

創価経営論集

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CSR、CSV、SDGsにみる人間主義経営の真像

山 中 馨

はじめに

本学部の教育理念である「人間主義経営」の考え方については、論文「人間主義経営論の試み」^[1]以来、種々考察を繰り返してきた。しかしこれまでの人間主義経営に関する本学部生の成果をみると、単にCS(Customer Satisfaction 顧客満足)やES(Employee Satisfaction 従業員満足)をもって人間主義経営とみなすような捉え方に留まっているのが現状である。さらに深刻であるのは、一部の学部教員が西洋ヒューマニズムと本学の人間主義の区別ができず、“西洋ヒューマニズム尊し”のような話を得々とする現状もある。そこで、再度、人間主義経営の考え方について明確化を行うことの必要性を強く感じ、ここに本論文をもって公に問うことにする。

本論文では、まずCSR(Corporate Social Responsibility 企業の社会的責任)や近年ビジネス界で注目されているCSV(Creating Shared Value 共通価値)の考え方^[2]およびその事例を材料として、創立者の人間主義に基づく経営のあり方を探ってみる。

次に、本年(2015年)9月の国連総会で採択された新たな国際目標としての「持続可能な開発目標(Sustainable Development Goals: SDGs)」について言及する。この新たな目標は、本年の「SGIの日記念提言」^[3]で創立者がオープン作業部会の目標案の段階で取り上げ賛同を表明したものであり、人間主義との関連を探ってみる。

1. 創立者の人間主義の特徴

まず、人間主義経営の基本理念となる創立者の人間主義思想について、その特徴を述べ、その本質を明確にしたい。ただし、人間主義の思想を定義するなどの作業については、創立者が「仏法にもとづくわれわれの主張は、この定型化ということには重きをおかない」と指摘されている^[4]。従って、本論文でも、この節で人間主義の特徴として述べる以外のものを排除するような考えはとらない。

池田思想を正面から論じてその思想の特徴を明確に挙げた論者は、ほとんどいない。その中で、松岡幹夫の「池田思想の5つの特徴」は貴重な存在である^[4]。その5つの特徴とは、(1)「人間

の全体性の復権を目指す」、(2)「自由自在の主体性を持って生きる」、(3)「すべてを生かす哲学」、(4)「人間の無限の可能性を信ずる」、(5)「智慧に生きる」である。松岡は、東洋哲学をはじめとする哲学全般に深い知見をもっており、これらの指摘は鋭く非常に示唆的である。

しかし、本論文では上記の指摘に刺激されながらも、池田人間主義思想の特徴として以下の3つに絞って論じたい。

- (1)「生命尊厳」の思想
- (2)「全体人間」を理想像とする人格の陶冶
- (3)「自他共の幸せ」を目指す実践哲学

この三大特徴は、国際学術組織 ABIS (the Academy of Business in Society) の日本会議でも論じたところであるが^[5]、本論文の基礎となる部分であるので、ここにもう一度概略を述べる。

(1)「生命尊厳」の思想

第1のこの特徴は、ABISの論文^[5]では「民衆尊極の思想」として述べたものである。「民衆尊極」の思想とは法華経の真髓である「凡夫即極」すなわち、「全ての民衆の心の中に仏性がある」とする捉え方に基づいている。どのような環境にある人間であろうとあらゆる人間は、仏という境涯へ向かう成長力、「無限の可能性」を秘めているという絶対的信念からくる思想である。

ところで、本論文では西洋ヒューマニズムと池田人間主義の相違を明確にするためにあえてこれを言い換えて「生命尊厳の思想」とした。西洋ヒューマニズムでは、人間の尊厳を、「理性を持つ動物であり、知恵と知識、そして教育により訓練可能」という点においている^[6]。これに対する西洋ヒューマニズムの欠陥としての創立者の指摘は鋭い。「人間の尊厳の根柢を合理的知性、哲学的思考に求める考え方は、知性を持たない他の生き物への蔑視を生み出し、さらには、同じ人間であっても、そうした思考の訓練を受けていない人々や、違った思考法をする人々に対して、蔑視するような風潮を強めてきたことは否定できません」。ここから蔡^[6]は次のように要約している。「仏法のヒューマニズムにおける根本理念は、生命次元の『平等観』である。いかなる生き物も、自らの生命を至上の宝としていとおしむ。「私は、人間を単なる社会的存在としてではなく、生命的存在と捉えるこの観点にこそ、重要な現実的意義があると思う」。この捉え方が創立者の思想の根幹を成すものである。池田・トインビー対談^[7]の結論は、創立者の次の言葉である。「私は、生命の尊厳に至上の価値をおくことを、普遍的な価値基準としなければならないと考えます」。

(2)「全体人間」を理想像とする人格の陶冶

「全体人間」についても理性に偏重した西洋哲学に対する言葉と捉えると分かりやすい。池田・トインビー対談^[7]には、次のような創立者の言葉がある。「人間の精神は意識だけで成り立っているものではなく、むしろ人間の意識は人間精神の一部にしかすぎません」。「知性、理性、感情

は、この生命自体の表面の部分であって、生命全体ではありません。知性や理性、感情は、この全体的生命を守り、そのより崇高な発現のために奉仕すべきものです。理性に偏重した西洋哲学では、ここに述べている感情の部分もないがしろにされてきた。「愛情」、「共感」、「信頼」、「連帯感」などの感情の働きの方が理性よりも我々の判断では大きな部分を占めており、これを重視する考え方が「神経経済学」などの学問分野でも近年注目されている⁹⁾。そして、池田人間主義では、そのような感情の部分はまだまだ生命の表層であり、その奥にある生命それ自体に重きを置く。

仏法の唯識学派の八識論では、ここで、挙げられた「知性、理性、感情」は、「意識」の中に分類される。「意識（第六識）」は、五識の情報を統合し、推量し判断する働きをするところであり、知、情、意を含んだ心のことを意味するとされている。これは、西洋の精神分析学、例えばフロイトの「個人無意識」とは異なる捉え方である。八識論では、さらにこの心の奥に末那識（第七識）、阿頼耶識（第八識）という深層心理を究め、天台はこれに加えて真理と一体の根本淨識として阿摩羅識（第九識）を立て、宇宙に遍在する法との合一を論じている。

「全体人間を目指す」とは、このような内面世界を覚知して、己の心を不断に陶冶して、精神的に豊かな人格となることである。

（3）「自他共の幸せ」を目指す実践哲学

仏法の「縁起」の思想に基づいて創立者は次のように述べている¹⁰⁾。「全てはつながっている。この世に単独で存在しているものなど、何一つとしてない。いかなる生物も自分一個で生存を全うすることは出来ない。社会全体を良くしなければ、自己の繁栄、幸福は確保できない。同時に、どのような社会、企業、国家であっても、個人を犠牲にした繁栄は真の繁栄ではない。『他人だけの不幸』がありえないように、『自分だけの幸福』もありえない。日蓮大聖人は、これを次のような譬えで簡潔にわれわれに教えている。「人のために火をともしれば、我が前明らかなり」。

この思想の背景には、ABISの論文¹¹⁾で指摘しておいたように「多様性の礼賛」がある。現代の日本社会にとっては、女性の社会進出の課題や外国人の受入れの政策課題など、いままで日本人が対応しきれていない多様性に対する多くの問題群がある。このような意味で、池田人間主義の第3の特徴は、今後の日本社会における「共生」の文化構築の指導原理となりうる。

さらに、「共生」とは地球上に生活する生命すべての生き様を表現する言葉である。池田人間主義が「世界平和」実現への志向性をその中心に据えているのは、人間一人一人の観点から「自他共の幸せ」追求の思想があるからである。従って、池田人間主義では、「世界平和」とは決して抽象的な概念ではなく、一人の人間の幸せを根底においた具体的な概念である。

池田人間主義に内在する平和主義の意味について蔡¹²⁾は次のように述べている。「一般に『平和』の反対語が『戦争』であると考えられているが、池田氏は、それは誤りであり、あらゆる『暴力』とすべきだとしている」。創立者は、平和について次のように述べている。「戦争を含む貧困、飢

餓、環境破壊、人権抑圧などの暴力—平和というものは、そうした様々な層の暴力と戦い、根絶していく中に実現されるのであります」。本論文で用いる「世界平和」も以上の意味で用いている。

2. 池田人間主義の社会への適用

上でも述べたように、池田人間主義の最大の特徴は、どのような側面を捉えてみても、そこには必ず社会変革への志向があるという点である。池田人間主義哲学を社会に適用するにあたっての基本的な考え方は、小説「人間革命」の冒頭に出てくる次の言葉である。「一人の人間における偉大な人間革命は、やがて一国の宿命転換をも成し遂げ、さらに全人類の宿命の転換をも可能にする」。すなわち社会の思想・文化やそのあり様と一個の人間の精神は別個のものではなく、密接に関係をしている。それどころか社会の変革は、一人の人間の心の変革からはじまることを訴えている。この観点は池田人間主義の他に類のない特徴であり、われわれがビジネス界へ人間主義を適用するときに必ず基づかなければならない基本的な考え方である。

上で挙げた池田人間主義が社会で適用される場合はどのような形になるかの例をこの節では考えてみたい。「はじめに」で述べたように本学部の学生、教員であっても、人間主義経営の具体的な形を把握するのが困難である状況があるために、ここでは敢えて例示として示してみようと思う。このような例を提示すると、人間主義思想を凡庸なものとして貶めてしまう危惧があるが、この節では、その危険性を冒しても敢えて示すものである。ただし、再度述べるが、ここに挙げるものは例であって、これ以外を排除するものではない。

(1) 「生命の尊厳」の適用例

生命そのものの存在を“尊し”と捉え、人間の可能性を活かすようなビジネスモデルはどのようなものであろうか。次のような行政又は企業による施策は、この思想を活かした例とみることができる。

- ① 生命の維持を支援する目的的政策やビジネス。例えば、貧困撲滅、食料や水資源の安定供給を目的にしたビジネス、乳幼児の栄養改善などによる死亡率の低下を目指すビジネスなど。
- ② 人間の可能性の開発を支援する政策やビジネス。例えば、学校教育の支援や職業能力開発を目的にするビジネス。経済的支援に加えて精神的な自立も支援する生活改善を目指すビジネスなど。

(2) 「全体人間」の適用例

前述したように、近年、経済学等の学術的分野、またビジネス界や政界の実務的分野においても「共感」「信頼」「絆」などの感覚的な側面を重視するべきであるとする論調が高まってきている¹⁸¹¹¹¹。一人ひとりの人間を大切にするとともに、それを社会変革にまで結び付ける目的のビジ

ネスとしての例を以下に示す。

- ① 共通の動機から発した組織の枠を超える協働の政策やビジネス。例えば、国家、企業、NPOなど多様な組織の多様な構成員（国籍、人種、性別などの多様性をもつ）が一つの社会的価値創造の目的を共にするビジネス。
- ② 信頼、共感、心の絆に基づいた政策やビジネス。例えば、一人暮らし高齢者、登校拒否生徒、障がい者など社会的弱者の生活支援や心の拠り所をつくり、その自立を支援するビジネス。

（3）「自他共の幸せ」の適用例

前節で述べたように、池田人間主義の究極の実践目標は「世界平和」の実現である。「世界平和」とは、「戦争を含む貧困、飢餓、環境破壊、人権抑圧などの暴力」と戦い、それらを根絶する中で実現するものであるとするならば、「世界平和」の実現と「自他共の幸せ」の実現は同義であると解釈できる。したがってこの思想に基づいたビジネスモデルとは、次のようなものであろう。

- ① 人権抑圧、経済的格差・男女間格差などの格差社会や環境破壊、気候変動による自然災害などの地球的課題の解決を目指す政策やビジネス。
- ② 戦争の防止や停止を目的とする政策やビジネス。

この節で示した施策は、「政策やビジネス」と記しているが、池田人間主義は世界平和の実現を目指すものであり、それらは一国家、一企業では実現が難しいものを多く含んでいるためである。これには、多様な組織の協働が不可欠である。

従って、一経営者や組織部署内での長、すなわちトップまたはミドルリーダーが組織の中で個人的に池田人間主義を体現している事例もあるとは思われるが、この論文ではそのようなケースは対象外として取り扱わない。

3. 池田人間主義からみた CSR、CSV の評価

本論文での評価の方法では、以前行ったような評価基準をつくって社会的企業を数値的に評価したような方法^[12]は取らない。第2節で述べた池田人間主義の3つの観点からそれぞれの事例を検討することにする。

なお、本論文ではCSRとCSVを列記しているが、この二つを同一視しているわけではない。まず、これら二つの取り組みについての本論文の解釈を述べる。

（1）CSRとCSVの相違

CSVについては、マイケル ポーター他^[13]は次のように述べている。「共通価値という概念は、経済的価値を創造しながら、社会的ニーズに対応することで社会的価値も創造するというアプローチである」。一方、CSRの考え方の重要性については山中^[10]で論じたところである。

ところで、CSVの推進論者の中にはCSRに批判的な見方が多い。前掲のポーターの論文では、「ほとんどの企業は今なおCSRという考え方にとらわれている。つまり企業にとって、社会問題は中心課題ではなく、その他の課題なのである」との批判がある。またCSVの原点とされるネスレのPeter Brabeck-Letmathe会長は、次のように語っている^[13]。「CSRのコンセプトをじっくり考え始めたのですが違和感がありました。CSRは慈善的な考えがベースにあります。上場企業として、この概念が取り入れるべき最善のものかどうかを考えました。もし、企業が長期的に責任を持って事業に取り組めば、株主への価値と同様に社会にとっての価値を創造していることになる。そのためCSRの『社会に慈善的に還元する』という考えは合わないと感じました」。

しかし、CSRの本来の考え方は山中^[10]で述べたように「企業の活動の中核に据えるもの」であり、「philanthropyとかメセナ(mécénat)と呼ばれるもの」ではない。つまり、上記の2識者の見解とは相違がある。本論文では、池田人間主義からみたCSR、CSVを評価するのが目的であるので、CSRに関してはメセナなどの慈善事業と同一視するような観点ではなく、山中^[10]に述べた捉え方を採用する。

ただし、CSVとCSRの相違として本論文で重要視するのは、CSVは「社会的価値を創造するために新しい市場を開拓する」という経営戦略である点である。これによりCSVを実行する場合には一企業の枠を越えて多様な組織との協働が不可欠になる。そこには、「社会的価値の創造という大義を掲げた連帯の共感」が存在するであろうと解釈する。

なお、本論文ではCSVの用語を使用しているが、CSVとしての上述のようなビジネス形態は、ポーター^[2]から始まったわけではない。CSV(共通価値)という表現はポーターが学問展開したとしても、CSVとして捉えられるビジネス形態は、後の節で述べるように以前から行われていたものであるというのが、本論文の認識である。

(2) フェアトレードの評価

CSRの中でもフェアトレードのビジネスモデルは、歴史も古くまたその目的も崇高なものである。社会的企業を評価した論文^[12]では、「マックスハベラー」「アルタエコ」「トランスフェア」などのフェアトレードの事例を取り上げ、高評価を与えた。

しかし、CSVを提唱するマイケルポーターはフェアトレードに対しても厳しい評価を下している^[2]。「フェアトレードの目的は、同じ作物に高い価格を支払うことで、貧しい農民の手取りを増やすことである。気高い動機ではあるが、創造された価値全体を拡大するものではなく、主に再配分するためのものである」。新しい市場の創出がないために、利潤の枠が広がらないという指摘である。実際ポーターは「フェアトレードで農民の所得は10～20%増加するが、共通価値への投資では300%超増加する可能性があった」と述べている。

以上のような批判はあるものの、本論文ではその事業の目的とその達成結果に焦点をあてる。例えば「マックスハベラー」では「生産者とその家族500万人の生活改善をしてきた」と報告し

ている¹²¹⁾。これらのフェアトレードのビジネスは、そもそも発展途上国の小規模生産者の支援を目的として事業を興したものであり、池田人間主義の特徴（1）の適用で述べた、貧困で喘ぐ人々の生命維持、生活水準向上を目指す「貧困撲滅」の一端を担うビジネス活動の具体例として評価すべきものであると考える。

（3）ネスレ、ユニリーバ、GEのリーダー達の意識評価

マイケル ポーターの提唱するCSVでは、「社会的価値の創造」を謳っているが、これには多少の疑問が生ずる。この場合、経営戦略としてそれぞれの企業がその得意分野の方法を用いて「社会的価値の創造」に挑むことになるのであるが、「社会的価値」の価値判断はどこに置くのだろうか。まずは、その企業の経営理念を基に行うことになるのであろうが、他企業や行政と利害がぶつかる状況ではどうするのであろうか。ポーターは、これらのことについては触れていない。これは、ポーターの立場では、あくまでも経営戦略として位置づけたCSVであるから、当然といえば当然である。しかし、人間主義経営の観点では、「社会的価値」の価値判断をどこに置くかという問題の方が主たる関心事である。以下に、世界的な経営者のCSVの事例を掲げて、この点を探ってみる。

① ネスレの会長は前掲の文献¹²²⁾で次のように述べている。「ネスレではCSVの優先課題として三つの分野を設定しました。栄養、農業・地域開発、そして水資源です」。水資源については、日本では豊富なために実感がないが世界的にみれば希少資源である。「水の問題は政府や国際機関、企業、NGOなど、単独では解決できない大きな問題です。手を取り合って一緒に取り組み、初めて解決できます」と協働の必要性を説いている。

また、栄養分野の取り組みについては次のように語っている。「ネスレは、発展途上国の方々向けに微量栄養素を強化した、手ごろな価格の製品を展開しています。2012年で1500億サービング以上販売しています」、「社会的な貢献という点から見ると、ビタミンA欠乏は何億人の子どもの健康を害しています。ビタミンAを添加することで、多くの人にそして社会に大きな恩恵をもたらすことができます」。

また、上記以外の取り組みとして若者の失業率の問題にも目を向けている。「ヨーロッパでは若者の失業率が大きな問題になっています。ネスレでは先日、今後3年間で30歳以下の若者を少なくとも2万人のキャリアサポートするイニシアチブを発表しました」。

以上のようにネスレ会長の視野は広く、世界的な課題に及んでいる。「栄養の改善」や「キャリアサポートなどの能力開発」は、池田人間主義思想の特徴（1）で述べた「人間の可能性を開発し、自立を支援する」事例と良く合っており、人間主義経営の具現化とみなすことができよう。

但し、あくまでもCSVとしての取り組みであり、前述の文献¹²³⁾では、質疑応答で次のようなやり取りをしている。「CSV活動を行うのは世界を代表するグローバル企業としての誇

り、責任からだと思っていましたが、そうでもないようです」との問いに対し、会長は「そんなふうに考えたことは一度もありません。CSVは事業戦略の基本原則なのです。慈善事業ではありませんし、コストでもありません」。CSVの論者は、このようにCSVとしての社会的価値の創造は、企業戦略であることを強調する。この点は池田人間主義思想と全く異なるところである。創立者の大学講演「平和とビジネス」^[14]では、社会的価値の創造に資するビジネス活動の基本的理念として「ビジネスの世界にあっても、一企業、一国のみの『部分益』に執着せず、地球人類という『全体益』に立脚」するべきであると明言している。

- ② ユニリーバのCEOであるPaul Polmanは長期戦略に重きを置き四半期報告を廃止するなど、革新的な経営者として知られている。彼の問題意識は次のようなものである^[15]。「人口増加が西側から東側に移っているとか、世界中の資源に対する需要が急増しているとか、この世界の大きな潮流について考えました。そして『社会や環境から奪うのではなく、貢献するようなビジネスモデルをつくれぬものだろうか』ということになったのです。「満足に食事も取れない人がまだ10億人もいます。6秒に一人の割合で子どもが餓死しています」。「昨年(2011年)は、旱魃や洪水、津波、地震の影響により、ユニリーバだけでも優に2億ユーロを越す損失がありました。そのほか、一部の人達を置き去りにした、不公正で持続不能な成長が招いた政治的危機もあります。何の策も講じなければ、消費財産業の全利益が30年で帳消しになってしまう、との予測もあります。責任ある企業はこのことを考えます」。

そこでポールマンのたてたビジネスは、「総合的な環境負荷を削減し、持続可能な形で農業資源を調達し、10億人が十分な栄養を摂取して健康で安心な生活を実現できるようにしよう」というものである。具体的には、「リプトン-ブランドで、持続可能な茶葉の調達を実行」し、その重要性を述べている。「20億人が紅茶を飲んでいるのですから、持続可能な形で調達されたものを買って求めることで、あなたも良いことを実行する一員になれる」。

この他にも、マイケルポーターがユニリーバの次のような活動をCSVの一例として紹介している^[16]。「ヒンドゥスタン・ユニリーバは、インドの人口2000人足らずの集落に訪問販売システムを導入した」。「これまで、4万5000人以上の女性起業家たちが、15の州で約10万の村々をカバーしてきた」。「これは、世帯所得を倍増させるスキルを女性たちにもたらただけでなく、衛生製品を普及させ、感染症の拡大を抑止している」。

ポールマンCEOのビジネスの発想は、農業や衛生の側面から地球環境の持続可能な解決策を具体化するものであり、経済的価値創造と社会的価値創造が一体化して見事である。このことは彼の次の言葉でも伺い知ることができる^[17]。「世界の人口の15%が資源の50%を使うという構造は持続不可能です。解決策の発見に参加しようとする企業は、社会から孤立するリスクを抱えています」。企業のあり方に対するこのような姿勢は、池田人間主義思想がSGI提言等で常に訴える特徴(3)「持続可能な開発」「自他共の幸せ」を体現するものとして評価できよう。また「栄養改善」や「女性の能力開発」などを目標としてい

る点は、人間主義思想の特徴(1)「生命の維持活動」「人間の可能性の開発」にも合致する行為である。

③ Jeffrey R. Immelt CEOは前任のJack Welchとは全く異なる方向へGEをリードしている。イメルトの理想とするGEは次のようなものである^[16]。「多角的コングロマリットを目指すのではなく、もっと世界が直面する困難な課題の解決に貢献する企業でありたい。そのためには世界中の人々の生活の基盤となるインフラストラクチャーにフォーカスし、ソリューションを提供する会社であるべきだ」。このためイメルトは地球環境問題を解決するという大義を掲げた。具体的には、2005年に“エコマジネーション(ecomagination)”と呼ぶ施策を開始した。これは、“エコロジー” “エコノミー”そして“イマジネーション”を融合した造語である。イメルトはこのために利益率も好調だったGEプラスチックやNBCユニバーサルを売却した。次のような論評がある^[17]。「フィナンシャル・タイムズは“GE gambling on green”というタイトルで、イメルトは歴史的な賭けをしようとしているとの記事を掲載している。多くのアナリストからも“GEの事業を傷つけ経済的にマイナスの影響を与えるだろう”と警告する声が優勢であった」。しかし、マイケル ポーターはCSVの好例として次のように述べている^[18]。「GEでは、“エコマジネーション”関連の売り上げが、2009年では180億ドルに達した。これは『フォーチュン150』の一家の売り上げ規模に匹敵する。同社では、今後5年間、エコマジネーション関連の売り上げは総売り上げの2倍のペースで拡大していくと予測する」。その後、2012年には関連売上高は、250億ドルに達している^[18]。

GEにはこの他に“ヘルシーマジネーション(healthymagination)”と呼ぶ新しい取り組みがある。例えば、GEとインドネシア国家との共同施策が報告されている^[16]。「インドネシアの離島では、出産と同時に母親がなくなったり、生まれた赤ちゃんがそのままなくなったりすることが多く、問題視されていました」。「インドネシア国家としてもそれを解決したい思いがあり、我々と議論を交わしました」。「そこで、GEの手のひらサイズの超音波診断装置を助産師さんに持ってもらい、出産が安全か危険かという判断をしてもらおう。異常があったら、出産を強行せず病院へ行ってもらおう。ここで必要な超音波診断装置は、安全か危険かを判断できる必要最低限の装置であれば良いということです」。「手のひらサイズの超音波診断装置は、日本が最大の市場になっています。日本は超高齢化社会が最大の課題です」。ヘルシーマジネーションは現在10億人以上の生活に関与している^[18]。

GEでのジェフ・イメルトの方向転換は、世界中の人々の生活の基盤となるインフラストラクチャーのソリューションに特化しようとするものであり、その特徴は事業を長期的な視野で捉えるところにある。これはユニリーバCEOのポールマンにも言えることであるが、イメルトの場合も短期的な利益を追っていない。その考え方は次のように説明されている^[16]。「(GEの行動指針であるGE Beliefsの最初の項目であるCustomers Determine Our Successは、)お客様が困っている問題を解決することによってお客様が成長し、我々の成長につな

がるという考え方です」。

池田人間主義の「自他共の幸せ」の思想は、「自他共」とはいえ、先ず「利他」である。池田・トインビー対談¹⁷⁾では次のように語られている。「大乘仏教では、宇宙や他の一切の生命と自我との調和・融合を説き、そこに、人生における理想的な幸福があると説いたのです。このための実践が慈悲による“利他”にあるとして、欲望はこの高い理念の実践によって、自然に超克されるものとしたわけです」。この意味で、前述の「お客様が困っている問題を解決」し、その後「我々の成長につながる」という捉え方は、単なる顧客満足のレベルではなく、“利他”を最優先し、その結果が“自利”となるという経営戦略であり「自他共の幸せ」の思想に一脈つながる。以上のような観点から見ればGEのエコマジネーションやヘルシーマジネーションへの転換は、人間主義思想の特徴（1）で述べた「生命の尊厳」また特徴（3）「自他共の幸せ」を求める事例として特に優れた取り組みであると評価することができる。

（4）日本企業のCSVに対する評価

- ① ここで述べるヤマハ発動機の事例は、1960年代から始まった事業であり、前述したようにCSVのビジネス形態がポーター¹⁸⁾から始まったわけではないとする本論文の認識の一つの証左である。

Economic Newsには次のように報告されている¹⁹⁾。1960年代後半「ヤマハはモリタニアの漁民に向けて簡便で過酷な使用条件に耐えうる耐久性の高い船外機を開発、提供を開始した。「豊富な漁業資源を前にしてもその活かし方を知らない現地にJICA漁業指導員と共に、漁の仕方から保存・輸送方法などを伝授するところから取り組んだ」。さらに「ボートは日本から運ぶにはコストがかかるため、ヤマハの技術支援によるボート工場をモリタニア、ナイジェリア、モザンビークで立ち上げ、地元の雇用を生み、今までは手漕ぎボートや帆船で漁業を行っていた地域も、船外機付きのボートを利用することで生産性が高まり、結果的に船外機の顧客を育成するという好循環を生み出している」²⁰⁾。これについては社会経済的収束能力を高めた事例として次のように評価されている²¹⁾。ヤマハは、「さまざまな非営利組織と関係性を築きながら漁業振興に努めた。その結果、同地域に漁業という産業をゼロから立ち上げることに成功した。「船外機をメンテナンスする現地個人事業主の能力開発を肅々と進め、購入時のファイナンス・スキームにおいても現地公的セクターとの協力を選択した。その結果、その国の人々の生活水準の改善に大きく寄与すると同時に、船外機市場において9割を超える安定的シェアを占めるに至っている」。

CSVからみれば、このヤマハ発動機の事業は、新しい市場を多様な組織と協働して作り上げた典型的な共通価値創造の事例である。船外機市場において9割を超えるシェアを占めた事実はCSVがこれからの経営戦略として間違っていないことの証拠として重要である。一方、池田人間主義の観点からは、市場の創造よりも、むしろ特徴（1）にあるように、地

元民の「能力開発」を促し「自立」した漁業の事業主への道を開いた点や生産から流通までの自立した現地バリューチェーンを構築し雇用を創造した点を評価したい。

- ② ここで述べる住友化学のオリセットネットについては、BOP ビジネスの典型例として、様々なところで取り上げられている事業である。これは、マラリアを媒介する蚊から身を守るための防虫蚊帳を独自技術により開発し、アフリカを中心に供給する事業で2001年に世界保健機構（WHO）から蚊帳の長期的防虫効果が認められ使用が推奨されたものである^[22]。

住友化学は、タンザニアのメーカー A to Z 社に技術を無償供与し、約7,000名の現地雇用を創出した。更に、グループ会社とのジョイントベンチャーでオリセットネット生産会社を設立している。原材料の供給は Exxon Mobile、ローンの付与はアキュメン財団、ブランドキャンペーンは現地 NGO の PSI、製品はユニセフが全量購買という多様な組織によるビジネス展開である。

2000～2010年までで 累計74万人の子供の命が助かったとワールド・マラリア・レポートにある。また、売上げの一部を使って、特定非営利活動法人等と連携し、タンザニア、ケニア、ガーナなどを含む10ヶ国（2014年3月現在）で小学校を建設するなど、16の教育支援プロジェクトを実施している。

住友化学では、マラリアの撲滅は貧困対策であるとして「マラリアによるアフリカの経済損失は年間推定120億ドル、約1.2兆円であり、アフリカの経済発展のためには、マラリアの撲滅が必要不可欠」としている。

この事業もポーターの論文よりは随分以前に立ち上げたものであり、住友化学ではこれを CSR としてアピールしているが、新規市場の開拓や多様な組織との協働などの点については、ポーターの提唱する CSV の形態によく当てはまる。

この事業は、1973年に薬剤をポリエチレン樹脂に練りこむ研究を開始した一研究員（伊藤高明）の研究成果に負っている。その成果を生かせる場を模索していたときに、1998年の WHO のロールバックマラリアキャンペーン、2002年 G 8 での「世界エイズ・結核・マラリア対策基金」設立の好機を得たものである。従ってビジネス動機が社会的価値の創造から経済的価値を創造するという CSV の基本プロセスではなく、そこに CSV としては認められない部分があるかもしれない。しかし、人間主義経営の立場からみれば、貧困対策を前面に打ち出し教育支援を行うなど、池田人間主義思想の特徴（1）「生命の尊厳」「人間の可能性の開発」と共鳴するところがあり評価すべきである。

- ③ 味の素は、ガーナにおける栄養改善を目指して現地機関や国際 NGO などの複数の組織とガーナプロジェクトと呼ばれる協働の事業を行っている。ガーナプロジェクトは、2009年に味の素の100周年記念事業の1つとしてスタートしたものであり、味の素、INF(International Nutrition Foundation)、ガーナ大学の3者の共同で立ち上げたプロジェクトである^[23]。2011年には、プロジェクトの社会性が評価され、ガーナ政府公認の活動とし

て承認されている。

ガーナは政治的に安定している反面、長期間の失業やインフラの未整備など、職業別および地域別の貧困格差が拡大している国である。味の素が栄養改善の対象として着目した商品は、ガーナで伝統的な離乳食として普及していた KOKO と呼ばれるお粥である。KOKO はたんぱく質やビタミン、ミネラルなどの微量栄養素が不足しているため、離乳期の子どもの成長を遅延させる1つの要因となっていた。そこで家庭での KOKO の調理時に添加する栄養サプリメントを開発し、これを KOKO Plus と名づけた。KOKO Plus の開発において、2010年に味の素はオランダのライフ・サイエンス企業である DSM と協働の契約を行った。DSM 社はビタミンの世界トップメーカーであり、かつ BOP 市場における専門知識、経験およびリソースを保有していた。

この商品を普及させるもう1つの課題は、KOKO Plus を添加すれば栄養が充足され、かつ、おいしい離乳食ができるということ、どのように消費者に伝えるかということであった。そのため、栄養学的な啓発活動が必要とされた。味の素は、ガーナ保健省に属する社会セクター GHS(Ghana Health Service) を選び、栄養教育などで協働することとなった。この栄養教育では、子どもの定期健診のために毎月、GHS が開設しているクリニックにやってくる母親に対して、啓発活動を展開している。

前述の住友化学と A to Z 社の関係と同様であるが、味の素は生産のパートナーとしてイエデン (Yedent Agro Processing Venture Ltd.) を選定し、ガーナ大学を通してイエデンに資金を投入した。イエデンに生産設備と品質管理の考えも導入し、現地生産の準備を進め、2012年に KOKO Plus の生産が開始、販売されることになった。

この事業は、味の素が後発ではあるが BOP 市場への参入を意図して取り組んだ事業である。自社のアミノ酸技術によって、子どもの成長促進、免疫指標の改善などの社会的課題の解決という大義を掲げて行った CSV といえる。前述の住友化学の例と異なり事業立ち上げの目的が社会的価値の創造である。その意味で、CSV の基本プロセスと一致し、またビジネスが社会課題の解決に貢献すべきとする池田人間主義の主張と響きあう。また、味の素はプロジェクトの立ち上げ時点では、どのような商品に自社の技術を応用すべきか明確でなかったようである^[23]。この問題を解決したのがガーナ大学であり、この事業では、ガーナ大学の他にも GHS との栄養に関する教育啓蒙など、多様な協働の絆を強く認識することができる。以上のような状況からこのガーナプロジェクトについては、池田人間主義の特徴(2)に掲げた「共感」「信頼」など多様な組織の多様な人間による「絆」を具現化した事業であろうと考えられる。

- ④ 「プロジェクト G(government)」とは、ヤマトホールディングスがビジネスで取り組む地域活性化支援事業である^[24]。この事業は、「豊かな社会の実現を目指して、地域の社会や経済に貢献」することを目的として行われている。名称に G とあるのは、「地域活性化のために

新しいインフラを行政 (government) と一緒につくっていけないだろうか」との考えを表わしている。その一例を高知県大豊町にみてる^[25]。

高知県大豊町は、高知県北部の山間にある過疎と高齢化が進む町で、65歳以上の住民が人口の51%を占める。面積は東京23区の半分ほど、9割が山地で平地は1割という、「限界自治体」のひとつである。この町の住民の有様は、文献^[25]では概略次のように記述されている。「この町では、買い物困難者が急増している。タクシーで片道3,000円以上かけて出かけ、まとめ買いをすることも少なくない。山間部のため、タクシーで横づけできない場所もあり、重いお米を持って自宅まで運ぶのは、高齢者にとって大変な重労働である。また、商業店舗も高齢化で廃業も増えている。移動販売車が来る地域もあるが、移動販売車は冬季の降雪時には来られない。移動販売車も、行商者自体の高齢化によって、事業継続に不安を抱えている」。

このような町に、ヤマト運輸は、ヤマトのプラットフォームを提供して、利用者・商店・行政がそれぞれのメリットに応じて費用を分担する高齢者の買い物支援と見守りサービスを行うモデルを構築した。まず、高齢者を中心とするお客は、電話又はファックスで商品をお店に注文する。お店は注文を受けて品物を選び分け、配送をヤマト運輸に依頼する。ヤマト運輸は、注文宅に品物を配送し、商品代金と宅配料金のうちのユーザー負担金を集金する。そして、配達時に健康状態などに不安を発見すれば、役場又は消防署に連絡するという仕組みである。

この事業では、高知県と大豊町からは、件数に応じてお店に補助金が支払われる。ただし、多額のお金が行政から出ているわけではなく、行政からの支援で成り立つサービスではないということである。「安価な設定でヤマト運輸が事業として成り立っているのは、同一の配送センターで完結する域内流通だからである」。「この場合、荷分けや荷造りの手間がほとんどかからない」^[25]。お年寄りの見守り支援という行政サービスをヤマト運輸が担っているのが、このビジネスモデルのポイントである。セールスドライバーがヒアリングシートを活用して高齢者の体調を把握している。「この仕組みがうまく機能しているのは、セールスドライバー12人中10人が大豊町や近隣で生まれ育った地元出身者であるからである」と文献^[25]では、住民とセールスドライバーの精神的な繋がりに言及している。

ヤマトホールディングスのこのような自治体との連携案件数は2014年3月現在、554件、協定締結数109となっている^[24]。この事業は、単に限界自治体の行政と企業の協働事業と捉えてはならない。日本はこれから超高齢化社会に突入する。大豊町の状況が日本全体に広がることは容易に想像がつく。さらに世界全体が高齢化社会に向かっていることも事実である。ここで述べたビジネスモデルは、このような将来の世界的な高齢化社会における先駆けであると認識した方がよい。

以上のようにこのプロジェクトGは、地球的課題の解決という池田人間主義の主張を具体化した一つのモデルということができる。また、このモデルは人の「絆」をその基礎にお

いているところが優れた点である。その意味でも池田人間主義の特徴に掲げた(1)「生命の維持」や(2)「信頼」「共感」などの「全体人間」を具現化した事業として評価できる。

4. 池田人間主義とSDGs（持続可能な開発目標）

本年（2015年）9月の国連総会でミレニアム開発目標（MDGs）に代わる今後の国際社会の目標として「持続可能な開発目標（SDGs）」が採択された。これまで創立者は、「SGIの日記念提言」でMDGsの達成に向けて様々に取り上げ提言を行ってきたが^[26]、SDGsについては本論文の「はじめに」でも述べたように目標案の段階でその取り組みに賛同を示している^[3]。MDGsからSDGsへの過程で、全世界の約720万人がその意見をアジェンダ策定に反映させることを目的としてネットや紙で国連開発計画（UNDP）の調査に加わったと報告されている^[27]。SDGsは、議論の途中で「設定目標が多すぎる」などの批判もあったようであるが、最終的に17の目標と169の達成基準で構成されたものとなった。

主な目標としては、目標1「あらゆる場所であらゆる形態の貧困に終止符を打つ」、目標2「飢餓に終止符を打ち、食料の安定確保と栄養状態の改善を達成するとともに、持続可能な農業を推進する」、目標4「すべての人に包摂的かつ公平で質の高い教育を提供し、生涯学習の機会を促進する」、目標6「すべての人に水と衛生へのアクセスと持続可能な管理を確保する」、目標7「すべての人に手ごろで信頼でき、持続可能かつ近代的なエネルギーへのアクセスを確保する」、目標10「国内および国家間の格差を是正する」、目標17「持続可能な開発に向けて実施手段を強化し、グローバル・パートナーシップを活性化する」などである^[27]。

このSDGsは、MDGsを引き継ぐとともに地球環境保全に関する国際会議リオ+20の流れも包含している^[28]。従って17の目標には、「経済的」、「社会的」、「環境的」側面というトリプル・ボトムライン^[10]における課題が組み込まれている。

MDGsとSDGsの重要な相違点として、次の二つの点があげられている。一つは「連携」が強く意識されていることである^[29]。上の三つの側面での持続性はこれまで独立して捉えられてきたが、SDGsでは、その相互連関に焦点が当てられている。あらゆる地球規模課題を広範囲にカバーしている理由は、「開発上の課題が他分野の課題とも分かちがたく結び付いているという意識が浸透した」結果である^[28]。もう一つの点は対象地域の広がりである。MDGsは主に開発途上国を対象とした目標であったが、SDGsではこれまで先進国の問題として捉えられていた課題も対象にしている。つまり、人類全体の課題を扱う取り組みであることがSDGsの重要度を高めている。

池田人間主義の立場からSDGsの内容をみてもMDGsからSDGsへの移行で、世界の意識は、ますます池田人間主義の主張に近づいてきていると判断することができる。まず目を引くのが「Leave no one behind（誰も置き去りにしない）」という理念である。人間一人の存在に焦

点を当てている点は、人間主義の観点からして肝要な態度である。池田人間主義では、第2節の冒頭で述べたように、まず一人の幸せ、人間革命があり、そこから出発して世界平和へと改革を展開するわけであり、一方SDGsでは、そこまで徹底して一人の人間を基準にしているとは見受けられないが、この *Leave no one behind* の理念は人間主義思想に通ずる部分として評価できる。

上述したMDGsからSDGsへの過程での発想の転換として「繋がり」が認識されている点も池田人間主義の観点からは重要なことである。池田人間主義では、その特徴の3番目（第1節（3））に述べたように、仏法の「縁起」の思想からこの世界のそれぞれの事象について「全てはつながっている」とする捉え方が基本になっている。この意味で、SDGsで取られた「連携」の認識は、池田人間主義思想の考え方が実体を持った一例として世界目標に反映されたともいえる。

MDGsでは「量」の問題が焦点だったが、SDGsでは「質」が問われているとの指摘もある^[30]。ここでは、質を考える上で欠かせないものとして「公正さ」の観点が挙げられている。この「公正さ」については、創立者がSDGsよりはるか以前にフィリピン大学の講演で指摘した精神である^[4]。そこでは、「私は平和を志向するビジネス人の精神的バックボーンとして、端的に『公正』の精神を挙げてみたい」と述べられ、「こうした『公正』な精神の持ち主は、経済活動によって、ともすれば富める国、富める階層がますます富み、貧しい国、貧しい階層がますます貧しくなっていくといった矛盾を決して見逃さないでまいしょう」と格差問題の切り札となることが提示されている。

SDGsの問題意識を突き詰めていくと、「今後は『豊かさとは何か』『幸せとは何か』といった精神的な問いが、先進国に限らず開発途上国において重要になるだろう」との倫理的課題に直面する^[30]との認識がある。この「精神的な問い」に対する答えを既に示しているのが池田人間主義の思想であり、創立者とさまざまな識者との対談で取り上げられているところである。例えば、文献^[31]では、「社会の幸福度を評価する新しい指標」が提起されている。

5. 人間主義経営の指標としてのSDGs

池田人間主義思想の3つの特徴をビジネスで具現化するとどのような形になるかを第2節で例示したが、SDGsの17の目標の多くの部分は、この三大特徴に包含される。目標1の貧困問題、目標2の食料の確保と栄養改善、目標3の健康な生活と福祉の推進は、人間主義思想の節2の（1）「生命の尊厳」で挙げた①②と同じ目的を持っている。目標11の居住地の持続可能性、目標12の消費と生産のパターンの確保、そして目標17のパートナーシップの活性化は節2の（2）「全体人間」で挙げた②と同様の「連携」「絆」を重要視する方策として相通ずる。また、目標10の格差の是正、目標13,14,15の気候変動、海洋資源、森林の持続可能性などの問題は、節2（3）「自他共の幸せ」①で述べた地球環境の持続可能な開発を目的とするものである。

池田人間主義は、節2でも述べたように究極的には世界平和の実現を目指すものであり、節2

(3) ②の「戦争の防止や停止を目的とする」類の目標設定はこのSDGsにはない。このSDGsは、その意味ではあくまでも開発目標でありその範疇での社会変革を目指すものであるが、国連総会においてパン事務総長がSDGsのビジョンとして「世界は今、人間と地球を中心に据え、人権擁護に裏打ちされた変革の時代を迎える準備ができた」^[32]と述べた基本姿勢を有しており、池田人間主義とその底辺で呼応するものである。

以上の観点から、本論文では2つの提案を行いたい。一つは、人間主義経営のあるべき姿の判断根拠についてである。その根拠のひとつとして「SDGsの各目標の達成に関わるビジネス」を基準としてはどうであろうか。ただし、あくまでもひとつの基準であって唯一ではない。二つ目の提案は、CSVの「社会的価値の創造」の具体的手がかりについてである。ポーターは、節3で述べたように単に「社会的価値」を創造するといっているが、抽象的で曖昧である。「社会的価値の創造」の具体的な手がかりとしてこのSDGsを用いてはどうであるか。実際、ユニリーバのポール・ポールマンCEOはこのSDGs策定のハイレベルパネルのメンバーを努めた^[33]。

この節の最後に特記しておかなければならないことは、池田人間主義でカバーする範囲は、SDGsよりは、はるかに広いということである。前述した「戦争の防止や停止を目的とする」類の施策は、人間主義が究極の目的とする世界平和に直接的に関わる。この点に関しても創立者は、長年「SGIの日記念提言」で「人間の安全保障」として様々な提案を行ってきている^[34]。そこでも人間一人一人の生存と尊厳が脅かされない、国家よりも人間生命を守るという考え方が強調されている。

6. 結語

本論文では、「人間主義経営」についての具体像を明らかにすることを目的として、まず池田人間主義思想の3つの特徴について概略を述べた。3つの特徴とは「生命尊厳の思想」、「全体人間を理想像とする人格の陶冶」、「自他共の幸せを目指す実践哲学」である。

次にその3つの特徴から考えられる政策やビジネスの一般的な姿を適用例として明らかにした。さらに、その一般的な姿を示している事例としてCSRの事例、CSVを実践しているCEOの意識、日本企業のCSV活動を示した。これらの事例のうち特にCSVについては「社会的価値の創造」という観点からは人間主義思想に多くの点で合致するものであるが、反面「本質的には新たな経営戦略である」と主張している点など人間主義思想と相容れない部分もあることを明らかにした。

また、本年（2015年）国連総会で採択されたSDGsについては、その内容がMDGsよりも更に池田人間主義思想に近づいていることを示した。SDGsの17の目標の多くが、人間主義思想の3つの特徴から考えられる施策と良く一致しているとともに、その根底に流れる問題意識の解決策は池田人間主義にあることを述べた。

最後に本論文の結論に変えて2つの提案を行った。一つは、人間主義経営のあるべき姿の判断

根拠について「SDGsの各目標の達成に関わるビジネス」を基準としてはどうであろうかということである。二つ目は、CSVの「社会的価値の創造」の具体的手がかりとして、SDGsを用いてはどうであろうかということである。

ただし、池田人間主義の問題意識の範囲は、SDGsよりは、はるかに広い。「人間の安全保障」の問題など池田人間主義が究極の目的とする人間一人ひとりの幸せを基にした世界平和に関わる地球的課題はまだ多い。今後、人間主義経営の姿もビジネスの枠を越えて、行政、非営利団体、国連など多様な組織との連携の上で社会的価値創造を目指す新たな形態となるように思われる。

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Elderly workers in Japan: the need for a new approach

Philippe Debroux

Abstract

Aging of workforce is a challenge for society, public authorities, and organizations. Employees stay longer in work-life and have a longer life-span after retirement. Public debt going alongside with population aging exerts a strong pressure on the whole social security system, but especially on the balance of the pension schemes. So, policy makers are looking to higher employment rates for older people and delayed retirement as means of supporting social security systems. However, efforts to prolong or sustain working life are increasingly understood in a broader and deeper perspective.

In Japan as in Western Europe many people are not only able to work longer but they prefer and choose to do so. Both public authorities and business acknowledge that to make the most of the expertise and experience of older workers may be an important factor of economic growth and social stability (Bussollo and alii 2015). In view of Japan efforts for more than three decades, it cannot be denied that older workers have been high on the policy agenda in Japan. But it may now be time to examine how the traditional win-win way of managing elderly employment is evolving under the impact of demographics, the socio-cultural context, the regulatory environment and the subsequent need for changes in the social security system, and if new approaches should not be necessary.

Introduction

Low fertility rates and rising life expectancy are causing the ratio of workers to retirees to shrink. Japan, which saw a large increase in dependency ratio between 1960 and 2015, went from having the lowest dependency ratio in 1960 to one of the highest in the world nowadays. Dependency ratio is bound to escalate further as population ages. It is projected to more than double in the following twenty years (ILO 2013).

But increase of the dependency ratio depends on the definition given to it. Recently, in view of the growing participation of older people in the labor market it is increasingly thought that no upper

limit should be decided in setting the threshold between working and retirement age. In Japan the growing share of elderly in the population has been accompanied by decline share of young people. It has mitigated the decline in the share of the working-age population and thus the increase of the real dependency ratio. But ageing is still most often seen from a chronological point of view even if the concept of age is multidimensional. Thus, the key problem in Japan as in many other countries is thought to be that active population will be increasingly older with less dynamism and entrepreneurial spirit, and lower productivity.

However, the psychosocial or subjective age is based on the self and the social perception of age. Because variety is high among aging workforce, stereotypes can lead to simplistic or wrong policies. Workers' identity is complex and multiform. Age is a crucial part of it but not the only one to determine the assumptions about work aspirations and appropriate and inappropriate behavior and status positions. Examples show that creativity and drive can develop through lifetime. It is shown for example in the projects aiming to promote entrepreneurial projects initiated by over 50 people (Bussollo and alii, 2015). Thus, from now on managing of older workforce may require new public initiatives but also new work-life practices in organizations at the level of HRM policies, leadership and management that fit with the multiplicity character of ageing.

In this chapter will be analyzed the main explicative factors of the Japanese peculiarities in term of employment of elderly workers. Then, will be assessed through the analysis of practices adopted in companies the direction followed by the public authorities and private concerns to keep elderly people at work in good social and economic conditions. It could be said that Japan has been quite successful in social and economic terms until about a decade ago in pursuing a policy different from that followed by the European countries in this regard.

However, the traditional practices of recruitment and re-employment of the older workers in lower status position may be difficult to sustain from now on for a number of economic, social and legal reasons. Paradoxically, it could be argued that mandatory retirement age at 60 combined with de facto acceptance of age discrimination, and large differential of treatment between regular and non-regular employment have contributed so far to explain the higher labor force participation rates for older workers. Discrimination was made palatable to the retired workers thanks to financial incentives and partial access to pension. As the conditions to keep the system in place are not fulfilled anymore the traditional practices are not sustainable anymore.

Japan public policies aim to prevent the looming drift toward even stronger tendency away from regular employment. It calls for stronger fight against discrimination in treatment for all categories of workers; facilitation of the shift from non-regular to regular status, making the recourse to non-regular status more difficult and promotion of new forms of regular employment¹. Life-style related,

ethical and legal aspects changes the way workers think about their career: on the one hand, it makes age discrimination (and thus unequal pay and treatment for similar jobs) unacceptable²; on the other hand, more flexibility in career patterns is possible (for example open entry system for those who want to develop expertise or a free agent system).

So far the measures to better integrate employees in the regular labor market have targeted young and female workers in priority but elderly employment cannot be neglected anymore. The underutilization of older workers, alongside with young people and women, is viewed as a major factor contributing to the lower Japanese GDP per capita growth rates of the last decade (OECD, 2015). All those reasons require employers to start taking seriously the need to manage their older workforces more creatively and proactively.

Key words

elderly workers, work-retirement practices, social security system, pension eligibility, limited regular employment, age discrimination, socio-cultural environment

Contextual background

Noticeable differences had been observed until recently between European countries and Japan in regard of elderly employment and HRM practices. Authorities in the United States and Europe, where employment rates often fall sharply after age 55, have adopted well-entrenched policies promoting early retirement with generous pension benefits since the 1970s. It is only recently that they started to introduce a number of measures designed to increase employment rate and prolong working life, a belated acknowledgment of the importance of older workers as human resources.

As a result, the trend toward early retirement seems to have come to a halt. Most recent policies involve removing early retirement incentives, pension reform that rewards working longer, the introduction of more flexible work and retirement options, banning age discrimination, and educating companies about the potential labor shortages and the value of older workers for the organization (Bussolo, and alii, 2015).

The business and socio-economic environment in which operate companies played a crucial role in the success of management of elderly workers. Three important aspects must be considered,

1 Although it may be argued that the public authorities are given contradictory signals in this regard, as shown by the new law on dispatched workers that removes the 3 years period after which a regular position had to be offered (MHLW 2015).

2 Under the 2001 Employment Measures Law, it is forbidden to impose age restrictions when recruiting and hiring. However, the law allowed exceptions that constituted disguised age discrimination. It remains a barrier for older workers in Japan although the legal environment is said to have improved during the last decade, especially for the non-regular workers (Yanagizawa 2014).

each of them being liable to have an influence on elderly employment in pushing for its extension. First the socio-cultural context can explain some behaviors and attitudes of both employers and employees' parties. Second the legal framework underlying employment and social protection in Japan pushed towards expansion of work of the elderly workers. Third, ageing employees presents an issue for management, because the age structure in a growing number of organizations is increasingly polarized between young and old workers. Therefore, organizations need to identify and meet the needs and preferences of both older and younger employees in order to raise cooperation and prevent generational conflicts that could hinder management practices and impede the optimizing of human resources (Bussollo and alii 2015).

Japan's policy always aimed to encourage the unemployed or inactive back into jobs or to urge those in employment to delay retiring in order to avoid a long rupture from the labor market. It appears clearly in the restrictive unemployment allowance policy and in the post-retirement policy that combined work, pension and retirement in particular among male workers (Seike 1998). This has been done through financial incentives while keeping in mind the long-term expected aging. Mandatory retirement age has gradually moved up from 55 to 60 and, in parallel, the age of eligibility to receive a public pension has risen from 60 to 65³.

Japanese 'workfare' policy has been cost efficient and effective for both the state and business. Labor force participation rates of Japanese males are higher than in Europe for every age group. Many older workers in Japan would still be considered middle-aged in Europe. Among the 55 to 59 year old European males less than 70% are employed or seek for employment. The corresponding figure in Japan is 94%. In the 60 to 64 year old age group the Japanese participation rate is almost double of the European figure (ILO, 2013).

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework / Research Methods

The chapter examines how the concepts that have been utilized in Japan to adopt specific policies related to older workers evolve in a changing environment. It is claimed in literature that public authorities and business have made use of socio-cultural traditions that are said to favor elderly employment (Martine, 2012). Japanese culture is claimed to place a strong value on remaining productive as long as possible throughout the life course. This is particularly the case of male employment. Even among older workers, a symbolic high value is put on work (Nakane 1970)). The high employment rate of Japanese older workers could also be explained by respect for age and experience, and its association to wisdom that is traditional in the Japanese Confucian culture

3 Since April 2013 male workers' eligibility age for the fixed part of public pension is 65 (it will be the same for female workers from 2018 onwards). The eligibility age for the earning-related part of the pension will move up gradually from 2016 onwards to reach 65 for all organizations in 2025 (MHLW, 2014).

and the subsequent supposedly positive image conveyed by older workers (Benson and Debroux 2013). In contrast, leisure and quality of private life are said to rank high in Western societies and it may make Western workers more accepting of withdrawing from the labor force at an age when they are still in good health and capable of continued work. This could partly explain why European countries and the United States have based their policy on elderly employment on early retirement up until recently.

However, while the strong work ethic of the older Japanese workers cannot be denied and while it is also true that age is traditionally respected and thought to be associated to wisdom in Japanese culture there is no indication showing that it translates nowadays to particularly positive practices in regards to elderly workers. Japanese society does not seem to be different in this regard from Western societies. As will be explained later public and business policy shows ambivalence concerning the value of older employees. Their contribution is often put in doubt and their cost claimed to be an impediment to employment. It seems to reflect the overall societal feeling in this regard. Large-scale aging strains the time and financial resources of families in a period of low growth and stagnating disposable income and is often considered a cost and burden (Martine, 2012).

The long-term perspective supposedly taken by Japanese people in their concept of career and psychological contract with the organization (Aoki 1988), as well as the Japanese organizations emphasis put on training and long-term employment, could explain the successful adoption of the Lazear model of differed reward (Lazaer 1979). Combined with an industrial structure favoring downward mobility between large and smaller organizations it has allowed public authorities and Japanese companies to smoothly manage the aging tendency and employment of older employees. But the break-up of the traditional inter-companies' ties and the necessity to cope with accelerating aging of population in a context of rapid markets and technology changes challenges the assumptions that underlined the Japanese business model in regard of wage structure and career development (Sueki 2013), leading indirectly to reconsideration of the traditional basis of elderly employment.

Public intervention in elderly employment is observed since the 1970s when Japan started to put in place its long-term strategy related to public pension. But, as mentioned earlier, it was based on incentive-driven workfare concept. What is observed nowadays is state intervention reflecting more social concern that responds to the perceived necessity of reinforcing the social safety net, while stopping (or making non-regular work better jobs) the drift towards non-regular employment that is thought to be detrimental to all categories of workers and to the economy as well (Song, 2013).

This chapter analyzes all those points through the use of the literature and examines how older

workers' issues participate to the broader transformation of HRM practices, notably challenging the dichotomy between permanent-regular and non-regular status that has been the hallmark of the HRM architecture in the postwar era. The points are illustrated by comments that are originated from interviews made in 2014 and 2015 by the author in five Japanese companies' HRM department. Two companies are in manufacturing (automotive parts and components, machine tools) and three in service sectors (general retail store, bank and insurance). The interviews have focused on the issues related to elderly employment: training, integration in teams with younger workers, conditions of re-employment (status, wage, general working conditions), and the difficulties to satisfy the regulatory environment.

Data / Findings / Discussion of specific examples from HRM practices

The Japanese Workfare Policy and its current Drawbacks

Japan gradual pre-mandatory retirement typically takes the form of moving from a primary to a secondary career job with the existing employer or being 'loaned' (shukko) or definitively 'transferred' (tenseki) to a smaller subsidiary or a subcontractor (Casey 2005). This provides opportunities for older workers to retire more gradually by downshifting at the end of their career. Selected workers have always been allowed to delay full retirement after mandatory retirement. For many retirees it means 'bridge jobs' between the career occupation and full retirement. In the case of a number of routine and menial works gradual retirement takes the form of switch from full-time employment to part-time employment.

Many workers are actually performing skilled jobs in similar conditions that those they were in before official retirement but because it may mean (not always, though) shorter working hours and less demanding range of duties this may justify lower compensation even in the case of continuation with a regular employee' status. However, the key difference explaining the differential in compensation is that even in the cases of similarly demanding jobs reemployment goes with a shift to non-regular employment for the large majority of post-mandatory retirement positions, typically referred to as shokutaku status, or temporary contract worker (Imai 2011)⁴.

Japan is not an exception in regard of the increase of non-regular employment but the decline in the number of regular full-time employees is a particularly important issue in the Japanese internal labor market-driven HRM system. Non-regular employment for young people and women means limited access to training and career prospects. It leads to under-optimizing of talents and deprives Japan of valuable human resources, something that aging Japan cannot afford. Older workers' employment is different because companies traditionally just take advantages of the existing skills

⁴ Aside from fixed monthly wages those workers also receive salaries under pay-by-the job schemes resembling those used widely for sales persons.

and experience that those older workers possess⁵.

The five respondent companies declare that they seldom continued to invest in the up-skilling of over 50 years old workers until about 10 years ago, especially white-collar workers. Legal and business pressure (notably the difficulties to secure qualified younger manpower in some specialized occupations) has started to force them to reconsider their training, dispatching and integration policy in order to optimize the older workers' talent. Indeed, the traditional reasoning of tapping old workers' pool without investing much in training and in new work patterns may not be appropriate anymore. So far, Japanese authorities and companies adjusted smoothly to the successive rise of the pension mandatory age and pension eligibility in a long-term perspective (Martine, 2012). As mentioned beforehand, workers benefited from financial incentives⁶ (financial compensation in case of drastic drop in income after retirement) and from the characteristics of the pension system (in-work pension). As a result companies were able to devise policies enabling them to keep elderly workers beyond the mandatory retirement age at relatively low cost.

The industrial structure and governance centered on large companies strongly connected to the supply chain facilitated the implementation of schemes related to the utilization of elderly workers. Temporarily or definitively transferring workers, including (but not limited to) older workers before retirement age to subsidiary or affiliated firms helped to reduce the burden of redundant labor and thus contributed to the lowering of labor cost. Shedding workers in good conditions, i.e., they had the opportunity to move to another job, did not strain labor-management relations and did not entail high cost of re-training. It gave the opportunity to continue to train remaining selected workers (especially blue-collar workers) even in the 50s. Doing so, those workers maintained appropriate level of skill and ability necessary to pursue activities after retirement.

Flexibility of wages (often meaning de facto acceptance of age discrimination because similar jobs were not equally rewarded) gave the opportunity to deal with the higher costs of aging workers associated to lower productivity. Because of the change in status they could be paid wages about 30-50 percent lower than before retirement, which made them cost-attractive and competitive compared to younger workers (Martine, 2012). Receiving about 75% of their former wage (financial incentive included) it explains why many retired workers were even eager to perform similar jobs

5 Job-training programs specifically targeted at older workers either do not exist or are rare in Japan. However, participation of elderly Japanese workers to training programs is high by international standards. Through grants the government encourages middle-aged and older workers to take responsibility for keeping their skills up-to-date and improve their employability. Even so, as in other countries decline of training investment in senior workers after the 50s is observed in Japan.

6 The government offers incentives to employers to retain or recruit older workers. For example, companies may receive subsidies for offering reemployment or extended employment. Wage subsidies are also available through the unemployment insurance system to full-time workers aged 60-64 who earn less than 75 percent of their former wages, so the take-up that is paid through the unemployment system is low (Martine 2012).

as before retirement. Thus, it was often a 'win-win' situation for both parties.

But the transformation of the industrial structure makes more difficult to count on subcontractors and affiliated companies to absorb redundant workers and facilitate the selection of the most appropriate human resources as it used to be. In the past the relatively high cost of transferred workers could be compensated by the necessity to maintain close relationships between the organizations. But large companies have looser relationships with Japanese suppliers, reducing the opportunities of transfers. Moreover, although small and medium size companies account for the very large majority of elderly workers' employment these workers have made their career in those companies and often have high firm-specific skills and experience. Suppliers are more reluctant to take elderly workers whose work experience and knowledge may be unrelated to their specific needs and/or obsolete. This is true in manufacturing but also in service sectors where long-term relationship with customers (who are also aging) is a key success factor (Nabeta 2011).

So, just at the time they are legally obliged to keep a larger number of workers in the organization large companies have less opportunity to make the same efficient selection as before. As a result, they are forced to think about managing in a longer perspective a bigger number of workers that include people they would have been able to out transfer previously.

The Necessity of a New Deal

Public authorities need to have workers work and earn a stable income permitting them to maintain decent standards of living. The rise of the age of eligibility to receive public pension makes work a necessity for many elderly workers who arrive at the end of their career or who lose their job. It not only can put inactive people in dire financial situation but without possibility to receive part of the pension many 60 to 64 elderly workers could also become working poor, unable to move smoothly towards definitive retirement. Their social and economic contribution would be small, i.e., they would be unable to contribute to the alleviation of social security cost through care of parents and because many of them could even be forced to sell assets to survive they may cause damageable asset (real estate) deflation.

There is a growing unbalance between the amount entering the pension system and the money going out for the beneficiaries. Expenses for social security already amount for about 30% of the total general budget (Hansen and Imrohorglu, 2013). It can hardly be financed anymore by either tax or debt in view of the dire state of public finance. In contrast to the United States and European countries, where contribution rate or retirement-age changes to the social security system are few and far between, Japan's pension system is reevaluated at least every five years to balance premiums and benefits with existing socioeconomic conditions (Hansen and Imrohorglu, 2013).

Those conditions being unlikely to improve much if at all, the minimum rate of pension for 60 to 64 workers amounts that is already quite low by international standards, i.e., about 45% of wage at the time of retirement may continue to decline and increase the necessity for elderly workers to work in good conditions (OECD 2013).

Even those over 65 tend to stay in the labor market because pensions may not be high enough to sustain their standards of living. In view of the longer life expectancy elderly Japanese are afraid that their savings will not be enough to cover their growing medical and care expenses in the latest part of their lives. They need to be able to keep their standards of living while taking care of their parents in a country where more than 5 million people are over 80 (OECD, 2015). The enactment of the Law on Care Insurance in 2000 makes mandatory the contribution of everybody over 40 residing in Japan to contribute to an insurance that would serve to cover part of the care cost in old age (Tsutsumi 2015). However, it does not mean that the state does not count anymore on families. In view of the cost of residential care Japanese government is shifting the emphasis of the law (through the incentive policy) toward home care. In this case, although limited help care from outside can be expected the burden of the family is bound to increase (Tsutsumi 2015).

The number of age 60 and older non-regular employees is observed, along with growth in their share within the total number of non-regular workers. This phenomenon can be described as the aging of non-regular workers. There is nothing wrong about non-regular employment as such and the number is likely to increase furthermore in the years to come. The problem is that many older workers (young people and women as well) occupy under-qualified jobs, are not given the opportunity to acquire skills and are not paid fairly (Martine 2012).

Improvement of the treatment (access to training, fringe benefits, reward) of non-regular full and part time workers can be assured by enforcement of the existing laws. They have been poorly enforced so far and improvement can also come from stronger government pressure (Oriental Economist 2015). At the same time a shift from non-regular to regular employment is already noticeable in some industries such as amenities and retail where the high turnover of non-regular workers is becoming a business liability (Keizer 2010). Although business focuses mainly on younger workers and women for the time being the push from government to act can also create opportunities for elderly workers.

In the two respondent manufacturing companies efforts are made at different stages to accommodate their needs. Attempts are made to mix younger and older workers (mostly pre-retirement workers but with in mind that a sizeable number can be expected to continue to work after mandatory retirement) in production teams. Specific equipment is developed and facilities revamped, and working time and standards pace are adjusted in order to fit with older workers

characteristics. Training is a key element and companies are ready to continue to train over 50 years old workers provided that they have enough learning potential.

In the Japanese service sectors where productivity is very low (Ueda, 2012) improvement is likely to be linked to adoption of technologies, including in the fields of the three service-related respondent companies. Higher and higher ICT literacy is required and a grasp of new (mostly) internet-driven business models is a must. Nevertheless, opportunities can be created for elderly labor with the right skills or the capability to acquire new skills. In this respect companies are ready to increase the possibilities for off-the-job training to older workers.

All five respondent companies agree on this latest point but they share the opinion in regard of the limits to what they can do to create good jobs for elderly people. They put emphasis on the need for external flexibility, as salaried person but also as self-employed kind of mobile 'free-agent', in connection or not with their former employers. The percentage of self-employed old people in Japan is already quite high. Nevertheless, companies declare that adoption of innovative new work patterns is necessary that encourage workers to work on 'second career' outside of the company. They have started such programs twenty years ago, for example in developing cafeteria-type of training unrelated to the actual jobs performed by the workers. It was in line with the deregulation of the temporary agency work in the 1990s that became a key element of government' objective of increasing external labor mobility, especially of middle-aged and elderly workers⁷. However, with the obligation of keeping workers until 65 there is a need for up scaling and enlarging of the scope of the programs that the respondent companies declare to be beyond their means of individual businesses. They claim that it can only be done in collaboration with public (national but especially local) authorities and private organizations such as the employers' organizations and chambers of commerce⁸.

The Growing Legal Framework aiming to protect elderly Employment

The first initiatives to protect elderly employment were of a voluntary character. In 1971 the setting of quota of over 45 years old workers was envisioned. A second initiative in 1973 induced

7 Through revision of the Temporary Agency Work in 1994 occupational limitations for workers above 60 were almost completely removed. Only activities that are not permitted are listed in the law. The objective of the law is to expand employment opportunities, especially after retirement (Ministry of Labor 1994).

8 The Silver Human Resource Centers (employment agencies) are a source of part-time, relatively low-skilled subsidized community service employment. The Association of Employment Development for Senior Citizens, consisting of employer groups that receive financial support from the government, has been commissioned by the government to encourage companies to devise strategies for retaining and employing older workers. The efforts involve counseling and advice on working conditions that promote the employment of older persons, adjustment of HRM systems to adopt HRM systems that encourage older worker employment and policies to improve working environments.

employers to report the mandatory retirement age to 60 instead of 55 in order to have it coincide with the age of eligibility to public pension. A constraining measure was taken in 1976 that imposed a quota of 6% of over 55 years old workers in all companies. In 1978 a system of subsidies was put in place to encourage employers to re-employ the workers between 60 and 64 (Martine, 2012). The Law on Stabilization of Employment of Elderly Workers of 1986 intended to encourage (and not to force them to do so) companies to delay the retirement age to 60 or over in offering subsidies. An amendment to the law in 1998 made it compulsory to do so.

A 2000 amendment to the same law urged employers to 'endeavor to devise measures for ensuring employment up to 65', but business and labor unions were reluctant to shift to a mandatory retirement at 65. Business considered it unrealistic at that time and they have not changed their stance to the present days. Unions were aware that the move would require the flattening of the slope of the age-wage profile at a still earlier stage of career than now, an evolution that would be detrimental to the interest of their key constituents.

As a result, mandatory retirement at 60 remained (and still remains) legal in Japan, a much lower age than in most other advanced economies. For a long while employers could require workers to retire at that age and were under no obligation to keep workers on beyond the mandatory retirement ages they had set. Therefore they had a strong bargaining power in negotiation with workers who were wishing to continue working. But a new amendment to the law in 2004 made mandatory to put in place by June 1, 2006 an employment system that was aiming to expand employment up to 65 (*keizoku koyo seido*)⁹.

The law also imposed on companies the obligation to all employers to transmit every year to the Ministry of Labor the situation of elderly workers, i.e., the policies adopted to keep them in activity as well as their employment level. Therefore, although companies needed not employ all older workers if there was an agreement between management and labor this was a stronger and clearer statement than that of 2000. It went alongside with measures to encourage workers to stay in the labor market after retirement. The removal of 20% from the retirement allowances of 60 to 64 years old workers who continued to work was removed, taking away what was considered a disincentive to post-retirement work (Martine 2012). Moreover, since that time those over 70 can receive 100% of the basic pension without paying anymore the pension premium if they wish to continue to work.

Very few companies moved up the retirement age to 65 or scrapped the mandatory retirement system because of the perceived loss of flexibility in term of workers' treatment and the subsequent

⁹ Employers could choose among three options: 1. keeping of mandatory at 60 while assuring employment up to 65 (*koyōenchō seido*); 2. extension of mandatory retirement at 65 (*teinenenchō*); 3. abolishment of the mandatory retirement age (*teinenhaishi*). This new regime was directly linked to the reform of the pension system that envisioned the gradual rise of public pension eligibility age (MHLW 2015).

financial strain that it could entail (Nabeta 2011). During the last decade (up to 2013) the two manufacturing respondent companies declare that directly re-employed workers (including in subsidiaries) amounted to about 30% of the total of retirees, the large majority of them production workers continuing to work full-time. In the retail company the ratio was close to 20%. Conversely, it was about 15% in the financial institutions. In the latter three cases most of the occupations were unskilled and semi-skilled part time jobs. In financial services and insurance businesses elderly specialized retirees have the possibility to start a business on their own and they most often do not remain in the company.

The five respondent companies agree with business in general that mandatory retirement at 65 would be counterproductive for elderly employment in the present environment. All of them stick to the 60 years old mandatory retirement for the time being. At the opposite of the wish of government to see a shift away from non-regular employment setting they believe that mandatory retirement at 65 could accelerate the move away from regular employment before retirement. They think that mandatory retirement will be lifted up to 65 and even to 67 or above in the future. They acknowledge that they have to prepare for it but they insist on the point that change in the mandatory retirement age cannot but be part of a broader revamping of the regulatory environment. Notably, it should require significant changes in the possibility of laying-off regular workers. This being said the two manufacturing companies and the retail chain have shokutaku-type employees who are over 70. They declare that the number of employees between 60 and 64, and over 65 is likely to increase in the following years because of shortage of labor.

However, they want to keep enough flexibility in order to have employees fitting their needs at reasonable cost. In the finance and insurance companies hearing and counseling activities are organized every year for the over 55 years old employees. It is also true in the two manufacturing companies but only every two years from 56 years old onward. The companies declare that they want to know as precisely as possible the learning potential of the employees but also their career intention. It is important in order to understand to what extent they will be able to utilize them after mandatory retirement (workplace location, working hours, scope of duties, etc) and the type of training they might need.

Japanese government does not seem eager for the time being to make retirement mandatory until 65. Conversely, it is unlikely that drastic legal changes will occur that would facilitate lay-off of regular employees. But with the new amendment of the law taking effect in April 2013 the loophole permitting companies to keep only selected workers between 60 to 64 years old is closed (MHLW 2014). They are now required to establish the programs necessary to retain all workers who want to work up to the age of 65. The stick goes with carrots and incentive-driven measures have been

enacted to improve employment opportunities and to keep the elderly at work: training subsidies are available to keep senior workers at work and facilitate the search for a new employment to workers over 60 (Martine, 2012). But companies are under control to go along increasingly constraining public policies.

The necessary management changes

The pressure put on companies could lead to either to a 'win-win' outcome or a 'lose-lose' one. It could put at the disposal of companies a dedicated, reliable and experienced work that would contribute to business performance, alleviate the burden on the social security system and boost domestic demand. But it requires the right HRM strategy, the devising of decent working conditions in terms of time, quality of work, and compensation. Otherwise, it could induce a decline of working conditions for elderly workers that would be not only ethically unacceptable but also unsustainable in economic term.

It is recognized by the respondent companies that monetary and non-monetary incentives are needed to maintain the traditional high task and organizational commitment of older workers, especially if the workers feel the obligation to stay in the labor market without being able to keep decent living standards. Eventually companies acknowledge that they could end up with low productivity elderly 'trapped' workers. This is all the more important in Japan because of the traditional emphasis on acquisition of firm-specific skills that makes Japanese workers (especially older workers) much less mobile than those in other advanced economies.

Although elderly Japanese workers are far more likely to be in the labor force than their European or American counterparts, once unemployed, the chances for reemployment are not good and the duration of unemployment is long. This calls for life-cycle approach to labor force activity that would increase the chances of prolonging employment by ensuring higher and more adaptable skills at work. It is in this line of thought that must be understood the willingness of the five respondent companies, backed up by the state, to make older workers more autonomous to the point that they can create their own job. It rejoins the position expressed in some European countries, especially the United Kingdom that self-employment may be a promising avenue to sustain activities of elderly people (Hatfield 2015).

The Limit of the socio-cultural Factor

As mentioned beforehand a set of beliefs and values, deeply engrained in Japanese society, that are presented as inducing active aging, is also claimed to explain the peculiarities of Japan in matter of elderly employment. Quoted in Martine (2012) a 2005 survey on the optimal employees'

retirement age it was observed that 32% of Japanese respondents answered 70 years old, while the same age was mentioned by 14.6% of the Americans, 4.6% of French people and 2.4% of German people. It was also pointed out that 37% of Japanese males and 41% of females envision the pursuit of professional activities as long as they would be able to do so (Kajitani, 2008). Therefore, it may be true that the relatively higher rate of Japanese elderly workers' activities can be associated to some extent to socio-cultural factors. Older Japanese are apparently highly motivated to work into their late 60s, assuming good health, and many do.

However, as pointed out in Martine (2012) gradual deterioration of elderly image is observed, a trend that accelerated with industrialization, the weakening of rural society, the shift towards nuclear family and the loosening of family ties (Wada 1997). True, the development of the social security system in the 1970s accelerated the shift toward public policies replacing family in the care of elderly people (Wada, 1997). The law on care insurance boosted furthermore this tendency. However, it is observed that in 2014 about 100000 Japanese people were forced out of the labor market because of the care of parents (Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare 2015), a trend that is bound to grow with population aging and is clearly economically unsustainable and negatively perceived by families.

Negative opinions about older worker costs, technological competence, flexibility, and the ability to adapt to new work patterns often undermine efforts to get companies to recruit and retain older workers and limits the options for continued employment (Iwata 2003). Respondent companies are globally appreciative regarding older workers' loyalty, dependability, and judgment. However, they make rather negative assessments of attributes such as technological competence (including but not limited to IT literacy) and functional flexibility, which are viewed as critical in today' s workforce.

To the question that the problem may be more serious in the case of white-collar employees who very often have not acquired new skills in the 50s respondent companies answer that it is generally true. It may take a generation before more specialized white collar workers who made their career under performance-driven evaluation and reward systems and have received more specialized training replace the current white collar generalists. But the two manufacturing companies add that appropriate skills and experience is also increasingly a concern in the case of elderly blue-collar workers. Technological and market environment changes leads to deskilling of many occupations but also to the need for up skilling of others. Many blue-collar workers have skills and experience that are not suitable for the new types of occupation in their own field. This calls for changes in job and career design (and subsequent specific training in some cases), a task that requires time and financial resources, first of all, a precise fine-tuning of the selection of those who should be trained, their working conditions and reward system.

The Reconsideration of the Lazear Theory

Longer career is an important element (alongside with the changes in the valence and career expectations of younger employees) putting in question the applicability of the differed wage theory described by Lazear (1979). According to Lazear the wage - earnings profile is made steeper than the age - productivity profile that is frequently non - linear and stagnates or declines in older age. The organization pays to the employee a wage that is lower than his/her marginal productivity in the first stage of the career but is higher in the second stage of the career. So mandatory retirement is part of the incentive structure. It is directly linked to the long-term job guarantee for regular workers, going alongside with seniority evaluation and reward correlated to the assumed value of experience and continuous acquisition of mainly firm-specific skills¹⁰.

Although they remain important in some industries to nurture unique knowledge and organizational skills firm-specific skills are said to be comparatively less important in both service and manufacturing industries. Too high reliance on them may even hinder the ability to react to discontinuities. It makes not only difficult to justify high wage for old workers (Keizer, 2010) but it forces companies to reconsider the whole process of skill acquisition and thus the wage curves at an early stage of the career. It is a difficult task and is likely to takes time to implement in Japanese companies where the introduction of job-based work patterns, evaluation and reward is very gradual.

Japanese companies have already integrated the impact of workforce aging in their wage curves. Male wages rise until about ages 50-55 after which they fall sharply (Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare 2014). Therefore, older pre-retirement workers are already less expensive than before. However, it is only in the years to come that the shift away from seniority and the introduction of performance driven appraisal and reward systems since the 1990s are likely to start having a significant impact on older workers' income. For the time being the impact of the changes is limited (Sueki, 2013).

It could be argued that the shift away from seniority system may be beneficial to (some) older white-collar workers. Especially when coupled with skills erosion, the seniority system was undermining efforts to promote the employment of while-collar older workers – too many of them where not re-employable in skilled jobs. From now on companies could be more enticed to continue

10 In order to not lose the benefit of the rent workers are induced to keep making efforts and not to leave the organization lest they could be transferred elsewhere in places where they do not receive the same treatment. The consequence would be a heavy opportunity cost. But the system works only if the firm can terminate the contract at a certain age. If for some reason the firm cannot make older workers retire it would cost too much to pay relatively high wages for relatively low productivity (Aoki 1988).

to devote resource to specialized training to the older workers who already have specialized knowledge and still have learning potential. As mentioned before wage curve are likely to flatten at an earlier age than before with the adoption of pay for performance system. If it goes alongside with reconsideration of the practice of the retirement allowance (taishokukin) with represents around 10% of the total work-life revenue (Sueki, 2013)¹¹ the Lazear theory could become irrelevant in the new Japanese context.

The opportunities of higher status flexibility

In view of the wide disparity in terms of business needs, skill level, physical capabilities, and variety of life-style and time availability many elderly workers are likely to continue to shift to non-regular status after retirement. The Part-Time Workers Act requires that companies pay regular workers and part-time workers the same wage if they are doing the same job (Oriental Economist 2015). The problem is that the law is not properly enforced. In regard to non-regular workers, court decisions have almost always favored the company. So, it is a question of political willingness to correct the situation (Oriental Economist 2015).

At the same time it is a plausible hypothesis to believe that regular-types of jobs can also be created. Although the rules relative to lay-off are unlikely to be changed abruptly gradual evolution is a plausible hypothesis. It will probably be linked to the creation of new working status that will dilute the regular – non-regular status dichotomy and leads to limited (in some dimensions) but regular types of jobs. It means that the workers would continue in principle to get access to the advantages bestowed to the regular employees, i.e., bonus, fringe benefits, equal salary for equivalent job. Because of the job limitations it would be possible to compromise over compensation with the terms of the deal kept open and clear. It could be more affordable to companies while responding to elderly employees' needs for smooth transition to definitive retirement.

Various limited-regular employment schemes have been adopted in many sectors since the 1990s, mostly for female employees but without being put in a clear legal setting. There are already companies that have introduced a status of limited regular employees that is aimed at elderly employees in the same way that they have introduced similar schemes for female workers (Debroux, 2016).

Jobs could keep characteristics that are similar to those of typical regular employees in terms of working hours and scope of work but be geographically limited (de facto meaning transfer in a workplace fitting with the needs of both parties). Conversely, there are cases in which the

11 It is pointed out (Sueki, 2011) that it is not the case now but it can be plausibly argued that it will happen in the years to come alongside with the diversity of career paths and higher mobility in the labor market that creates a larger external labor market.

performed tasks and duties are limited, as well as working hours in order to satisfy the need for care of elder parents but there is no geographic limitation.

Conclusion

While pursuing a pro-active workfare policy it can be argued that until recently Japanese authorities and companies have never really thought about policies that would favor in good conditions (decent work and wage, consideration of age limitation in term of working hours, mobility, scope of work) a smooth transition toward retirement. The low mandatory retirement age that was combined with financial incentive have made many companies complacent in this respect. In addition to the challenges regarding labor policy, changes in the labor supply structure (overall reduction in the labor force on the one hand, increase of women and older people in the labor market on the other) urge public authorities and companies to consider utilizing elderly workers more efficiently and effectively.

There is a need for flexible pathways to retirement as a means of increasing the length of the working life. The self-employment option is already explored and companies and public authorities intend to invest in new programs. However, most old workers can be expected to remain salaried persons.

If non-regular work conditions can be upgraded to the point that it provides decent work treatment to a large number of 60 to 64 retired people, and flexible but regular types of jobs can be created for some of them at the same time, convergence with other advanced countries could occur in regard of the mandatory retirement age, an evolution that would be considered normal in view of Japan demographics. In macro-economic term it would put Japan in the mainstream of the advanced countries where retirement age shifts towards 67 and even 70 years old. The issue of providing decent jobs for all workers would remain hard to tackle as in Europe but it should become more palatable for business and the unions to accept a move towards mandatory retirement at 65 and even above. As a result it could lead to the building of an employment system making the best use of the elderly workers in economic but also social terms.

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Labour Standards of international CSR initiatives and the standpoints of Asian Employers Organizations ¹

– Referring to a survey for Asian Employers Organizations in 2011

Naoki KURIYAMA

1. Issues of labour standards and CSR in Asia

For the last few decades the issue of CSR and labour standards has been one of the most concerned business topics not only in business world, but also academics and educational institutes such as university and business schools. Academia has been critical against unilateral link between labour standards and free trade agreement analyzed the multidisciplinary of the issues². From the aspect of business education, the Principles for Responsible Management Education (PRME) initiative is a prominent case for educational relationship for the responsible business between the United Nations and business schools³.

The adoption of ISO 26000 in 2010 has been giving effects on the rapidly growing business context in Asia. Furthermore, many international initiatives on CSR with reference to labour standards have been created with solid promoting framework both in public and private institutes. UN Global Compact and the Guiding principle for human rights are the representative ones by the public institutes on the one hand, Global Reporting Initiatives and ISO are private initiatives on the other.

Among them, labour standards are incorporated in these international CSR initiatives. From the original argument on the free trade and labour standards at the 1996 WTO Ministerial Meeting in Singapore the ILO adopted Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. This gave integral effects to defining the core labour standards for joining international free trade system. Recent development of Free Trade Agreement (FTA) requires fair labour conditions led by industrialized countries. In particular, US foreign policy requires the adoption of national legislation in the countries concerning five internationally recognized labour principles identified in the ILO 1998 Declaration: freedom of association; effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; effective abolition of child labour and prohibition of the worst forms of child labour; and elimination of discrimination in respect of

Table 1: Asian FTA with labour provisions

Name of trade agreement	Reference to ILO instruments	Commitment to certain minimum labour standards	Non-encouraging of trade or investment through weakening labour laws
New Zealand- Thailand Trade Agreement (2005)	1998 Declaration	Yes	Yes
Chile-China Trade Agreement (2006)	No	No	No
Trans-Pacific Partnership Agreement (2006)	1998 Declaration	Yes	Yes
New Zealand –China Trade Agreement (2008)	1998 Declaration	No	Yes
Japan-Philippines Economic Partnership Agreement (2008)	Yes (refer to the internationally recognized labour standards)	No	Yes
Taiwan, China-Nicaragua Trade Agreement (2008)	No (but the labour principles contain all Core Labour Standards)	Yes	Yes
Japan- Switzerland Trade Agreement (2009)	No	No	Yes
New Zealand – China Trade Agreement (2011) 1998 Declaration	No	Yes	

(Source) Excerpt from Ebert and Posthuma (2011) ⁵

employment and occupation⁴.

In Asia, many trade agreements have contained labour provisions as listed in Table 1. Out of the eight trade agreements listed in the table, five initiatives have labour provisions as a form of side agreement or memorandum of understanding.

In fact, the extended Trans-Pacific Partnership Agreement (TPP) agreed in 2015 includes labour obligations in a chapter⁶. The other private initiatives from developed world for promoting labour commitments such as SA8000 have been taken mostly by the US trade and industry policy. This adds the complex picture in Asian developing countries. CSR as the name of universality is always questionable issue for Asia. For example, the government of Malaysia often insisted Asian regionality in that Asia is diversified and has diversified greatly with cultural, religious and valued background⁷.

The actors relevant to business in the region have always discussed rationality and universality of CSR. Flexibility and rigidity of some rules is an example of the debate in this case. ILO Standards do not permit regional standards, but it allows flexibility. The universality of the standards rests in the process of arriving at the standards and how to implement it⁸. The argument is converged on the issues of human rights and business because the core labour standards are human rights issues which can not be allowed regional application.

Employers organizations are the voicing organizations to express their ideas. They are forming

regional networks according to the regional economic integration. The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) which aims to transform ASEAN into a single market and production platform based on free flow of goods, trade, investment, capital and skilled labour, has just established in December 2015. Regional networks of business community are softly organized in Asia. Employers Organizations which are in charge of labour standards in business community also forms regional sub-network such as the ASEAN Confederation of Employers (ACE) and Confederation of Asia-Pacific Employers (CAPE).

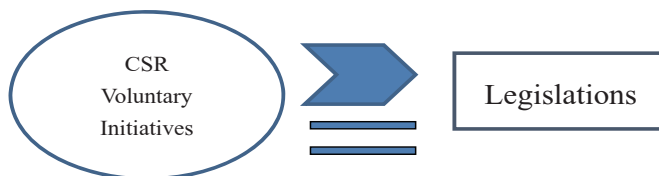
Currently again, we are facing this issue requiring universal application of international labour standards and execution in global supply chains which are located in diversified situations under the name of Corporate Social Responsibility for fair sustainable development. The ILO conference in 2016 will deal with this issues stating its concerns in that “it is notable that governments and the international community are increasingly spelling out what they expect of business, above and beyond compliance with the law. This can be seen in national and regional CSR policies, and in the United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights. The distinction between the strictly legal and the purely voluntary seems to be getting blurred, not least as accountability and reporting mechanisms are tightened ⁹.”

This paper aims to identify the regional ideas towards labour standards in international CSR initiatives in Asia. The research was originally reported at the AOTS workshop on international CSR instrument and Employers Organizations invited representatives of major Asian employer organizations in January 2011. Questionnaires were prepared by the author.

2. ILO approach to CSR

By referring to an agreement of the definition of CSR at ILO governing body in 2006 a basic reaffirmation of the significance of the CSR in Asia can be identified as in the followings. The first prominent feature of CSR is a voluntary initiative above compliance of the laws. The ILO governing body says “CSR is a voluntary, enterprise-driven initiative and refer to activities that are considered to exceed compliance with the law”¹⁰. As a business entity, an enterprise is free agent

Figure1: ILO Definition of CSR ①



with entrepreneurial and innovative actions in competitive market environment. The consciousness of business in society became an unavoidable topics in growing Asia based on this basic principle. Business side such as employers' organizations, in particular, emphasizes voluntary initiatives of CSR.

The impetus of CSR propagation was given at the aspect of environmental preservation and universally accepted value of sustainable development in the 90s. Symbolic event was Rio Earth summit in 1992. The sustainable development concept has emphasized the importance of CSR requiring long-term and earth-wide perspective. This interconnectedness of CSR and sustainable development has been strengthened in the due course. This argument developed to three dimensional model of sustainable development. It corresponds to the argument of triple bottom line of the CSR in the aspect of economy, society and environment.

Social responsibility was focused facing vulnerable situations as a dark side of globalization. Active voluntary initiatives beyond national legislation were required resulting from losing powers of national government and growing multinational corporations. However, the intervention of the governments in the Asian region has been strengthened at some points such as compulsory CSR reporting. Many countries in the region recognize that CSR includes the compliance of the relevant law.

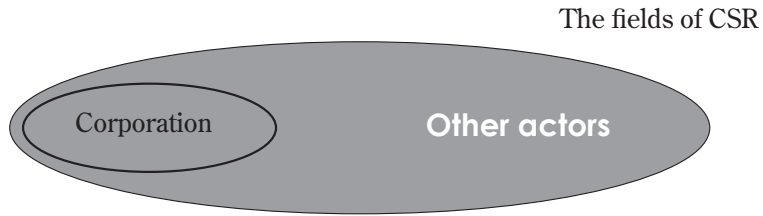
The second important facet of CSR is a deep and extensive recognition of stakeholders. The ILO Governing Body followed "a way which give consideration to the impact of their operations on society and affirm their principles and values both in their own internal methods and processes and in their interaction with other actors."¹¹ The field of CSR should go to all those affected by its activity.

This relates to the extensive influence of business in the world seeing the far reaching supply chain of the multinational enterprises. The scope of CSR included other actors affected by its own business. The term of "stakeholders" has contributed to the promotion of CSR in the field of practical execution and academic research works. In Asia, argument of CSR and sustainable development was centered as national policy and targeted the field of CSR of extensive networks of supply chain of global production systems.

3. Survey of the CSR in Asia

The Author's survey at the AOTS¹² workshop in 2011 had self-assessment of standpoints on CSR and labour standards from 11 Asian countries. It covers an overall picture of CSR activities in the Asian countries taking consideration of the labour dimension of the international standards.

Figure 2: ILO Definition of CSR ②— Fields of CSR



Although the CSR activities are very extensive, it focused on a picture of current situation of the CSR activities of the labour dimension.

The author sent a questionnaire to the participating countries and received country papers responding to this questionnaire.

3.1 General conditions for sustainable growth of enterprises

Options for basic conditions for sustainable growth of enterprises was listed in the questionnaire summarized in the following factors¹³.

- Macroeconomic stability and sound management of the economy
- Physical infrastructure
- Good governance and social dialogue – effective and efficient civil and political institutions and processes
- Society and culture supportive of enterprise
- Equity and economic and social inclusion

Table 2: General conditions for sustainable growth of enterprises

1.1 conditions

	economy	infrastructure	governance	social support	social inclusion	environment
Bangladesh BEF	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
Cambodia CAMFEBA	◎	◎	◎	◎		
China CEC	◎		◎	◎		×
Korea KEF	◎	◎				
Laos LNCCI	○		○			○
Malaysia	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
Philippines ECOP				◎		
Shingapore SNEF	◎		◎			
Sri Lanka EFC	◎	◎	◎			
Thailand ECOT			◎			
Vietnam VCCI				×		×

◎ Favorite Requirement ○ Favorit × Adverse effect

— Responsible stewardship of the environment

Among these factors, macroeconomic stability and sound management of the economy is the top of the favorite condition for sustainable growth of enterprise listed in the country papers. It is followed by good governance and social dialogue with effective and efficient civil and political institutions and processes. The most influential factor to affect the situation of sustainable development is economic stability, following by good governance and social dialogue.

Macro and overall economic situation is the most influential variables for sustainable growth. The recognition of the micro factor of good corporate governance and social dialogue in a corporation is also integral part of the basic requirement for the sustainable growth.

3.2 Company Motivations of CSR

The survey of the motivations of CSR by the member companies suggests the varied initiatives for CSR activities. It suggests that CSR has a multi-facet concept for the employers. Among the following responses, it can be identified the most common expectation to take initiatives of CSR for corporations.

Choices of selection was in the followings¹⁴.

- a. Raising the capacity to attract and maintain a qualified and motivated workforce;
- b. Improving relations with the staff;
- c. Increasing productivity and quality in the long run;
- d. Improving risk management including supply chain;

Table 3: Company motivation of CSR

1.3 Motivation

	attract workers	staff relations	productivity	risk management	market access	credit access	customer loyalty	brand image
Bangladesh BEF	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
Cambodia CAMFEBA				◎	◎			
China CEC	◎						◎	
Korea KEF	◎	◎						◎
Laos LNCCI	◎	◎						○
Malaysia MEF		◎		◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
Pakistan EFP	◎	◎	◎	○	◎	◎	◎	◎
Philippines ECOP	◎	◎	◎		×	◎		
Shingapore SNEF	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
Sri Lanka EFC	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
Thailand ECOT	◎	◎						
Vietnam VCCI	◎	◎						

◎ Mostly relevant ○ Relevant in some part × not relevant

- e. Increasing access to the market in foreign countries;
- f. Facilitating access to credits, taking into account the current trend of financial institutions to include environmental and social criteria in their assessments;
- g. Increasing customer loyalty; and
- h. Strengthening brand image and company reputation as essential factors for competitiveness.

As the survey demonstrated, many enterprises in Asia seem to be focusing on human resources policy as a most advantageous factor of CSR for the companies. The human resources matters such as workers commitment and engagement are the common interests for CSR. This corresponds to the recent focus of CSR measures to improve employee engagement for strengthening competitive advantage. Raising the capacity to attract and maintain a qualified and motivated workforce is the top factor as a motivation for CSR followed by improving relations with the staff.

A detailed survey of country paper from Employers' Federation of Pakistan (EFP) indicates that improving relations with the staff records highest score, and increasing productivity and quality in the long run comes next as in the following table 3. The Pakistan country report says that "for raising the capacity to attract and maintain a qualified and motivated workforce, CSR is essential and 93% of people believe that improving relations with the staff and access to the market in foreign countries are the key weapons to strengthen the customer loyalty and control the risks in a

Table 4: A survey of company motivation for CSR by EFP of Pakistan

Dimensions	Not Relevant (In Percentage)	Relevant in Some parts (In Percentage)	Mostly Relevant (In Percentage)
A) Raising the capacity to attract and maintain a qualified and motivated workforce	6%	32%	62%
B) Improving relations with the staff	0%	14%	86%
C) Increasing productivity and quality in the long run	0%	22%	78%
D) Improving risk management including supply chain	0%	60%	40%
E) Increasing access to the market in foreign countries	10%	36%	8%
F) Facilitating access to credits, taking into account the current trend of financial institutions to include environmental and social criteria in their assessments	14%	34%	52%
G) Increasing customer loyalty	4%	22%	74%
H) Strengthening brand image and company reputation as essential factor for competitiveness	0%	28%	72%

(Source) Employers' Federation of Pakistan (EFP), country report of Pakistan submitted to AOTS workshop, 2011, Bangkok.

business” (EFP country report).

As growing needs for accountability of corporate behaviors, the pressure of demonstrating the justification of CSR activities from shareholders, for example, requires the reasons competitive advantage of CSR. Employee engagement and competitive advantage is becoming hot and popular topics for that¹⁵.

3.3 Challenges of CSR

The challenging issues to response to the CSR can be listed in the following aspects¹⁶.

- a. Limited financial resources;
- b. Low levels of expertise of human resources;
- c. Lack of information;
- d. Weak initiatives from the top management;
- e. Lack of understanding by share-holders;
- f. Lack of training and education opportunities;
- g. Lack of government support;
- h. Others (describe details);

There are many challenging issues for CSR initiatives. Seeing the challenges encountered by corporations, the expectation to government role is high in Asia. This is the feature of Asian country because there are strong trends of government legislation concerning CSR such as obligation

Table 5: Challenges for CSR

1.4 Challenges

	financial resources	expertise	lack of information	top management	share holders	training	government support	others
Bangladesh BEF		◎	◎			◎		
Cambodia CAMFEBA	◎					◎	◎	
China CEC			◎				◎	short-term benefit
India EFI						◎	○	
Korea KEF				◎			◎	
Laos LNCCI	◎	◎	◎	◎			◎	
Malaysia MEF	◎						◎	
Pakistan EFP	◎	◎	○	○	○	◎	◎	
Philippines ECOP	◎	×	×	×		◎	◎	
Shingapore SNEF		○	○	○				
Sri Lanka EFC	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	
Thailand ECOT				◎	◎		◎	
Vietnam VCCI		◎	◎	◎		◎		

◎ Mostly relevant ○ Relevant in some part × not relevant

Table 6: A survey of challenges for CSR by EFP of Pakistan

Dimensions	Not Relevant (In Percentage)	Relevant in Some parts (In Percentage)	Mostly Relevant (In Percentage)
A) Limited financial Resources	%	40%	60%
B) Low levels of expertise of Human Resources	18%	42%	40%
C) Lack of information	28%	40%	32%
D) Weak initiatives from the top management	22%	44%	34%
E)) Lack of understanding by share holders	28%	44%	28%
F) Lack of training and education opportunities	%	44%	56%
G) Lack of Government support	12%	28%	60%

(Source) Employers' Federation of Pakistan (EFP), Country Report Pakistan submitted to AOTS workshop, 2011, Bangkok.

of CSR reporting. This trend is similar to the CSR policy in European countries, so comparative study between Asia and Europe is interesting for the future trend of CSR in Asia. Definitely, the expectation of government support relate to the interest of national competitive advantage.

On this aspect, the findings of EFP survey are very suggestive. It explains the government role to promote CSR in the country. It pointed out that premature of awareness of the importance of CSR is hindering the widespread activities of CSR. Therefore, it needs a mass awareness campaign supported by the government having "frequent and open discussion defining and understanding CSR, detailing its nature and promoting and developing methodologies on how local businesses adopt and manage their CSR obligations" (EFP,2011).

The country report of MEF of Malaysia explained that the importance of the government role to promote and implement the legislation concerning CSR policy which can affect nation-wide and cross-sectors including SME sector. The Malaysian Institute of Integrity (IIM) approach streamline and improve existing Corporate and Social legislations. (MEF report, p.11)

3.4 International instruments of the labour dimension of sustainable growth of enterprises

A series of the labour standards of international instruments have been formed by many international institutions so far. At the same time, there is growing needs to make it reference as universal standards so that the companies can justify their CSR activities. More in details, glowing necessity for international standards for globally spreading CSR is taking place in the following reasons¹⁷.

Corporations need:

Figure 3:

Core subjects of Social responsibility in the fields of Labour
(ISO26000)

Human Rights

- Fundamental principles and rights at work

Labour Practices

- Employment and employment relationships
- Conditions of work and social protection
- Social dialogue
- Health and safety at work
- Human development and training in the workplace

- Reference for Codes of conduct, Corporate « Pledges, Commitments, Principles », CSR policies, supply chain policies;
- Universal reference and guidance in areas such as environment, human rights and labour;
- licence to operate from society.

ISO26000 identified the core subjects of social responsibility in the fields of labour as appeared in the Figure 6.

Although the labour aspects are interrelated deeply and it is difficult to define the scope, the fields listed in the Table 6 indicate the shared understanding. However, the principal part of labour dimension of CSR consists of the Core ILO Standards. These standards are included in various international instruments with various effects. The representative instruments are the followings.

- ▶ ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work: Adopted by the International Labour Conference at Its 86th Session (1998) and ILO Core Labour Standards;
- ▶ ILO Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy (1977);
- ▶ UN Global Compact (human rights, labor standards, the environment, and anti-corruption);
- ▶ Global framework agreement (GFA);
- ▶ OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises;

Figure 4:

International Instruments (Labour CSR)

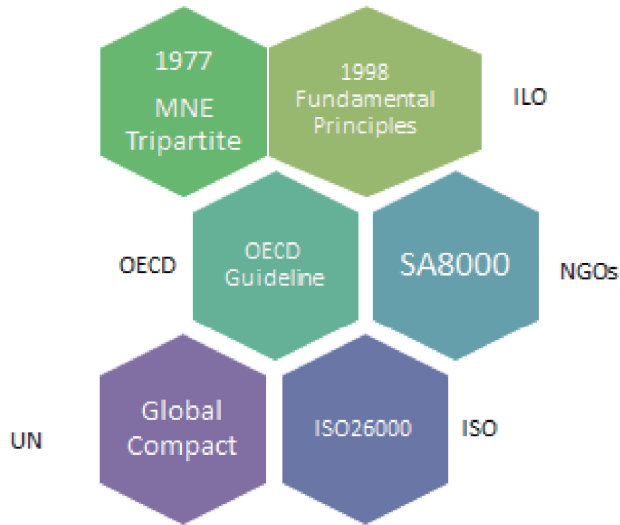


Table 7: The International Instruments of labour dimensions of CSR

1.6 International Instruments

	ILO 1998	ILO 1977	Global Compact	GFA	OECD	ISO26000	SA8000	local publication
Binding	×	×	×	○	Government	×	○	
4 fundamentals	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
China CEC	◎		◎		○ For MNEs		◎	
Korea KEF			◎			◎		
Laos LNCCI							○	
Malaysia MEF	○	○	×	×	○	○	×	
Mongolia MONEF	○	×	○	×	×	○	○	
Nepal FNCCI	◎							
Pakistan EFP	×	×	○		×	×	×	
Philippines ECOP	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	
Shingapore SNEF			◎					ISO 26000
Sri Lanka EFC	◎	○	◎	○	○	◎	◎	
Thailand ECOT			◎					
Vietnam VCCI							◎	ISO 14001

Table 8 : A survey of the International Instruments by EFP of Pakistan

Dimensions	Not At ALL (In Percentage)	Some Knowledge (In Percentage)	Well Known (In Percentage)
A) ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and rights at work; adopted by the International Labour Conference at its eighty sixth session (1998) and ILO Core Labour Standards	51%	35%	14%
B) ILO tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning multi-national enterprises and social policy	68%	22%	10%
C) UN Global Compact (Human Rights, Labour Standards, the Environment and anti corruption).	10%	57%	33%
D) OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) guide lines for Multi- National Enterprises	68%	25%	7%
E) ISO 26000 (Social Responsibility)	77%	22%	7%
F) SA 8000 (Social Accountability)	71%	23%	6%

- ▶ ISO26000 (Social Responsibility);
- ▶ SA8000;

The country reports indicate that UN Global Compact (GC) is the most well-known instruments. Bland image of UN and its promotional effects to the private companies may contribute to this popularity. Also, the GC local networks are spreading out to the region. Global Framework Agreement with trade unions is less popular possibly and partly because of its binding power. For business and employers, open and interactive relations of the related actors and the stakeholders are regarded as an integral part of the CSR activities.

SA8000 has binding power to the business. But it is, on the other hand, well-known for some country probably because of the pressure on exporting product on the supply chain. The exporting industry such as textile industry needs to accountable on the issue of environmental and human rights performance.

Common factors of these international instruments are;

- Based on Universal principles;
- Include the four Fundamental Principles of Rights at Work;
- Encourage enterprises to establish dialogue and contribute to sustainable development and a fair globalization (no binding except SA8000 and Global Framework Agreement).

Besides these international instruments, Malaysian MEF report introduces the success case of Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (RSPO). Palm oil industry became a target by the environmental NGO to allege and give pressure on palm oil industry as a cause of deforestation and social abuse. RSPO as a not-profit association forms cooperation within the supply chain and

open dialogue between its stakeholders for the sustainable agriculture production. It has developed and implemented the global standard for sustainable palm oil at toughest standards of the world. RSPO assures the transparency and traceability with strict verification of the production process¹⁸. This is becoming de fact standards for sustainable palm oil production among major oil producers, importers and consumers and related non-governmental and governmental organizations.

The Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil is a flexible agreement. It sets up to bring the commercial sector together and involves the producers, civil society groups, governments and other stakeholders for loose agreement. It takes flexible and consensual decision making, but no institutional support mechanism and implementing measures¹⁹. This flexible organ may fit the Asian circumstances. Regional forum to SR can be listed for agenda in the Asian region.

3.5 Awareness of the Core Labour Standards

As seeing the survey of the awareness of the core labour standards by EFP, the concepts of the Fundamental Principles and rights at work are not recognized by the business especially in SMEs. This means there is a strong need to propagate the meaning of these standards nationwide and internationally.

4. Some observations for promoting CSR in the context of Asia

4.1 Asian value and social aspect of CSR

Firstly, it is pointed out that a priority is given on environmental issues in the CSR context in Asia. Regional and participatory approaches have been established in water supply and other environmental fields. Environmental issues are easily understandable as universal problems such as global warming. Environmental degradation including deforestation is reaching a critical level to be irretrievable.

Table 9: A survey of the core labour standards by EFP

Dimensions	Little Knowledge (In Percentage)	Some Knowledge (In Percentage)	Well-Known (In Percentage)
A) Freedom of Association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining	48%	46%	6%
B) The Elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour	66%	30%	4%
C) The effective abolition of Child Labour	18%	68%	14%
D) The elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation	14%	78%	8%

(Source) Employers' Federation of Pakistan (EFP), Country Report Pakistan submitted to AOTS workshop, 2011, Bangkok.

Social issues are more complex in terms of cultural, religious and societal aspects. Naturally the discussion between universal application and regional deviation has been controversial among the different countries and regions.

Secondly, flexible approach is another feature of the implementation of CSR initiatives in this field. Asian values are diversified but we can find some common traits in traditional way of thinking in CSR. The discussion of vague feature of Asian values has produced certain common elements in consist of it. These Asian values are fitting the core of CSR in a way of more philanthropic orientation rather than strict interpretation and rule. There are common factor for embedding flexibility on the basis and way of thinking on CSR²⁰. Asian values of philanthropic CSR have been pointed out by various scholars; less codification in business activities in Asia²¹, benevolent and paternalistic responsibility to employees, customers and community with value of faith and trust from Buddhism and Confucianism²². On the other hand, overlap between the tenet of Islam and CSR such as Global Compact²³ is observed, and Tata group's CSR is close to the that of Western companies²⁴.

4.2 Towards constructive Industrial Relations

In stakeholder engagement, the way of engagement has been argued in various occasion. Industrial relations between workers and employers are common debate for a long time. There can be an Asian way. Japanese Industrial Relations (IR) is one example for this. There are not only universal traits, but also regional characteristics.

Social dialogue is the case in point. Direction of social dialogue in Asia is leading to dialogue based engagement. In the negotiation in collective bargaining, the forms of discourse is based on dialogue, whereas cooperation between workers and managers take the form of dialogue. Figure 9 describes distinct comparisons between stakeholder debate and stakeholder dialogue. Consultation system between workers and employers is well-known practices in Japanese industrial relations.

Table 10: Stakeholder Debate versus Stakeholder Dialogue

Stakeholder Debate	Stakeholder Dialogue
Competition	Cooperation
Speaking	Listening
Confronting	Constructive
Separate Responsibility	Shared Responsibility

Adopted from Kaptain M, Tulder R V, "Toward Effective Stakeholder Dialogue", 108:2 *Business and Society Review*, 2003.

ITUC- AP Trade union are moving to the constructive industrial relations. Toward decent work agenda constructive social dialogue is particularly important in Asia. In September 2009, trade union leaders from Asia and the Pacific gathered in Singapore for the ITUC-AP Conference on Industrial Relations. They adopted a definition of “constructive industrial relations.” It declared that “on the basis of full recognition of the operations of trade unions in compliance with the ILO Conventions 87 and 98 in pursuit of Decent Work and common welfare, and in a stable political climate where social partners can operate without fear of reprisal; the parties concerned share a common interest in labor standards, performance of business, conditions of national economies, industries and the labor market; and share the principle of fair distribution of output to stakeholders”²⁵.

Two channels of engagement with employees are kept in social dialogue. One channel; collective bargaining deals with issues such as fair distribution of outputs, employment, wages, working hours, and the other labor conditions. Another channel; Labor-Management Consultation System deals with the issues such as increases in outputs, management policy, productivity increases, human resource development, Occupational Safety and Health, and the others.

4.3 CSR as challenges for strategic business cases and competitive advantage

CSR is not just charity. CSR is not burden. These kinds of feeling by corporations hinder the diffusion as voluntary corporate initiatives in the region. Consequently, employers need to understand the merits of implementation of social responsibility. Since the matters concerned employees seems to be the most interesting motivation for CSR. The strategic implication of CSR like improving working conditions has to be clarified for the effective means of productivity enhancement by employers and workers. For example, how can long working hours be reduced and hourly productivity be improved at the same time?

Recent experiences in introduction of flexi-time working hours at working place show the growing potentials of synergy effects with shorter working hours and higher productivity.

The topic of reducing working hours is one of the oldest working condition concerns. In the early 19th century, it was already recognized that working long hours was dangerous to workers' health and to their families. For example, the International Labour Organization (ILO) standards on working time, adopted in 1919, limited hours of work and provided for adequate rest periods for workers. Since then, ILO has added standards on working time to provide a framework for regulated hours of work, daily and weekly rest periods, and annual holidays. The ILO states that these standards have had positive effects to ensure high productivity while safeguarding workers' physical and mental health.

The concept of productivity can be considered in different aspects, e.g. labour productivity, capital productivity and total factor productivity. Productivity can be recognized as a wide social concept. In 1958, the European Productivity Agency described the concept in the following way. "Productivity is, above all, an attitude of mind. It seeks to continually improve what already exists. It is based on the belief that one can do better today than yesterday and better tomorrow than today." This phrase has often been quoted as a basic approach to the successful application of the productivity improvement movement at high economic growth periods in Japan.

Currently, the issues of working hours are often discussed in the context of work-life balance. Lockwood (2007) suggests that work-life balance is an important lever for employee engagement which will contribute to improvements in productivity. The debates on work-life balance are moving from the negative side of conflict between work and life to the positive side of enrichment between work and life²⁶.

Therefore, reduction of working hours should be applied in the workplace in harmonious and flexible ways to fit the work-family enrichment of the employees. It will improve employee engagement and result in higher productivity. Flexible working time arrangement with shorter working hours based on social dialogue can improve hourly productivity through employee engagement.

Another issue for further promotion of CSR is the difficulties for SMEs. Since small enterprises generally exhibit lower productivity than large enterprises, they believe there is no room for CSR activities. The mindset of this kind of idea within the SMEs has to be changed in that less favorable working conditions hinder the productivity enhancement. Better working conditions can be regarded as an important base for better productivity. However, there are no clear correlations between the size of enterprise, productivity and working conditions.

The scale of productivity is measured as value added at the company level and the individual employee level. Value added at the company level can be influenced by various factors. These include good management and workplace practice, the skills and engagement of employees, constructive labour management relations, capital factors, research and development (R&D), production methods, and technological factors. Working conditions can be regarded as indirect factors which affect direct factors, such as the skills and engagement of employees, and constructive labor-management relations. Therefore, a factor of working conditions is basis for better productivity.

There are many cases which show smaller companies with more favorable working conditions and higher productivity. The important question for a company to ask is whether less favorable working conditions would impede the basement for improvement of productivity and strengthen

competitiveness. It is a question for all the companies regardless of company size.

5. Concluding remarks

CSR is not only a concept but also a movement exploring sustainable development and better relationship between corporation and society. According to the examined survey suggests that common and universal agreements are making progress and influencing larger than before in a globalized Asia for the last decades. However, there is a strong sentiment in Asia that CSR is not regulation and should be based on voluntary initiatives of corporations and the stakeholders. Any unilateral pressure should be carefully treated in due course. The labour dimensions of CSR require participatory and open forum with social partners. There are many multi-stakeholder or tripartite forum on CSR. There is a mix of promotional measures, market-based, voluntary agreements, education and information measures such as seminar and training session.

The labour standards of international CSR instruments play an important role in this context. Caire (1977) identified three possible roles of international labour standards such as freedom of association and the other core labour standards²⁷. Three roles are: 1. how to gauge the influence of the standards in the legal fields, 2. how to assess their educational roles, 3. how to advance their roles through ILO technical assistance in developing countries. Concerning second and third roles, the employers organizations can play a lot of roles. Employers' Organization and its member companies can share the knowledge of better implementation of CSR and international instrument concerning labour CSR. Dissemination and training of relevant information in member companies are important services of employers' organization. Advocacy to the government is getting more importance than before.

Technical cooperation referring to the core labour standards are spreading out to the Asian region. Better Work project by ILO and IFC (International Finance Corporation). Better Work aims to achieve both the improvement of working conditions and promoting sustainable competitive advantages in collaborating companies mostly in textile industries. It helps to set up a joint committee called PICC (Performance Improvement Consultative Committee) composed of workers and management in a factory²⁸.

The common factors of Asian good practices of CSR can be learned each other. There are lot of choices of cooperation among the employers and the stakeholder to be explored. CSR is beneficial for business especially for sustainable business. It can raise employee engagement, productivity, financial performance, branding position, competitive advantage and national competitive advantage. We should consider CSR strategically. The awareness of the positive effect

of CSR is very important for local economy and SMEs. Hence, information and educational activities in local economy should be reached out to the SMEs and Micro enterprises.

There are strong focuses on employees. It can be regarded as internal CSR and the priority is given on employee engagement by CSR. Also, labour and management relations are one of the central issues of the labour dimension of CSR. Industrial disputes are hindering constructive industrial relations.

The labour dimensions of CSR is larger than any definitions of CSR. It is evolving and can be applied in different way. CSR is contextual and situational responses according to diversified background of the countries and region. Amongst this labour dimension, we have many issues to be tackled and promoted as CSR activities. The labour dimension is quite multi-facet. And, this field has strong interrelated relations with labour law. Minimum wage fixing, for example, is the relevant case in point. Wage should be fixed by the voluntary decision within the corporations while minimum wage fixing is giving effects to this voluntary decision.

So-called Ethical sourcing of MNEs and international trade has grown as a pressure for improving CSR performances in exporting industries. Business sectors and Employers Organization in Asia have to champion the value of Asian approach at the time of regional economic integration.

1 This paper is a revised paper which originally drafted, and included in the report of the AOTS workshop for employers organizations of Asia in January 2011 in Bangkok as mimeographed paper. AOTS is The Association for Overseas Technical Scholarship.

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- 11 *Ibid*.
- 12 AOTS is the abbreviation of The Association for Overseas Technical Scholarship. It was integrated with Japan Overseas Development Corporation (JODC) into a new organization named The Overseas Human Resources and Industry Development Association (HIDA) in 2012.
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- 27 Caire, G. (1977) *Freedom of Association and economic development*, Geneva, ILO.
- 28 The author visited in a project site of Better Work Vietnam on the 13th of March 2014. Interview was accepted by the project manager; Mr. Nguen hong Ha, BSS manager; Ms. Ham Quoc Thuan, and the vice president of the host company (Eins Vina co.ltd); Mr. Arnold Jung.

創価大学経営学会会則

- 第1条 本会は創価大学経営学会と称する。
- 第2条 本会の事務所は創価大学経営学部に置く。
- 第3条 本会は広く経営学並びにこれに関連する諸科学の考究およびその普及を図り、併せて研究者相互の協力と便宜を促進し、内外の学会との連絡を図ることを目的とする。
- 第4条 本会は前条の目的を達成するため、次の事業を行なう。
1. 機関誌「創価経営論集」の発行
 2. 研究会ならびに講演会の開催
 3. 公開講座の開催
 4. その他役員会において適当と認めた事項
- 第5条 本会の会員は、次の5種類とする。
1. 正会員 本学専任教員及び創価女子短期大学の教員で入会を希望し総会の承認を得た者
 2. 学生会員 本学の経営学部学生で所定の会費を納めた者
 3. 院生会員 本学の経済学研究科院生で所定の会費を納めた者
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- 第6条 会員は所定の会費を納めなければならない。
会費の額は正会員総会により決定する。
- 第7条 会員は本会の機関誌その他の刊行物の頒布を受け、各種の会合に出席することができる。
- 第8条 総会は正会員によって構成される。
通常総会は毎年1回、臨時総会は必要に応じ会長がこれを招集する。
- 第9条 本会は次の役員を置く。
1. 会長 1名
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- 第10条 会長は経営学部長をもってこれにあてる。
他の役員は総会において選出し、その任期は1年とする。但し再任を妨げない。
- 第11条 役員は次の任務を有する。
会長は会務の全般を統轄し、本会を代表する。
委員は会長の指揮に従って本会の諸業務を担当する。
監査は本会の業務並びに会計を監査する。
- 第12条 会長は通常総会において当該年度の業務報告及び会計報告をし、その承認を得なければならない。
- 第13条 この会則の実施に関して必要な細目は総会の決議により、別に規定する。
- 第14条 この会則及び諸規定の改廃は総会の決議による。

付 則

- 第1条 本会の事業年度は4月1日より始まり、翌年3月31日に終る。
- 第2条 この会則は昭和51年4月2日よりこれを実施する。

創価大学経営学会正会員（五十音順）

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執 筆 者

山 中 馨 本 学 教 授
ドボル・フィリップ 本 学 教 授
栗 山 直 樹 本 学 教 授

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代 表 栗 山 直 樹

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