previous section and adds to this issue of under-reporting and under-accounting value, which needs further investigation. As discussed in the last chapter, one of the reasons for this under-reporting is, due to firms shying away from claiming value beyond their inputs in their reporting practice even though they have received tentative benefits as witnessed in BC Wales. This is related to the difficulty of determining attribution.

The application of IR in value accounting as well as comparative benefits of the BC programme between England and Wales shows the distribution of the value. Through these applications as well as other research like Babiak and Kihl (2018) and Walker et al. (2017), the notion of who gets the benefit, or value (associated to a stakeholder) is evident. However, this research expands the *notion of value to where it is situated in relation to place and phenomenon*, using the BC Wales value framework at the end of chapter six. In this value creating mechanism, the new value being created is context specific, involving the participating firm and school who benefit mostly (specific) and common to those, which are primary stakeholders as well as general value with possibility of spill over effect in stakeholders' network, whilst some residual value potentially remains in context, cluster and activity elements. According to this argument, the context in a local geographic place changes over time following exposure to programme. In addition, collaborations and developments in cluster networks, which are linked to stakeholders within a geographical region, remain and similarly improvements in a programme's activities and operations support this notion of change locally.

Such place-based approaches (location and organisation) can complement a multi-stakeholder benefit value approach, which has some under-reporting issues as discussed earlier. Future research in this area can of course test the BC Wales value ecology framework, but importantly it should investigate how geographic location can evidence value perhaps in a comparative way (see for example– Auspos and Cabaj, 2014; Taylor et al., 2017 on place based change) and

programme process and improvement (see Walker et al., 2017 who follow process trail in evaluation).

Similarly, the impact created by the BC programme – as evaluated in this research – was focused mainly at individual levels such as pupils, business and school staff. Such impact or value needs to be linked more comprehensively to the local community (organisations involved, such as business, school and so on; see Weber, 2008) and the education sector (eg. in terms of curriculum and employability) as touched on by the BC programme and further to society in general, or the context into the wider society (Jackson 2013, cf. Maas, 2009). The aim here is to move towards being able to measure the value of an enterprise more accurately and holistically using more than one approach or set of criteria.

Using multiple sources of data, the case study strategy employed in this research has been able to gather multiplicity of stakeholder perspectives and effects of activity. All stakeholders including businesses participate to co-create and draw value from activity, thus the term ‘beneficiary’ (suggesting inequality) is replaced by stakeholder (Davila and Molina, 2017). Various sources of data used in this research have enabled me to embrace complexity in value creation and measurement challenging several issues in prevailing linear value measurement approaches. Furthermore, the evidences gathered for this research are comprehensive that go beyond the aims, objectives, expected outcomes of the programme and predefined stakeholders, therefore they are able to support the concept of value pool and greater connectivity. In this, it has advanced the concept of net value by suggesting to measure outcomes of activity accurately and comprehensively; it has done this by factoring all potential issues and opening alternative approaches such as placed based change (or value) as discussed above in this section. Consequently, it has enabled my research to identify wide range of value indicators that emerged and this will be discussed in the next section.

9.3 POLICY AND PRACTICE

This thesis claims that the success of the Business Class programme in Wales is high in terms of the value created which is relative within the programme components, as well as external through the application of integrated reporting and comparison with peer programme ie. the

BC England. Using the output of this research, organisations involved in the BC programme and others would benefit from practical and policy related recommendations to improve the programme as well as improvement of value measurement. This section is dedicated for this purpose. Some of these suggestions are already made in an interim report on BC Wales evaluation produced in 2017 autumn which has been used by BITC for consultation with Welsh Government on programme funding which is now extended as reported by BITC. A full report was also provided to them in the autumn of 2018.

My research has contributed in understanding of value and tools to measure. I suggest three complementary tools to measure value. For this, firstly, based on what was presented in data and discussions on impact, I suggest that all stakeholders involved in co-creating value in BC programme can benefit from having *broader indicator of overall success*, which demonstrates the all-round value of a particular enterprise or programme. The colour coded performance categories (green, yellow, amber, red) in school education by Welsh Government or even more recently the gold, silver, bronze teaching ranking exercise in UK universities (teaching excellence framework) can be a reference for this. Using such an approach, the BC Wales programme is ranked as ‘high’ in success to create value to multiple stakeholders.

Secondly, whilst different stakeholders will use diverse ways in deciding what success looks like and how it is measured locally (such as grade, attitude, skills in pupils or inputs for businesses and so on), using diverse feedback tools and different timescales, I suggest that it is useful to develop *standardized local methods for measuring ongoing outcomes/journey*. This tool can be used as a reference point for all stakeholders involved in the BC programme to measure progress in locally relevant issues as well as accommodate potential changes in value areas quickly. They can be used for formative assessment (for example, biannually), dialogue and improvement, as well as for common reporting. Schools and businesses entering into new partnerships face the difficulty of not knowing what to do and what they should expect from each other, therefore they can benefit from such mutually agreed outcome framework. Likewise, partnerships which are mature and proven to be innovative can also enhance their work using a framework for measuring intermediate outcomes.

Thirdly, diverse areas of value such as business-school relationships where most activity happen as well at the cluster level (successful events) as outlined in section 7.2 of the second findings chapter, should be used to assess outcomes. These assess diverse processes and

outcomes in value creation. Applying magnitude coding as well as organisational learning, the dialogic exploration of value for all stakeholders can contribute towards creating *integrated areas of evaluation*. The use of magnitude coding and peer programme comparison (BC England) in this research opened up this possibility. Integrated value areas can assist in the development of rounded value determination from multiple stakeholders and without the need to always quantify data such as in SROI. The integrated areas of evaluation considers not just the value outcome in terms of quantity but importantly the quality of value as demonstrated in chapter seven. Similarly, measurement areas identified in this approach are comprehensive beyond the aims and objectives of firm or programme. The complexity in value creation and estimation (co-valuation and net value) developed by this research needs to be taken into consideration for building such meaningful evaluation approach. Furthermore, the value areas specific to a programme can also be linked to building a global application that is associated with changes that are recommended on ranking, benchmarking and reporting indices. This has been discussed in the previous section.

To summarise the approaches discussed above, the overall indicator of success will apply at programme level (evaluation) through a process of contextualisation and by judging integrated areas of value. This approach is supplemented by standardised local methods for measuring ongoing outcomes such as at local activity (business-school partnership). Standardized local methods will need to be responsive to change and refinement as a programme progresses and this should be developed in relation to stakeholders' existing and diverse practices of feedback. These suggestions might also supplement the BITC's aim to develop a theory of change for BC programme.

From an outsider perspective, the value being created from BC programme – mainly between 2013 to 2017 – examined by this research is finite; akin to the concept of amount of water in a pool discussed earlier. The total value created by the programme in the pool cannot be one thing to a business and another thing for a school and yet another for other stakeholder groups/organisations. The process and locations of value created as shown in figure 6.3 supports the concept of total value in a pool. There needs to a blending of perspectives if the water in the pool is to be clearly and mutually defined. For example, if the Welsh Government both as a funding and policy organisation wanted to find out what overall value has been created, individual reports from businesses, schools and even support organisation are likely to cover only limited aspects, based on their particular interests and intent (see also the issue of

perspective and aims and objectives in the last section). The rounded approach to assessing value of activity or programme using case study or even other suitable techniques that can accurately account value as well as translate both facts and narrative of value across sectors, is important. It is important because such social programmes are carried out collaboratively by multiple stakeholders in diverse sectors. This rounded value approach can be seen as a collective rendition, a combined richer narrative and a co-created factual common reference for all, as opposed to the current paradigm of focal organisation's claim on value. This confronts the idea of focusing on the impact of one group of stakeholders on another as discussed earlier. Instead, the focus is on the development of a shared language, vision and joint value creation and its proper rounded assessment. Consequently, this suggests a need to replace our current understanding of the term 'impact' as suggested in previous sections.

I also suggest that BITC as well as CW organisations and businesses and schools could benefit from technology innovation for interaction in regional cluster networks where face-to-face meetings can be difficult in terms of both time and distance issues, especially in remote rural areas like Powys or Pembrokeshire. Another way to support the effectiveness of cluster mechanism and the best use of time is through increasing the number of currently successful events, which are usually in the form of student competitions.

In the context of changing school curriculum in Wales, the enterprise and employability and other skills and aspiration building support, provided by BC programme, needs embedding in curriculum and incentivized, therefore the schools can run it with priority and sustainably. The improvement in technology, school curricula, cluster collaboration and other aspects of the programme will help BC to become an organisational infrastructure able to support similar other initiatives beyond its current programme.

9.4 METHODOLOGY

The frame of this research is mainly built on case study method (mainly works of Robert K. Yin) and there are lessons to be learned from using it and from data collection, analysis and their applications. I would like to reflect upon this.

The application of case study method and the use of multiple evidence in convergence fashion, focussed on topical areas or themes, has been very useful. In fact, the key contributions explained above: the co-valuation in multi stakeholder setting and multiplicity in perspective of value shows the usefulness of case study. Similarly, it has been useful in the context of capturing complex phenomenon of value creation and estimation. There are some lessons learnt in applying the case study method. Usually multiple source of data both qualitative and quantitative (or their mixing) are analysed separately (see for example, BC England report 2015 and Walker et al. 2017). I would like to emphasize on *convergence of data in order to establish facts on a topical area using triangulation* (called converging lines of inquiry as in navigation, see Yin, 2018) – is very important where voices of multiple stakeholders needs to be incorporated and specifically when the research is of evaluative nature.

The terminology corroboration in the context of multiple data triangulation is problematic as it suggests adding evidence to confirm or agree or correspond to other data (see Saldana, 2016; cf. Bryman 2016 on respondent validation) whereas the experience of its application in my research can instead be termed as adding ‘*patch*’ of data expanding deeper narrative; similar to the notion of artistic rendition in a painting by Rubin and Rubin (1995). Various evidences such as the issue of the education regulator Estyn’s approach to the employability programme as carried out by BC programme, needed clarity between the expressed version of schools and BC delivery organisation as well as government. The basic utility of corroboration was of course to corroborate information given by the research participants as well as cross check using other sources, moreover in this and other areas of investigation, it was about converging data to form coherent, combined and enhanced narrative which is a picture that is joined by several pieces of evidences (patch) presenting full perspectives. In this respect, the realistic application of corroboration seems to be more about putting evidences next to each other for increasing and enhancing explanation and less about what is traditionally believed as piling one data over the other, or juxtaposing for rigour and confirmation. This argument on multiple evidences forming a patch (piece) of arts in a combined narrative is consistent with co-valuation of value outcome and multiple perspectives of stakeholders as established earlier. In this way, convergence and corroboration applied in evaluating a corporate social programme, helps form a combined picture that challenges the company’s sole claim on outcome or value.

I now reflect upon and suggest about methodology. This thesis has taken an evaluative consequentialist approach in investigating a phenomenon, specifically the value of an activity,

in the sight of various stakeholders (see also Babiak and Kihl, 2018; Patton, 2014). Other ways to find value is also in the principles of corporate responsibility or ethical values exhibited in organisational programmes and policies as well as by managers individually (see Wood, 1991; Money et al., 2015; cf. Hine and Preuss, 2009). One of the challenges discussed earlier was hybridity in logic and governance (Quelin et al., 2017) in such multi-stakeholder collaborative initiatives that poses the challenge of whose moral and ethical values, and perspectives count. For this, some alternative form of investigation like practice based wisdom, which aims to create a harmonious system of contained conflicts such as in social enterprises, can be used. The practice based wisdom is associated with phronesis, which is an umbrella term for cognitive capacity that coordinates judgment, understanding, and insight to result in effective action (Halverson, 2002, see also Rooney, 2012; Flyvbjerg et al., 2012; cf. Cahill, 1981). In such Aristotelian philosophy and latter development such as by MacIntyre (1984, 2007) in the context of embeddedness of economy in society supports the research direction towards virtue of actors involved (Brooks, 2008). Most discussions and evidences in BC Wales and similar other research used in this thesis are about actions and outcomes of activity, thus other aspects like moral virtue is not answered by this research. How can virtue in managers and other stakeholders challenge or complement outcomes of this research? Perhaps the perspective on CSR as a moral act of firm's responsibility toward society, in the virtue paradigm, can be witnessed in people or principles, as much it is seen in acts and consequences investigated by this thesis.

FINAL CONCLUSIONS

In this section, I summarise key issues discussed in this chapter as well as answer the research question set out in chapter one succinctly.

Value from an activity at the intersection of business and society, such as a CSR programme, is created when primary stakeholders participate, co-contribute, co-create and draw from the activity. They can also co-evaluate the worth of the activity as demonstrated in this thesis. In researching this multi stakeholder value-creating enterprise/phenomenon, the stakeholder theory has expanded from a focus on the stakeholders' relationship with a firm, to their co-contribution and importantly co-valuation for establishing the all-round value of an activity.

Whilst, though limited, stakeholder participation and co-contribution have been discussed elsewhere (though poorly developed), co-valuation is a novel concept furthered by this thesis, which needs a set of criteria and tools to support it. In line with this, the current firm-centred perspective needs to change to embrace and include the voice of other stakeholders in order to co-valuate the worth of an activity or a joint enterprise. This requires methodological and semantic changes including the redefinition of terms such as stakeholder management, impact and beneficiary. This was discussed in this and the last chapter.

The rounded value approach developed by this thesis demonstrates the importance of using plural perspectives in determining value, which encompass diverse perceptions and experiences of stakeholders and outcomes presenting a collective rendition of value which is also context specific. This approach embraces complexity in value creation and determination of its worth, which is consistent with multi stakeholder collaborations as researched by this thesis. When translated into policy and practice, this should offer three complementary ways to measure value. The development of *overall indicators of success* that are agreed by all stakeholders (across different sectors) able to provide assessment of value created over time. On the short to medium term, stakeholders participating in a collaborative programme need to have basic ideas as to where and how they are journeying together. This requires a *standardized local method* of measuring intermediate outcomes beyond the existing practices of post-event short-term assessment of value practice amongst stakeholders in BC Wales. For the above broader indicators of success as well as local assessment methods to work in the new paradigm, it must embed new integrated value system. The integrated approach embraces the identification and recording of negative as well as positive value and an appreciation of value that is broad and holistic, including multiple factors such as relationship, collaboration and intellectual benefit, and not just financial outcomes using net value concept. Neither is such a value framework bound by predetermined aims and objectives. It thus uses the concept of net value and embraces multiple issues such as complexity and plural perspective in value creation and measurement in forming the *integrated areas of value* for holistic evaluation of programme or activity. This three dimensional value assessment tool serves as an answer to the current practices of value measurement characterized by malpractices, underreporting, unilateral approach and lack of impact mentality. This research, through such solutions, calls for necessary changes, so as to evaluate how we understand and calculate value accurately, comprehensively and collectively. Having said this, we must realize that the value of a

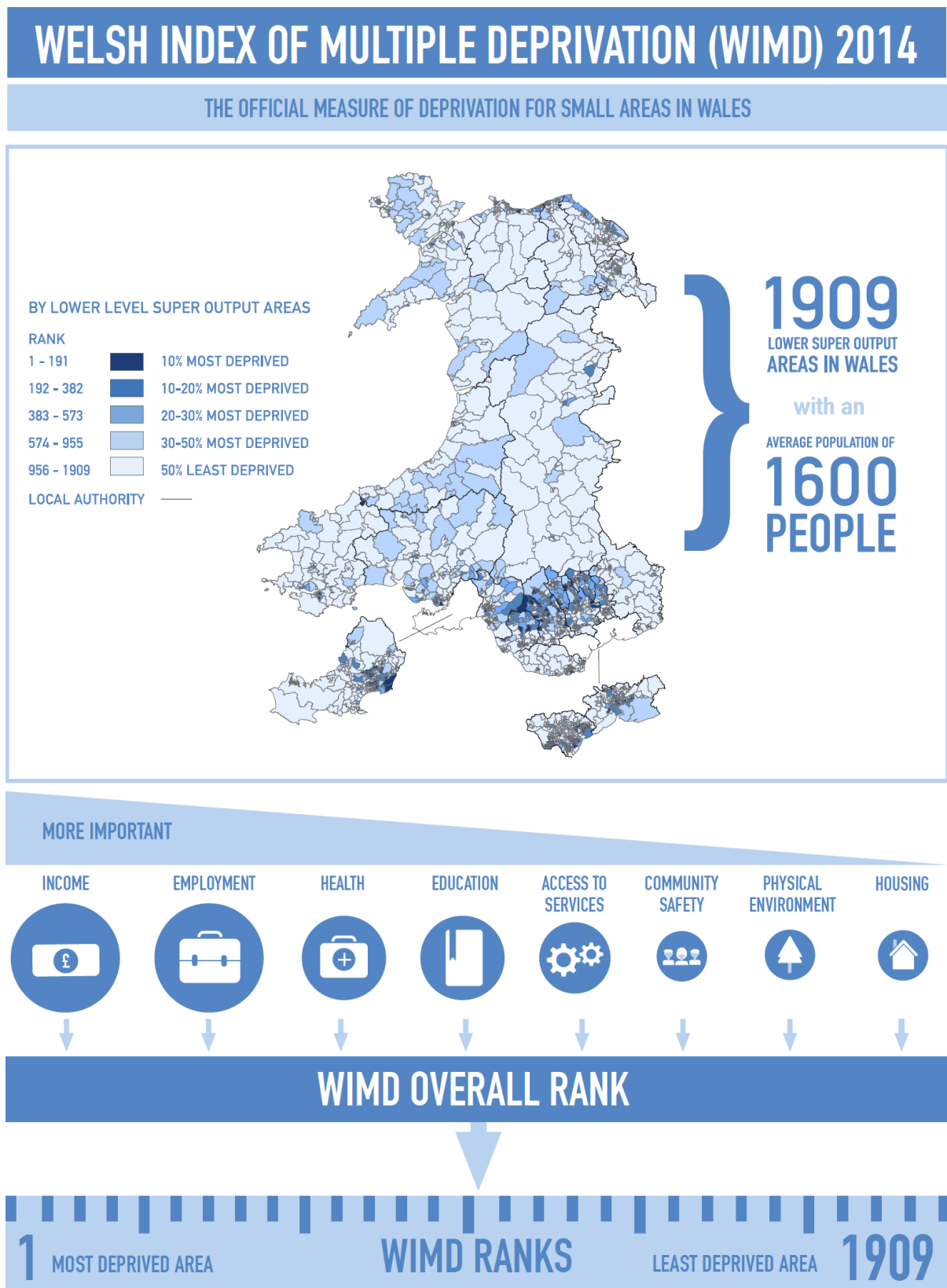
programme, in the metaphor of pool of water, is just one among infinitely connected pools, therefore the net value of a programme is still difficult to delineate and it is tentative.

The role and experience of stakeholders including businesses and so-called recipients (schools/community) was found to be similar in terms of shared reality of context, their collective participation, co-contribution, co-creation, drawing and co-valuation of the BC programme. Therefore, both businesses and schools, as primary stakeholders among others, are positive contributors in the programme and reap the benefits from it, which describes the clear reality of value creation in CSR activities at the intersection of business and society. In this new paradigm of value co-creation and co-valuation, all stakeholders involved in value creation have diverse perspective on value, therefore convergence is essential to establish a combined mutual reality that translates across stakeholders and constituents. The combined mutual reality established by multiple stakeholders, as well as corroborated in this thesis using integrated reporting and peer programme comparison, is that the success of the BC programme is *high* in terms of multiple benefits gained by multiple stakeholders from the programme. Such application of convergence of perspective in establishing facts and worth of value can support the identification and removal of malpractices, such as disparity, under-reporting, and company centred claims on value or impact. It will also need appropriate methodologies, whilst also being open to alternative approaches such as place and scale based change.

Here, corporate social responsibility orchestrated in the name of the society, in effect is a joint action to solve a common social problem that receives help from and offers benefits to multiple stakeholders including the firm. Advancement in theory, working framework and suggestions offer some help, yet this still leaves the question to managers about their own moral values and ethical responsibilities in business and society.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Welsh Index of Multiple Deprivation (WIMD) 2014. Source: Welsh Government



APPENDIX 2: Account of multiple sources of data collected

Serial number	Organisation's business and office location(s) in Wales	Role of person interviewed / description of data	BC cluster/region	Nature of data	Alpha numeric codes (BIZ = Business, SCH = School, GOV = Government, CHA = Charity)
1.	Building society, financial services, Cardiff	CSR manager	RCT/multiple	Interview	BIZ01
2.		Wales responsible business award application 2017		Document	
3.		Business Class feedback survey results (four schools)		Document	
4.		Business Class update 2016		Document	

5.		Welsh sport broadcast photos x 2 March 2017		Photos	
6.		Annual report 2016 – building your future (includes information on CSR activities)		Document	
7.	Secondary school, Powys	Headteacher	Powys	Interview	SCH15
8.	Comprehensive school, Merthyr	Head of department	Heads of the valleys	Interview	SCH10
9.		School newsletter winter 2014 including information on BC activity		Document	
10.	Financial services, Cardiff	Business manager	Heads of the valleys	Interview	BIZ08

11.		Partner school prospectus 2014-15 including information on BC activities		Document	
12.		Responsible Business Awards in Wales 2016 (Reaccreditation Application)		Document	
13.	House building, Cardiff/Aberfan	Community investment manager	Caerphilly	Interview	BIZ26
14.		Case study with partner school March 2016 (site visit and assembly)		Document	
15.		Case study with partner school May 2016 (logo competition)		Document	

16.	Rugby stadium, Carmarthen	Business manager	Carmarthenshire	Interview	BIZ17
17.	Resort holiday park, Pembrokeshire	Learning & development manager	Pembrokeshire	Interview	BIZ27
18.	Secondary school, Pembrokeshire	Assistant headteacher	Pembrokeshire	Interview (notes without audio)	SCH33
19.	Professional services, auditing, Cardiff	Director	Heads of the valleys	Interview	BIZ07
20.	Secondary school, Merthyr	Careers in charge	Heads of the valleys	Interview	SCH25
21.		BC calendar of events 2014-16, 2017-18		Documents	
22.	Telephone answering and support services (online), Wrexham	Director	Flintshire	Interview	BIZ04

23.	High school, Wrexham	Deputy headteacher	Flintshire	Interview (notes without audio)	SCH20
24.	Primary and secondary school, Ebbw Vale	Director (secondary phase unit)	Heads of the valleys	Interview	SCH19
25.		School 19 – Business Class project (video on YouTube) produced by the School 19 Council		Video	
26.	Housing and maintenance, Bridgend	Community Regeneration Manager	Bridgend	Interview	BIZ05
27.	Multinational conglomerate (aviation, energy, healthcare), Caerphilly	PR and communications leader	Cardiff	Interview	BIZ11
28.	UK government body, Newport	Sustainability manager	Newport	Interview	BIZ09

29.	Comprehensive school, Maesteg	Assistant headteacher	Maesteg	Interview	SCH16
30.	Public broadcaster (television and online media), Cardiff	Head of resourcing & talent		Interview (notes without audio)	BIZ12
31.	Secondary school, Cardiff	Deputy head	Cardiff	Interview	SCH30
32.		Assistant head (school year seven group)		Interview	SCH31
33.	BITC (business- community outreach	Director		Interview	CHA02
34.	charity promoting responsible business)	Account manager		Interview	CHA06
35.		Head of Business Class Cymru		Interview	CHA03

36.		Head of business development and funding		Interview	CHA32
37.		BC Cardiff cluster meeting minute May 2017		Document	
38.	Comprehensive and post-16 school, Newport	Assistant headteacher	Newport	Interview	SCH13
39.	Career Wales A wholly owned subsidiary of the Welsh Government providing independent and impartial careers information, advice and guidance service to all age, Swansea	Head of service delivery		Interview	GOV14

40.	Welsh Government, Cardiff	Project manager, youth engagement branch		Interview	GOV18
41.		Bid document (shortened version provided by BITC)		Document	
42.	Comprehensive school, Cardiff	Head, Welsh Baccalaureate	Cardiff	Interview	SCH21
43.	Building material retailers, Abergavenny	Area manager	Powys	Interview	BIZ22
44.	Train services, Cardiff	Head of career and talent management	Cardiff	Interview	BIZ23
45.	Banking and financial services, Bridgend	Education relationship manager, Wales and Borders	Flintshire/multiple	Interview	BIZ24

46.		Helping Britain Prosper (education and employability) report January 2017		Document	
47.	Housing association, Blaina	Employment & skills programme manager	Heads of the valleys	Interview	BIZ28
48.	High school, Wrexham	Learning coach, and progress & achievement coordinator	Flintshire	Interview	SCH29
49.	Comprehensive school, Pontypridd	N/A (classroom event)	RCT	Observation	SCH34
50.	BITC Cymru Business- Education Symposium 2017, Cardiff	N/A (symposium event)		Observation	35

APPENDIX 3: Interview guide

Interview Schedule

The main research themes, with the associated questions for each partnership are set out here.

Please note that the precise ordering and wording of questions will be flexible, as the interviewer responds to the conversation. The aim is to cover all the main themes during the course of each interview. The emphasis of the interview will change depending on whether the respondent is representing the business or the school, and their precise role in their partnership.

Throughout, the interviewer will remain sensitive to issues that fall outside of these main themes but are nonetheless deemed to be relevant. In addition, the interviewer may from time to time seek more depth on individual stories that are interesting and potentially illustrative.

The question wordings below are intended as ‘prompts’ to ensure that all main areas are addressed.

Background Information

(It is assumed that we will know the main business partner for the purposes of establishing sector and size, as well as basic data about the schools. If not, these questions can easily be incorporated.)

- How long has the partnership been established?
- Who is involved in managing the partnership? (Note: we are interested to find out the kind of school roles to which the head might normally delegate this activity, if indeed it is delegated)
- What are the key roles and relationships in the partnerships?
- What are the main activities the businesses have undertaken or engaged with?

The Development and Drivers of the Partnership

- How did you find out about the Business Class programme?
- What were the initial aims?
- Did these aims fit well with your school's priorities?
- Have the aims changed over time?
- Can you indicate the extent of time commitment to the partnership for staff involved?
- Were there particular opportunities or challenges the school thought the partnership might be able to help with? (Note: here the team can, if needed, prompt school respondents around priorities like leadership, governance, employability, staff development, curriculum development and so on.)
- How has the partnership developed?
- How have the relationships between participants developed?
- What is the level of awareness of the partnership among the staff in general?
- How do you think it is generally perceived?
- Does the board of school governors get involved? If so, has the partnership impacted on the school governance?
- Has the partnership encountered barriers to its development? If so what were they and how were they addressed?

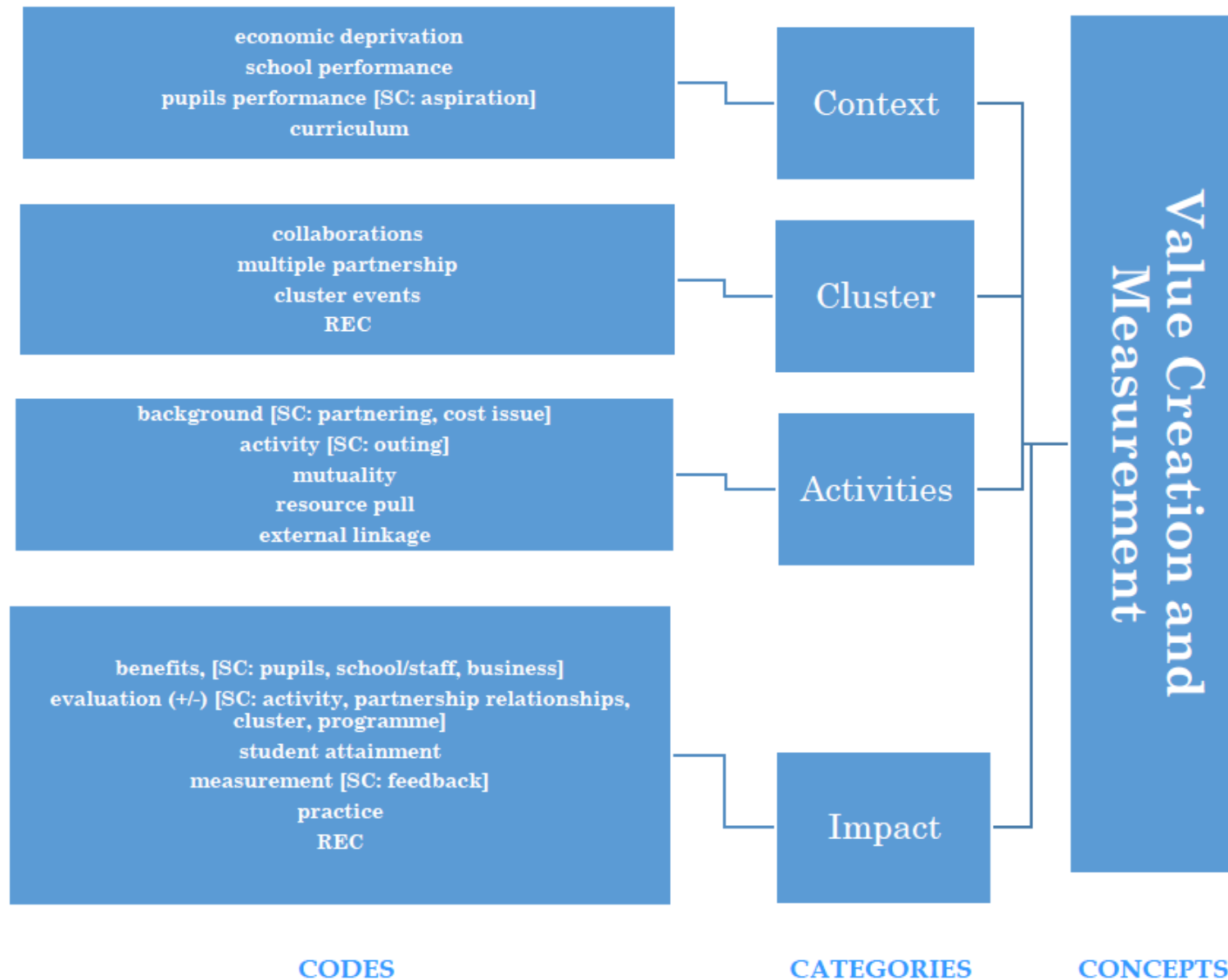
Impact and Value

(Note: here the emphasis will be different depending on the role of the respondent. For example, whether they are a pupil, a representative the school or the business. It will also be of interest to ask about any documentary evidence or reports on the impacts of the partnership.)

- What have been the main impacts of the project?
- Who has benefitted from the project?
- How would you describe the main benefits or impacts? Are they measurable?
- Has the school as a whole benefitted?
- Are there specific groups or pupils who have benefitted? (Note: in this area of questioning the respondent can be prompted to consider pupil priorities like employability, attendance, behaviour, general wellbeing and so on, or more general school priorities such as staff or curriculum development)

- Have you gained value from being part of the local cluster of partnership?
- Has the partnership led to other relationships or broadened your network of links?
- Have the benefits experienced so far been in line with your initial expectations when the partnership was established?
- (For businesses) Have there been specific benefits to you as a business from your involvement?
- If so, what are these and how are they recorded or measured?
- Is this activity part of a wider approach to responsible business practice?
- Overall, has Business Class made a positive difference to the school?
- Are there any modifications to Business Class that would improve the outcomes for you?

APPENDIX 4: Coding Diagram. A streamlined codes-to-theory model for qualitative inquiry – adapted from Saldana (2013) fig. 4.2



Acronyms: SC = sub coding, REC = recommended coding

APPENDIX 5: Ethical Approval from Swansea University

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, SWANSEA UNIVERSITY

LIGHT-TOUCH ETHICAL REVIEW FORM

To be completed for all research involving human subjects or datasets

Name of PI or PGR Student	Ravindra Nyaupane
Staff Number or Student ID	746951
Supervisors*	Dr Simon Brooks, Dr Kate Organ
Date Submitted	15/02/17
Title of Project	A critical evaluation of corporate social responsibility from the perspective of the recipient.
Name of Funder / Sponsor*	Swansea University
Finance Code / Reference*	
Duration of Project	3 years

* Complete if appropriate

Risk evaluation: Does the proposed research involve any of the follow?

✓ **Tick** those boxes for which the answer is **YES**

✗ **Cross** those boxes for which the answer is **NO**

- ✗ Will the research harm or pose any risk to the environment? (e.g. research in environmentally sensitive areas (e.g. SSSIs); permission needed to access field sites; transport of samples between countries (e.g. soil); sampling of rare or hazardous material (e.g. invasive species) that could deplete or endanger)
- ✗ Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS or the use of NHS data or premises and/or equipment? If this is the case, the project **must** be reviewed by the NHS
- ✗ Does the study involve participants aged 16 or over who are unable to give informed consent? (e.g. people with learning disabilities: see Mental Capacity Act 2005. All research that falls under the auspices of the Act **must** be reviewed by the NHS)
- ✗ Does the research involve other vulnerable groups: children, those with cognitive impairment or in unequal relationships? (e.g. your students). This **may** require NHS review, and will typically require the researcher to get **Disclosure & Barring Service (DBS) clearance** (formerly CRB checks)
- ✗ Will the study require the co-operation of a gatekeeper for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited? (e.g. students at school, members of self-help group or residents of nursing home?)
- X Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g. covert observation of people or use of social media content)
- ✗ Will the research involve any form of deception? (e.g. misinformation or partial information about the purpose or nature of the research)


- * Will the study discuss sensitive topics or require the collection of sensitive information? (e.g. terrorism and extremism; sexual activity, drug use or criminal activity; collection of security sensitive documents or information)
- * Are drugs, placebos or other substances (e.g. foods or vitamins) to be administered to study participants, or will the study involve invasive, intrusive or potentially harmful procedures of any kind? (If any substance is to be administered, this **may** fall under the auspices of the Medicines for Human Use (Clinical Trials) Regulations 2004, and require review by the NHS)
- * Will tissue samples (including blood) be obtained from participants? (This would fall under the terms of the Human Tissue Act 2004. All research that falls under the auspices of the Act **must** be reviewed by the NHS)
- * Is pain or more than mild discomfort likely to result from the study?
- * Could the study induce psychological stress or anxiety or cause harm or negative consequences beyond the risks encountered in normal life?
- * Will the study involve prolonged or repetitive testing?
- * Will the research involve administrative or secure data that requires permission from the appropriate authorities before use?
- * Is there a possibility that the safety of the researcher may be in question? (e.g. in international research: locally employed researchers)
- X Could the research impact negatively upon the reputation of the University, researcher(s), research participants, other stakeholders or any other party?
- X Does the research involve members of the public in a research capacity? (e.g. participant research; participants as co-producers or data collectors)
- * Will the research take place outside the UK where there may be issues of local practice and political or other sensitivities?
- * Will the research involve respondents to the Internet or other visual/vocal methods where respondents may be identified?
- * Will the research involve the sharing of data or confidential information beyond the initial consent given?
- * Will financial inducements (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to participants?
- * Do any of the research team have an actual or potential conflict of interest?
- * Are you aware of any other significant ethical risks or concerns associated with the research proposal? (If yes, please outline them in the space below)

Other significant ethical issues or concerns: (If None, then please state 'None')

None.

If any answer to the questions above is **YES**, then a **Full Ethical Review** is likely to be required.

If the project involves **none of the above**, complete the **Declaration**, send this form and a **copy of the proposal** to the **School of Management Research Support Officer** (Helen Snaith). Research may only commence once approval has been given.

Declaration: The project will be conducted in compliance with the University's Research Integrity Framework (P1415-956). This includes securing appropriate consent from participants, minimizing the potential for harm, and compliance with data-protection, safety & other legal obligations. Any significant change in the purpose, design or conduct of the research will be reported to the SOM-REC Chair, and, if appropriate, a new request for ethical approval will be made to the SOM-REC.	
Signature of PI or PGR Student	Ravindra Nyaupane
Signature of first supervisor (if appropriate)	Simon Brooks
Decision of SOM-REC	APPROVED
Signature of SOM-REC Chair or SOM-REC deputy Chair	
Date	07/03/2017
SOM-REC Reference number (office use only)	

Appendix 6: BITC email to research participants

From: [withhold]
Sent: 10 April 2017 12:07
To: [withhold]
Cc: [withhold]
Subject: Business Class research

Dear Business Class partner

We are delighted to announce that the Centre for Responsible Organisation and Social Innovation (CROSI) at Swansea University's School of Management is undertaking a qualitative research study on Business Class on our behalf. You have been selected to take part as a 'phase one' partnership, formed before September 2016. The research will take the form of a semi structured face to face interview and will be led by Associate Professor Doctor Simon Brooks, Director of CROSI, together with doctoral student Ravi Nyaupane, and supported by Dr Kate Organ.

Respondents are assured of confidentiality, will be given access to the findings of the report, and be able to withdraw at any time in keeping with accepted ethical practice.

The final research report will be provided to all stakeholders including Welsh Government and will support the case for continuation of the programme. Importantly it will also enable us all to tell the story of how the programme has impacted schools and businesses here in Wales. The team from the University will brief you fully beforehand and arrange a convenient time to come and see you.

All I need from you at this stage is e-mail confirmation that you are happy to take part and happy for me to pass your contact details on to Dr Simon Brooks.

Please don't hesitate to let me know if you have any questions, we are extremely grateful for your time and continued support.

Best wishes,

[withhold]

Sign up for Give & Gain Day 2017!

Be part of Wales' only national day of employee volunteering and help celebrate the positive difference it can make to communities and companies every day! [Visit our website](#) today and find out more about how you can get involved. You can follow everything to do with Give & Gain Day 2017 on our Facebook page or Twitter. Make sure to search for **#giveandgainwales**

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APPENDIX 7: Synthesis of primary and secondary data

The main data collection method was through the in-depth interviews. However, other types of data were also collected, such as through documentary sources, observations and multimedia. Synthesis of these data is summarised in the below table. The interviews were analysed in the same way as other data such as observations, documents and visual data (photos and video) by bringing them together in convergence fashion (Yin, 2009) to investigate phenomenon based on topical areas (Rubin and Rubin, 1995) as shown in the table below. Whilst some documents and other evidences which are closely related to BC have contents useful for the research, whereas others such as company-wide strategy of business has very little information. The organisation of this table generally follows the coding diagram (appendix 4) and topical areas corresponding to the key findings of my research.

Key Category of Findings	Topical areas (theme)	Interview data [Representative quotation/description and <i>who said it</i>]	Other sources of data (documents, visual evidences and observations) [Representative quotation/note and <i>where was it found/witnessed</i>]	Explanations
CONTEXT	Socio-economic deprivation	“run down area” <i>BIZ01</i> “[free] school meal from year 8” <i>SCH15</i>	Location of schools in deprived areas <i>various documents, observation at SCH34</i> “primary targets in each of our [partner] school are the “Free School Meal (FSM) pupils” <i>BIZ01 document</i>	Whilst interviewees will explain depth and effect of deprivation but other evidences are more fact based
	School performance	“had concerns with [school regulator]”	increase “the capacity of schools to deliver” CWW framework	Few businesses work directly on ‘school performance’

		<i>BIZ11</i>	<i>government tender document, BIZ24 strategy paper</i>	such as governance, however through other support eg. leadership training, this is achieved, so corroborated across data
	Lack of aspirations in pupils	“take to [a 5 star hotel]” to bolster confidence <i>BIZ01</i>	cluster event planned for “raising aspirations” <i>minute of the Cardiff cluster meeting</i>	This is a very evident matter in all data
	Curriculum	BC seen as something “extra to the curriculum” <i>CHA02</i> being able to share curriculum excellence among cluster member schools <i>SCH25, SCH19</i>	“support programme of activities which will help develop young people’s appreciation of the realities of the world of work” <i>government tender document, BIZ24 strategy paper, BIZ01 BC report</i>	Precise details of curriculum support is less evident in documents, yet multiple data do indicate the support school get in this domain through BC
CLUSTER	Collaborations	“you don’t want to reinvent the wheels” <i>BIZ08</i>	if any BC “partners are able to support” a school’s mock interview event, to inform them <i>minute of the Cardiff cluster meeting</i>	Collaborations in BC is evident across all data including observation
	Cluster and collaborative events	Design product for sustainable energy held in Senedd 2017 <i>BIZ10</i> Lego international build <i>SCH25</i>	Planned joint cluster event in Cardiff 2017 <i>minute of the Cardiff cluster meeting,</i> multiple schools, businesses and stakeholders gathered, discussed and gave feedback/suggestion on BC	

			<i>Observation of symposium in Cardiff 2017 (evidence no. 50)</i>	
ACTIVITIES	Partnering process	to find common ground between BC partners, it “takes quite a bit of perseverance” <i>BIZ22</i>	“[the partner] has surpassed all expectations” <i>One of the BIZ01’s partner school quoted in award application (document)</i>	In exception to very few who did not fare well (see section 7.2), the success of partnership is visible across all data including a video
	Cost issues	“my director signed off because it was cost neutral” <i>BIZ26</i>	“In previous years each Business Class partnership would have incurred £5000 administration costs...” <i>BIZ01 Business Class report 2016</i>	The cost issue being stark was heard/observed during interview such as at business 27 (fee associated with license), and also written in other reports
	Activity	“So the other one was employability workshops.. something to raise the aspirations.. went to Cardiff hotel conference [where business partner] did the training.. mock interviews, CV writing.. before 2015” <i>SCH10</i> “two sessions with the IT guys” <i>SCH29</i>	List of activities and events cross-checked with documents, observations and other evidences <i>BIZ25 calendar of events, BIZ01 Business Class 2016, Observation SCH034, Observation Cardiff symposium, Cardiff cluster meeting minute, BIZ01 award application, BIZ 08 partner school prospectus 2014-15 document, BIZ26 case study with partner (logo competition),</i>	Generally all interviews and other evidences have information about range of activities carried out by business-school partnerships, therefore corroboration was very useful

		“they’ve taken quite a enterprise focus” in partnership activities <i>BIZ05</i>	<i>SCH10 school newsletter 2014 winter</i>	
Outings (for pupils)	“When they take students to [premium resort in Wales], they should have boost in their confidence...” <i>BIZ01</i>	“providing young people with the opportunity to attend rugby matches...” <i>BIZ01 award application 2017 (document)</i> students at school 30 “will be visiting the [business 11] site to look at career options first hand” <i>Cardiff cluster meeting 2017 minute</i>	Associated with purpose of raising aspirations and building confidence (see also context); corporate report, minute, interviews, observations and photos corroborate this activity and its positive effect on pupils	
Mutuality	feels “more of a two-way street” for schools to reciprocate help to businesses <i>SCH21</i>	“highlighted the mutual benefits of Business Class” <i>CHA03 quoted in Cardiff cluster meeting</i>	Mutuality of help from schools to businesses is still nascent, yet are mentioned in interviews and documents	
External linkages	for an activity “schools to bring in their senior leaders and see how performance management works in an organisation like ours” <i>BIZ24</i>	the “programme aims to improve school performance through good governance” <i>BIZ24 on company-wide education and employability support strategy (document)</i> Four charities BIZ01 is connected with and many of these charity	External linkages occur where business/school are connected to more than their paired partner in BC such as the nation-wide project of a business (delivered in association with BC); businesses’ partnership with	

		<p>“We’ve also supported a project.. called [a charity].. which was all about the environment and sustainability.. [with it] we supported the school” <i>BIZ28</i></p>	<p>initiatives are delivered through their BC partnership with schools <i>2016 annual report of BIZ01, Business Class update 2016 (report) of BIZ01, BIZ01 award application 2017</i></p> <p>“[Other business] Apprentices to speak to pupils at their old school [SCH25]” <i>SCH25 calendar of events 2014-16</i></p>	<p>charities; schools getting support from more than their paired business or businesses having more than one school as BC partner corroborated across multiple evidences</p>
IMPACT	Value for pupils	<p>“When we use pupil outcomes to measure that and there is improvement” <i>SCH19</i></p>	<p>Investment of £27000 on financial skills project, sports kits (donation), community donation, special financial qualification, bursaries <i>BIZ01 Business Class report 2016</i></p> <p>We went to Senedd, that was really [good].. confidence building.. I had to speak to minister, I was nervous.. [but] confident [than] last year... I hope, my brother involves [in Business Class” <i>Testimony of a pupil from School 10 at Cardiff symposium event observed</i></p>	<p>Mainly corporate reports and other documents corroborate the interview findings about benefits to pupils as one of the key outcomes of BC</p>
	School staff development	<p>“it was a lovely training day” with the business partner <i>SCH10</i></p>	<p>A head of class was present at the SCH34 student Dragons’ Den event who, I believe learnt from it and also appreciated our inputs as judges</p>	<p>School staffs are pleased to be exposed to BC and their paired business supporting their training and also find</p>

			<i>Observation at SCH34 event</i>	new experiences corroborated
	Business benefits (reputation, staff development, recruitment)	<p>“trying to cleanse bank’s image after the credit crunch” <i>BIZ24</i></p> <p>“they [business staff] were amazed.. listening to the new ideas.. different perspective on life” <i>BIZ09</i></p> <p>“eye opening” [for business] to see misery in society <i>BIZ11</i></p>	<p>“Colleague engagement is at the heart of each of our Business Class partnerships” <i>BIZ01 responsible business award 2017 application (document)</i></p> <p>HR officer at business 28 states, “what better place to resource that talent from schools” <i>video related to business 28 produced by school 19 (evidence no. 25 in appendix 2)</i></p>	Multiple business benefits (eg. reputation, staff development) is very evident across documents and other sources corroborating findings from interviews
QUALITY OF VALUE	Partnership	“they [business partner] are really really good” <i>SCH25</i>	“we are proud of our partnerships” <i>BIZ01 award application (document)</i>	Fully corroborated with multiple data that business-school partnerships in BC are generally very strong
	Activities	“really successful day” <i>BIZ09</i>	Photos (alongside other related evidences) show the interviewing of the broadcaster activity to be successful <i>Photos supplied by BIZ01,</i>	Activities produce various value accrued by pupils (and other stakeholders) witnessed in documents and other evidences

			<i>Cardiff cluster meeting minute</i>	
	Cluster	<p>“cluster management was not really working properly” <i>SCH33 interview notes</i></p>	<p>“A very productive networking sessions followed with a number of discussions, meetings diarized, and a top up of refreshments” at the cluster meeting <i>Cardiff cluster minute meeting 2017</i></p>	<p>This value area (cluster) has both positive and negative comments and multiple evidences give aggregate picture of the issue</p>
	Business Class programme	<p>“I would give a lot of credit here to [BC managing charity]... having [BC delivery organisation] training [their] staff” “how Business Class and other employer led interaction can actually support development... for more holistic curriculum” “we start to develop more of a culture that recognises these other things [BC] that schools can deliver” <i>GOV18</i></p>	<p>“very proud of our own Business Class partnerships” <i>BIZ01 in their award application 2017 (quoting the then-CEO)</i></p>	<p>Whilst this was not a key discussion in interviews, it did help to get some feedback on the BC programme, as well as in documents and other sources</p>
	BC delivery organisation	<p>they help by doing the “leg work” <i>SCH19</i></p>	<p>“...with the expertise of [BC delivery organisation]...” <i>BIZ01 in their award application 2017 (quoting the then-CEO)</i></p>	<p>Similar as the last one, schools appreciate support from Career Wales (in interviews) and seen in</p>

			A manager at BC delivery organisation who was at the SCH34 student event, despite her busy schedule, run the event very well (and organized my observation/ seconded me for the judge role) <i>Observation of SCH34 Dragon's Den event</i>	documents and observation as well
IMPACT	What is measured	It [is] quite a difficult thing to measure because it is hard to measure attitude sometimes.." <i>SCH30</i>	Employability skills pupils rating based on 'not relevant', 'little improved', 'improved' and 'significantly improved' as a result of BC activity <i>BIZ01 survey results</i>	Documents and what has been said in the interview match the issue of impact measurement (eg. input vs. outcome malpractices)
	How is it measured (methodology)	Impact through aversion such as not fall into NEET (not in education, employment or training) <i>GOV18</i>	Survey by business, Award achievement, School teacher feedback on activity <i>BIZ01 supplied documents</i> Direct judgement from judges for Dragon's Den student event <i>(SCH34)</i> Student competition and individual success (celebrated) <i>BIZ26 Case study with partner school (evidence 15)</i>	Various documents, observation and interview corroborate multiple ways of measuring impact practiced among BC stakeholders

	How often is impact measured	Post-event questionnaire “longwinded” <i>SCH19</i>	Annual <i>Business Class update 2016 (annual report) by BIZ01</i> Periodic – reflections/evaluation during a cluster event which states: “CV writing sessions, mock interviews as well as utilising the school website to help raise the profile of the school, are just some of the exciting things the partners [business 11 and school 30] have been working on together” <i>Cardiff cluster meeting minute (document)</i>	Mainly documents and interviews match this area of frequency of outcome measurement
	Issues in impact measurement	“for us to find CEO is a holy grail and it might be 20 years, its almost impossible to track” <i>BIZ01</i>	Lack of customized feedback/rating system for diverse performance such as pupils with learning disability, presented in groups/individual, presented by male/female pupil <i>Observation at SCH34 for student Dragon’s Den event</i> “we work with 100 partner schools” – where business consider inputs to be impact <i>BIZ24 on responsible business report on education and employability</i>	Both the documents and other sources of data support the important issue of difficulty to measure impact, faced by schools, businesses and others

APPENDIX 8: Value creation in Business Class using Integrated Reporting – adapted from IIRC (2013) fig. 3.7

Capitals <i>(Inputs from)</i>	Inputs <i>(Background information)</i>	Business activity <i>(State of BC in Wales)</i>	Outputs/Outcomes <i>{Output (state or value); Outcome (value, quality of value/impact)}</i>	Capitals <i>(New or transformed capitals)</i>
Financial	Government funding (grant)	Organising of activities in schools provided by businesses using BC four pillar model, business staff involvement and	Outputs (services/product and opportunities created) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Enterprise, employability and confidence building opportunity for pupils; ▪ Support for school staff competency and managerial capabilities and likewise business staffs ▪ Learning and innovation at cluster and programme level 	Financial Not applicable (non-profit programme); Impact through aversion such as NEET, welfare related cost saving
Manufactured	Buildings, resources and road and public infrastructure BITC/CW/firm/school (combined/shared, less used)	often supported by CW; cluster events and sharing of best practices and collaborations, innovation	Outcomes (resultant outcomes) Broader	Manufactured Less applicable (no obvious transformation of manufactured goods/service)

<p>Intellectual</p>	<p>Business Class model (licensed), knowledge on labour market need, skills and activity, working process (training, operational capabilities)</p>	<p>through technology in cluster management</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Collaborative culture among businesses and schools, relationship enhanced (usefulness of cluster) ▪ Aversion of issues such as NEET ▪ Improvement for BC programme ▪ Stakeholder relationship (including business school partnership) <p><i>Schools</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Confidence, aspirations in pupils ▪ New skills and better grades (usefulness of activity) ▪ School staff development ▪ Empowerment and leadership development in school <p><i>Businesses</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reputation, talent pipeline, staff development and business networking ▪ Inspiration to help and relationship with deprived region; 	<p>Intellectual</p> <p>Increased ability of CW to deliver BC, market (school) knowledge and learning and support for improvement of programme</p>
<p>Human</p>	<p>Previous experience of BC from England and their ability to train CW, coordinate working nexus of all stakeholders, collaborate, staff time</p>			<p>Human</p> <p>Increased competency of staffs involved from CW, business and school; Creating and sharing best practices (at partnership, cluster and programme level)</p>
<p>Social and relationship</p>	<p>Strong relationship between businesses and schools, their</p>			<p>Social and relationship</p> <p>Enhanced relationship between all primary</p>

	<p>‘external connections’, cluster network and connections to wider society; Reputation of BC (buying in); Businesses operating in local areas</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Frustration of failed partnership (negative but negligible – one example) 	<p>stakeholders and wider support from broader stakeholders in government, business and society;</p> <p>Increased penetration of the BC as programme (brand) in Wales</p>
<p>Natural</p>	<p>Less natural resource intensive being a service model at programme level; stakeholders still using land, goods etc.</p>			<p>Natural</p> <p>Less affected</p>

External environment (*Wales-wide and specific to BC programme areas*)

Economic deprivation, remote geography (partly), poor educational attainment and continual and planned change in curriculum, rapid information and communication technology changes, societal issues (lack of aspirations in pupils, young people), skill deficit

Mission and vision

Business Class creates effective and mutually beneficial school-businesses partnerships in order to transform the life chances of young people and develop talented employees for the future.

By bringing business and schools together in a structured way, Business Class improves young people's understanding of the world of work and their awareness of career choices, and develops their employability skills.

Governance

Business Class is owned by BITC, delivered by Career Wales in schools supported by businesses collaboratively. It is funded by Welsh Government. The programme has shared and distributed governance among stakeholders at programme (leadership), cluster (meetings) and partnership (activity) levels.

Risks and opportunities

Financial: funding from Welsh Government renewed in 2018

Technological: the rural clusters are attempting to adopt webinar, web platforms for meeting and sharing (it has not been done before)

Managerial: recent exponential increase of partnerships in new schools (experience/capacity of school, limited staff capacity at CW) [possible mitigation: training provided]

Strategy and resource allocation

Skills, ability and smoother transition to work for pupils funded by Welsh Government (usually through business subscription but not currently in Wales), therefore this is contingency/risk

Increase the reach of BC to schools

Training CW for operations and delivery of the BC programme (contractual requirement from WG)

Challenges of UK wide standardization of BC and evolving programme in Welsh context and balancing it

Performance

Development of skills, confidence and grade in school pupils [high]

Business benefit of reputation, talent acquisition and development [medium to high]

School-business relationship strong, perhaps leading to sustainable partnership [high]

School-business partnership increased (steady increase overtime since 2013) [high]

Organisational network (cluster) able to provide platform for other projects [medium]

Enhancement of Business Class programme (learning, innovation etc.) [high]

Increased level of capitals mainly through experience, learning and innovation (intellectual, human and social and relationship) [medium to high]

Outlook

Changes through new school curriculum in Wales (positive) and funding for the programme (negative in absence of it), also changes in government's priority can have material impact on the relevance/sustainability of the BC programme

Similar programmes at local level (Cardiff) which currently are very limited can compete with BC

Mitigations

BITC seems equipped for the new curriculum that closely aligns to BC programme and continual improvement of it

Alternative funding perhaps through subscription from businesses yet is a real risk because of issues of 'cost' raised by businesses

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