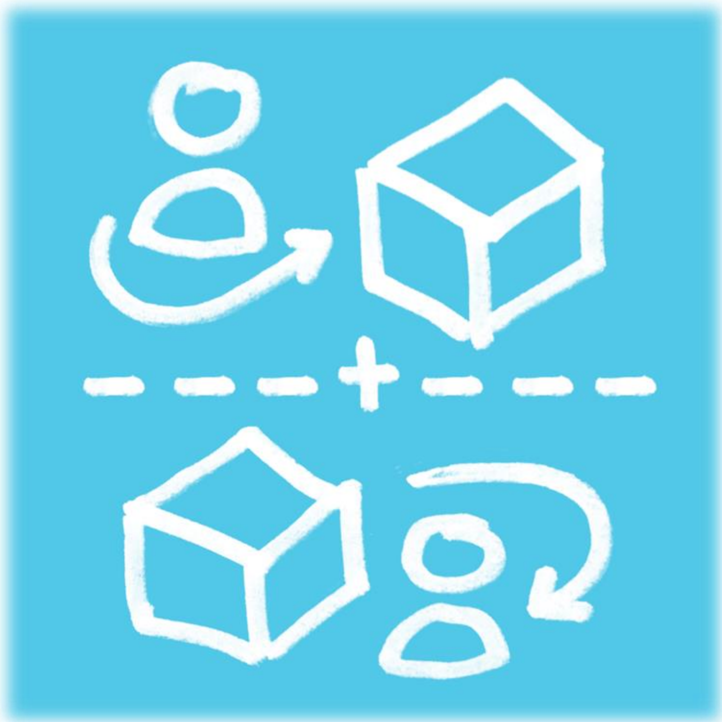
THE BOGO MODEL: A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY

Master Thesis



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Preface

Acknowledgements

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First of all, I would like to thank my coach Pamala Wiepking who has been a great help right from the start. Not only did she provide me with advice, adequate feedback and guidance throughout the process, she also encouraged me to get the best out of myself and this experience. Because of her persistence in asking me questions, I was able to keep improving the quality of my research. The same goes for my co-reader, Lonneker Roza, who I would like to thank for giving me feedback and offering new insights when I needed it.

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I hope you enjoy reading my work!

Pam van Wanrooij

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Executive Summary

Purpose

This thesis was written in order to fill a gap in literature with regard to a quite recent invention: the Buy-One-Give-One model. It will serve as a starting point for a more in-depth research agenda on the subject. First introduced by TOMS Shoes as the One-for-One movement®, the BOGO model has grown in popularity over the past decade. Many have tried to imitate TOMS' success, but only a few have come close (Marquis & Park, 2014). Research on the subject is limited and thus far scholars have placed the BOGO concept into three different business-related research domains: cause-related marketing (Rothstein, 2014; Solomon, 2015), corporate philanthropy (Bansal, 2012; Rollins, 2016; Rothstein, 2014) and social entrepreneurship (Hand, 2011; Jannuzzi, 2012; Joy, 2016; Marquis & Park, 2014; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). The BOGO concept has been praised by those who believe in its potential to create social value. On the other hand, it has been heavily criticized for not being able to address the root cause of complex social problems. In order to find out how effective these BOGO models are for the three most relevant stakeholders (firms, non-profits and beneficiaries) and under what circumstances they thrive the following research question was formulated:

What makes a BOGO model effective from the perspective of firms, non-profits and beneficiaries?

Additionally, the following sub-question was formulated in order to define a best practice to inform relevant actors on how to implement a BOGO model that will benefit society most, taking into consideration the circumstances under which they operate.

What is the best practice to implement a BOGO model for each of the three stakeholders (firms, non-profits and beneficiaries)?

Approach

The literature review looks at the limited information available on the BOGO concept as well as at the three overarching subjects that have been identified: cause-related marketing, corporate philanthropy and social entrepreneurship. Based on the findings of the literature review, indicators of effectiveness were identified for the three most relevant stakeholders involved. Subsequently, based on the three different donation formats as identified by Marquis and Park (2014) three different cases were selected. The donation format represents the way in which the 'Give One' part of the model comes about. The first selected case is Waka Waka in which a similar product is donated. The second case is Warby Parker in which a percentage of the sales or profit is donated. The third case is TOMS Shoes which uses a combination of both approaches by donating similar products as well as a percentage of the sales or profit.

By using an exploratory comparative case study, three BOGO approaches as implemented by the companies were studied in depth. By means of inductive reasoning, the answer to the two research questions was obtained. The analysis was largely based on secondary data, complemented by primary data in the case of Waka Waka.

Findings

Waka Waka works with their own Waka Waka foundation in order to create an impact through their 'Share the Sun' initiative. By distributing solar devices they aim to provide light and energy to people without access to the electricity grid. Warby Parker is an eyewear company, that focuses on being a successful fashion brand. Their social mission is not at the core of the organization, nevertheless they claim to have made a considerable impact through their 'Buy a Pair, Give a Pair' approach in collaboration with the social enterprise VisionSpring. TOMS Shoes, the initiator of the One-for-One movement™, started their BOGO strategy with the donation of shoes, but is now involved in the gift of sight, water, safe birth and kindness in collaboration with over 100 Giving Partners.

The case analyses revealed that the BOGO models of Waka Waka and TOMS Shoes seem to be most effective in increasing sales through their explicit marketing. All three BOGO strategies seem to be equally effective in obtaining HR benefits for the firms. The BOGO models of Waka Waka and Warby Parker seem to be most beneficial to the non-profits by offering the benefit of highest increased funding. The BOGO model of TOMS seems to be most beneficial to the non-profit partners due to the explicit marketing of their Giving Partners, thereby creating increased awareness of the non-profit and cause. The BOGO models of Waka Waka and Warby Parker seem to be most effective for the end beneficiaries. Arguably this is because of their clear focus on two distinct problems they aim to solve: vision impairment and energy poverty. TOMS Shoes impact is harder to measure, partly due to their broad offering and divergent areas of impact. Transparency is a critical point in all three cases and needs considerable improvement in order to verify that the impact reported is actually realized.

Contribution

This research contributes to academic literature by exploring a relatively new concept and relating it to the academic research domains of cause-related marketing, corporate philanthropy and social entrepreneurship. Additionally, this thesis has practical relevance by providing a best practice with regard to the implementation of a BOGO model that is most effective for the business, non-profit and beneficiaries.

Recommendations

Future research should specifically focus on primary data collection in order to investigate the effectiveness of BOGO models. Two important indicators of effectiveness that need additional attention are HR benefits of BOGO and organizational learning between the non-profit and the company. Moreover, in order to improve knowledge from the perspective of non-profits and beneficiaries as this still lags behind, further research should focus on these stakeholders in more depth

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Introduction

"With every product you purchase, TOMS will help a person in need. One for One"

(TOMS Shoes LLC, 2016)

TOMS' founder Blake Mycoskie was the first to introduce the Buy-One-Give-One (BOGO) model. He did not stop at introducing it, he also trademarked it as the One-for-One Movement® (Jannuzzi, 2012). As a pioneer, his BOGO model is probably one of the most successful and well-known initiatives of the one-for-one movement. The initial idea is simple: for every pair of shoes sold, another pair is given to an underprivileged child in a developing nation (Solomon, 2015; TOMS Shoes LLC, 2016). According to Sánchez-Hernández (2015) TOMS' founder Blake Mycoskie was the first to popularize the Buy-One-Give-One business model and although many have tried to imitate its success, only a few have come close (Marquis & Park, 2014). The BOGO model is a quite recent invention and research on the subject is still limited. Thus far scholars have placed the Buy-One-Give-One concept into different business-related research domains. Literature on BOGO has addressed the concept as a form of social entrepreneurship (Hand, 2011; Jannuzzi, 2012; Joy, 2016; Marquis & Park, 2014; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015), corporate philanthropy (Bansal, 2012; Rollins, 2016; Rothstein, 2014) and cause-related marketing (Rothstein, 2014; Solomon, 2015). The reason for choosing either of these three academic concepts is usually based on the interpretation of the importance of the social mission to the company. To be considered a social enterprise the company's social mission needs to be at the core of the undertaking. It needs to be a fully integrated component (Rothstein, 2014). If authors feel this is not the case BOGO is usually referred to as either a form of cause-related marketing or corporate philanthropy.

Over the past decade, the field of business has evolved. Gradually the business world started to realize that their responsibility is not solely making a profit and that they need to think beyond their legal obligations (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Companies have been facing expectations from stakeholders concerning the role they play in society (Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). While the main objective has always been sustaining the business and creating shareholder value, firms now also have a so called Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Runté, Basil, & Deshpande, 2009; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). This pressure to engage in CSR is not displayed by all stakeholders involved; shareholders are still mostly concerned about the financial performance of the firm, whereas the government, consumers and the general public do genuinely care about the company taking on social responsibilities (Adkins, 1999; Carroll & Shabana, 2010). CSR is simply put: "*The expectation that corporations will engage in prosocial behaviour*" (Runté, Basil, & Deshpande, 2009, page 255), indicating that making a profit and performing a company's core activities must go hand in hand with the responsibility to take care of the world in the process. Social and environmental issues need to be taken into consideration and cannot be ignored by businesses. Especially because companies may have the resources and ability to make a difference (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Once CSR might have been a choice or opportunity only exploited by the frontrunners in the field, nowadays CSR is expected and demanded by consumers (Adkins, 1999). This new context has changed the playing field in which companies operate.

The recent necessity of living up to CSR standards, has led to companies incorporating the triple bottom line approach (taking into consideration social, environmental and economic factors) into the core of their operations. This development came with the realization that business and marketing agendas would need to be reviewed (Adkins, 1999). Companies needed to show that they had taken on this extra responsibility. In order to be credible, their efforts had to be visible to consumers and other stakeholders involved, such as the government and the general public (Adkins, 1999). Marketing initiatives were needed in order to effectively communicate a company's social added value to the public (Adkins, 1999; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). One marketing method that evolved over time in order to add a stronger social dimension to traditional business objectives is Cause-Related Marketing (CRM). According to Adkins (1999) CRM is a proven method to effectively convey a company's credibility with regard to their social responsibility to a wider audience. The most well-known definition of cause-related marketing was proposed already in 1988 by Varadarajan & Menon:

"The process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives"
(Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, page 60)

Through time cause-related marketing has become a popular strategic marketing tool for firms (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). The first known example of a successful cause-related marketing campaign dates back to 1983 when American Express generated enough funds to support the renovation of the Statue of Liberty. This also marked the start of the interest in cause-related marketing (Adkins, 1999).

Cause-related marketing can take on different forms. One distinction Human and Terblanche (2013) make is the different causes that can be related to companies involved in cause-related marketing. A cause can be an unbranded cause which usually refers to a development sector or action. But a cause can also be a non-profit or charity which usually indicates that a brand identity or image will exist in people's mind (De Wet, 2010; Human & Terblanche, 2012). This can have implications for the way cause-related marketing is set up and managed.

Which brings us to the next relevant concept: philanthropy. Philanthropy is linked to cause-related marketing as well as Corporate Philanthropy (CP), both identified as possible overarching subjects of the BOGO model. Philanthropy can be defined as:

“Voluntary contributions (money, goods, time or expertise) to the public good, given by individuals and organizations and predominantly benefitting the public good” (translation from Dutch) (Schuyt, Gouwenberg, & Bekkers, 2009, page 18).

Like the field of business, philanthropy has also changed over time. One aspect that has changed is the fact that non-profit organizations rely for a significantly larger part on the generation of commercial revenue (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004). Decreased availability of, and increased competition for public funds as well as individual donations has made it hard for NPOs to gather the needed funds to effectively fight for their cause and has made them increasingly rely on the private sector (Austin, 2003; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Hawkins, 2012; Meyer, 1999; Runté et al., 2009). Cause-related marketing can provide a possible mutually beneficial partnership between a for-profit and a non-profit organization (Austin, 2003; Liu & Ko, 2011).

Corporate philanthropy is another way to combine a for-profit company with pursuing philanthropic efforts. Corporate philanthropy can be described as:

“The voluntary business giving of money, time or in-kind goods, without any direct commercial benefit, to one or more organizations whose core purpose is to benefit the community’s welfare.” (Madden, Scaife, & Crissman, 2006, page 49)

Even though cause-related marketing and corporate philanthropy are nowadays two distinct academic research areas, Varadarajan and Menon (1988) believe cause-related marketing originally emerged from corporate philanthropy. In their article: “Cause-related marketing: A coalignment of marketing strategy and corporate philanthropy”, they see the emergence of CRM as *“a new form of corporate philanthropy based on the rationale of profit-motivated giving”* (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, page 58). The distinction they later draw between CRM and corporate philanthropy is based on the source of the money that donated. Corporate philanthropy contributions usually come from a designated philanthropic foundation budget, while CRM donations originate from the marketing budget (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988).

The Buy-One-Give-One model can therefore easily be identified as a way to operationalize a cause-related marketing partnership as well as the engagement in corporate philanthropy. However, according to some, the Buy-One-Give-One movement is more than just that, it is: *“a revolutionary business model based on creating for-profit companies with a non-profit mission”* (Sánchez-Hernández, 2015, page 324), thereby indicating that the BOGO principle is part of a company’s core business. Marquis and Park (2014) agree and argue that BOGO is: *“a model of social entrepreneurship that is likely to increase in prevalence and power”* (Marquis & Park, 2014, page 28). These scholars consequently belong to the group recognizing the BOGO concept as a form of social entrepreneurship.

As mentioned before, research on this business model intended to create commercial as well as social value is limited. The BOGO model has evolved over time since its introduction by TOMS shoes and has been embraced as well as criticized (Marquis & Park, 2014). The model is embraced by those who see its potential to create social change (Haid, 2016; Jannuzzi, 2012; Marquis & Park, 2014; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). However, some have also heavily criticized BOGO for not being able to bring about the social change its supporters believe in (Rothstein, 2014). BOGO initiatives are condemned for presenting the purchase of products as a solution to complex social issues when in reality it is just a band-aid (Janzer & Weinstein, 2015). Nevertheless, a lot of companies have adopted the model and have moulded it into the most effective business case for their firm. Different versions of the BOGO concept have been identified by Jannuzzi (2012): version 1.0 'Treating the symptoms', version 2.0 'Treating the cause' and version 3.0 'restoring health'. By defining these three versions she makes a distinction in how the Buy-One-Give-One approach has an impact on the end beneficiaries, identifying version 3.0 as the most desired approach in which people are empowered to build their own future (Jannuzzi, 2012). Additionally, Marquis and Park (2014) identify different models with regard to how the 'Give One' part of the BOGO models comes about. The different models include: the initial one-for-one model in which an identical product is donated, a money donation as a percentage of sales or profit or a combination of the two (Marquis & Park, 2014). Even though different models, versions and implementation strategies of BOGO have been identified, there is little knowledge on the effectiveness and under what circumstances they thrive.

This research will therefore focus on the various ways the BOGO concept can be implemented and the effectiveness of these approaches. It will subsequently aim to provide more clarity with regard to the concept Buy-One-Give-One and its place in academic literature. As a result, this research will serve as a starting point for a more in depth academic agenda on the Buy-One-Give-One concept. In order to conduct this research, the following research question was formulated:

What makes a BOGO model effective from the perspective of firms, non-profits and beneficiaries?

Based on three case studies effectiveness of three different BOGO strategies will be studied. Effectiveness will then be analysed from three different perspectives. First of all, the analysis will look at the effectiveness of implementing a BOGO strategy for the business. BOGO might initiate an increase in sales, an improved brand image or a more favourable reputation in the mind of potential talented employees. The second perspective that will be taken is that of the non-profit involved. The non-profit might benefit from a BOGO partnership by increased available funding or increased awareness of its cause. The last important stakeholder which will be considered is the beneficiary. Impact on the beneficiaries could be fulfilment of basic needs, but could also extend to the provision of more long-term solutions and empowerment.

The indicators of effectiveness as outlined above are based on the relevant literature that will be discussed in the literature review. Furthermore, based on this literature additional possible indicators were formulated that will be taken into account. Even though all indicators were considered carefully, the exploratory nature of this research may lead to the identification of additional relevant indicators.

When the main research question is answered based on the three case studies, this thesis will also attempt to answer the following sub question:

What is the best practice to implement a BOGO model for each of the three stakeholders (firms, non-profits and beneficiaries)?

This research question will take the answer to the main research question as a starting point and can be used as a guideline for the possible implementation of a BOGO model, initiated by either the non-profit or firm, having an impact on the beneficiary.

By defining a best practice this research might be of societal relevance due to the provision of a deeper insight into the BOGO model and its ways of implementation. This guideline can inform relevant actors on how to implement the model that will benefit society most, while at the same time taking into consideration the specific circumstances under which they operate.

Relevance

The relevance of this research is evident through the gap in academic literature on the BOGO model in general (Rollins, 2016). In the limited literature that is available, scholars do not agree on a distinct conceptualization of Buy-One-Give-One or a clearly defined place in academic literature. The article by Marquis and Park (2014) gives the most comprehensive overview of the BOGO model to date and claims that: *"The Buy-One-Give-One model is not only a viable way to create both commercial and social value but also a model of social entrepreneurship that is likely to increase in prevalence and power."* (Marquis & Park, 2014, p.28)

Additional literature looks into the shift in U.S. philanthropy and international development practices as a result of the implementation of the BOGO model (Rollins, 2016), effect of in-kind giving on local markets (Wydick, Katz, & Janet, 2014), development of the model under external pressures (Joy, 2016) and some general insights into the model (Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). Further information and elaboration on the BOGO model primarily comes from online sources, such as articles on Worldpress (Jannuzzi, 2012), company websites (Warby Parker, 2017c) and university websites (Knowledge@Wharton, 2015). Information derived from these online sources is partly research, partly opinion based. Clear-cut is the fact that since the model's introduction by TOMS Shoes there have been many to embrace but also criticize the model.

As can be concluded there is significantly more what we do not know than what we do know about the BOGO model. Literature available explains little on how the concept works and how it can benefit businesses as well as other involved stakeholders such as partnering non-profit organizations and beneficiaries of the model. This research will therefore not be able to fill this gap in literature entirely, as it is simply too large. However, it does attempt to make a start into filling this gap by comparing different forms of BOGO strategies implemented by organizations, their effectiveness and possible moderators in this relationship.

Research will consequently be relevant for businesses that wish to implement a BOGO model, as the selection of a specific model and its corresponding characteristics may have consequences for its effectiveness. It may also be useful for businesses that already operate a BOGO model, but are criticized for their approach or feel they have not achieved the desired outcome (either in creating social or economic value). Another way in which the research might be relevant for firms is with regard to potential HR benefits: the retention of current employees and the recruitment of potential, talented employees. These potential employees, as well as the current workforce, might value a company's social mission and hence BOGO can be used as a tool to recruit and retain high quality employees (Marquis & Park, 2014). This might also hold for future recruitment practices of the non-profit partner as they might be able to leverage resources and knowledge from the firm during the partnership.

Furthermore, this research will be relevant for non-profit organizations that wish to partner with or have already partnered with firms that operate a BOGO model and who are responsible for creating the social value impact of the model. It is of great importance for these non-profits and charities to be well aware of the impact of these models and how they can be most beneficial for the non-profits and their causes. The last stakeholder whose perspective is analyzed and for whom the research will be relevant are the beneficiaries. They benefit from the implementation of a BOGO model that has the potential to serve at their best interest and is most effective in providing long term solutions. Another party that might benefit from this research are consumers. They can use this knowledge to assess BOGO models and to make well-considered purchase decisions based on the information available.

Literature Review

When exploring the concept of Buy-One-Give-One the limited literature available gives an inconsistent picture of what it entails. Its place in literature is not clear, nor does the literature create a detailed insight into how the BOGO principle is used, set up or managed and when it is most effective and for which parties involved (Joy, 2016; Rollins, 2016).

The Buy-One-Give-One Model

Most scholars that write about the subject refer to the article of Marquis and Park (2014): 'Inside the Buy-One-Give-One model' as the most extensive overview of the subject to date (Joy, 2016; Rollins, 2016). The article of Marquis and Park (2014) gives some insight into the history of the BOGO model and the current structure and characteristics of the model by companies who use it. The article aims to provide a view on the future of the model and its long-term financial sustainability by assessing if the model is a viable way to create social and commercial value or merely just a trend (Marquis & Park, 2014). Marquis and Park (2014) believe that even though it may get harder for companies to effectively implement and leverage some of the inherent benefits of the BOGO model, the model is likely to increase in prevalence and power by using the shared value approach that is becoming more popular in the business world (Marquis & Park, 2014). Evidently not everyone agrees with their stance on the Buy-One-Give-One model. Rothstein (2014) argues that the BOGO concept cannot be regarded as an efficient remedy to solve economic inequality or as a financially sustainable business model for that matter. Janzer and Weinstein (2015) agree in their opinion piece, stating that BOGO initiatives are: *"Flashy but flat efforts that use consumption as the vehicle for participation, and are designed more to create social capital for consumers than to make a positive, global impact."* (Janzer & Weinstein, 2015, para. 2). Many criticize the model (Janzer & Weinstein, 2015; Rothstein, 2014), in particular the BOGO model implemented in the way it was first pursued by TOMS: providing free goods to the poor (Bansal, 2012; Knowledge@Wharton, 2015; Makinwa, 2012; Nemane, 2010; Ritchie, 2016; Wydick et al., 2014). The article of Wydick et al. (2014) substantiates this criticism as their experimental study finds modest evidence to support the claim that donated shoes exhibit negative impacts on local shoe markets. Additionally, it was found that there was no increase in kids' school attendance or improved self-esteem and that kids became slightly more reliant on external aid. Others, however, seem to be positive about Buy-One-Give-One. While acknowledging some negative unintended consequences, these models do have the potential to create positive social change when properly implemented and adjusted where necessary (Bansal, 2012; Haid, 2016; Hand, 2011; Jannuzzi, 2012; Knowledge@Wharton, 2015; Ritchie, 2016; Rollins, 2016; Townsend, 2014).

Blake Mycoskie, founder of TOMS shoes, is basically the pioneer of the Buy-One-Give-One concept when he founded his company in 2006. This serial entrepreneur decided to combine profit with a social mission after his personal experience during a holiday in Argentina. While traveling around the country he was confronted with children growing up without adequate shoes to protect their feet (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017b). Startled by this reality he also met a woman who voluntarily collected shoes from donors to distribute them to children who needed them. Being dependent on donations however meant very little control over the supply of shoes (Solomon, 2015). In order to remove this dependency altogether and at the same time provide these children with a constant supply of shoes, Blake decided to start his own shoe company incorporating a business model that would give away one pair of shoes to a child in need for every pair sold (Solomon, 2015). The One-for-One movement® was born and after a surprisingly spectacular start Blake was able to donate 10,000 shoes at his First Shoe Drop in the fall of 2006 (Solomon, 2015). This simple idea has grown into a global movement and TOMS has distributed over 70 million pairs of shoes since its founding in 2006 (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017b). After its inception, a lot of companies tried to imitate TOMS' success by implementing similar business models. Some of them managed to become successful (e.g. Warby Parker), some did not (e.g. Two Degrees Food). Over time, partly forced by critics, the BOGO model changed and evolved from purely in-kind giving into various different implementation methods (Knowledge@Wharton, 2015; Marquis & Park, 2014).

So, what does the available literature say about the characteristics of these Buy-One-Give-One models, how can they be best understood and how do they differ from one another? With regard to the business model itself, four important characteristics have been identified up until now.

First of all, most BOGO models have been implemented by companies in the consumer product industry, particularly apparel, because these products allow people to express their unique style while at the same time (publicly) supporting a cause (Marquis & Park, 2014; Rollins, 2016; Solomon, 2015).

Second, prices for BOGO products rarely top $100. Higher prices make it harder to operate a BOGO model since cost of donations increase with the price of the product (Marquis & Park, 2014; Solomon, 2015). In most cases donations are taken from profits and therefore companies have typically chosen one of three approaches to address this cost: charging a premium, reducing costs or accepting lower profit margins (Marquis & Park, 2014). Premium prices are a viable option for companies operationalizing a BOGO model since a study by Nielsen (2014) found that 55 percent of the people are willing to pay extra for products from companies committed to positive social and environmental impact. This number has been up 10 percent since 2011 and is still growing considerably (The Nielsen Company, 2014).

The third aspect of the BOGO model is that, next to the social impact it hopes to create, it has also proven to be a good marketing tool for creating economic value (Jannuzzi, 2012; Marquis & Park, 2014; Solomon, 2015). The BOGO message is simple and clear and it engages people. Through the tangibility of the proposition the social impact is personal and easy to understand (Marquis & Park, 2014; Solomon, 2015). Moreover, research has also shown that people are more inclined to take part in an initiative when they feel connected to the person they are helping (Knowledge@Wharton, 2015). Adding a social cause to a company may also attract a broader segment of potential customers and create a more long-lasting relationship with them to ensure future purchases (Marquis & Park, 2014; Solomon, 2015). Next to attracting customers, attracting high-quality employees to the firm is another intangible benefit of BOGO as a marketing strategy (Marquis & Park, 2014). These people value working for a company that cares about its social impact. The fact that it is such a powerful marketing tool has also been one of the reasons for criticism. Rothstein (2014) argues that instead of advertising a simplistic marketing message BOGO companies would be better off focusing on providing a fair living wage across their supply chain. Furthermore, concerns have been expressed regarding the possible overstating of the social impact of these models for marketing purposes rather than real support for a social cause (Bansal, 2012). On the other hand, there are also companies that use a BOGO approach and practically eliminate any marketing about their social mission (Marquis & Park, 2014).

The fourth and last aspect of the model that has been more thoroughly analysed by scholars is the different type of donations (Marquis & Park, 2014). As has been pointed out, TOMS shoes' initial BOGO model has changed over time. TOMS shoes started by pure in-kind donation of a similar product they sold. However, the manner in which the 'Give-One' part of the model comes about has evolved. Some companies have implemented the basic format by donating the produced item themselves, distributing it through a non-profit partner or donating matching funds to a partner organization. Although the name would suggest otherwise some firms use the Buy-One-Give-One concept even though they donate cash or a different product all together. The last donation model identified by Marquis and Park (2014) is a combination of the two in which companies donate a product as well as a percentage of the profit or sales.

While Marquis and Park (2014) define different business and donation models with regard to the BOGO concept, Jannuzzi (2012) also distinguishes between different approaches but from another perspective. She makes a distinction in the social impact different versions of the model can make, to take a more sophisticated approach towards evaluating outcomes of these BOGO models. She defines three different versions, Version 1.0: 'Treating the Symptom', Version 2.0: 'Treating the Cause' and Version 3: 'Restoring Health' (Jannuzzi, 2012). These versions are more directed towards the effectiveness of the BOGO concept regarding the social value it creates for the beneficiaries. She argues that the way in which the donation is made is very important with regard to the social impact a BOGO strategy can achieve. In her argument, she focuses specifically on the end beneficiaries and how they are affected by the donations. In version 1.0 the donations might fulfil a immediate basic need, but fail to create a long-term sustainable solution which helps solve the underlying problem (Jannuzzi, 2012; Knowledge@Wharton, 2015). The underlying problem is usually much more complex and not solvable by a simple donation (Ritchie, 2016). An example is the initial model of TOMS shoes, in which a pair of shoes was donated for every pair sold. Even though these donations might be made with the best intentions at heart, they do not solve the underlying problem, which in this case is poverty. Furthermore, these types of donations might actually create additional problems like the disruption of local markets (Bansal, 2012; Jannuzzi, 2012; Knowledge@Wharton, 2015; Wydick et al., 2014), creating dependency on irregular donations (Bansal, 2012; Janzer & Weinstein, 2015; Knowledge@Wharton, 2015), reinforcing negative stereotypes of people in developing countries and portraying western countries as the rescuers of the 'Third World' (Jannuzzi, 2012; Miller, 2014). Version 2.0 describes a BOGO strategy that goes beyond pure in-kind donation. Instead it focuses on job creation. The donated product is either produced in developing countries, providing jobs in local markets, or its distribution and sales involves local businessmen and women that receive training to do the job (Jannuzzi, 2012). An example is the BOGO model of Warby Parker. They partnered with the non-profit Vision Spring to train men and women in developing countries to give basic eye exams and sell glasses to their community at an affordable price (Jannuzzi, 2012; Warby Parker, 2017c). Dependency on donations is exchanged for more empowerment and dignity of choice as people can decide for themselves if they actually need and want glasses (Jannuzzi, 2012). The last version, version 3.0, would be the most ideal version according to Jannuzzi, as it restores health in the developing countries. It focuses on fulfilling higher level needs by empowering local people to build their own businesses. The model respects and acknowledges the capacity of people in these countries to build their own future. People in developing countries are not incapable of working or running their own company, most of the times they simply lack the necessary infrastructure to generate resources or wealth for themselves (Miller, 2014; Ritchie, 2016). Jannuzzi names The Naked Hippie as the embodiment of this version of BOGO, by fulfilling higher level needs. For every t-shirt the Naked Hippie sold, profit was invested in micro loans to empower people in developing countries to support themselves (Jannuzzi, 2012) However, this makes us question the long-term sustainability of this BOGO model since the Naked Hippie has gone out of business without any apparent reason.

These three versions identified by Jannuzzi (2012) together with the donation models identified by Marquis and Park (2014) are the most important indicators for the selection of cases to be studied. While Marquis and Park (2014) focus mostly on what to consider as a business when implementing a BOGO model, Jannuzzi (2012) shifts the focus to the impact a BOGO strategy can have on the end beneficiaries. By choosing the three donation formats distinguished by Marquis and Park (2014), to which I also refer as the 'Give-One' part of BOGO, and consequently analysing its effectiveness from the perspective of the three most relevant stakeholders this study will also be able to analyse if the donation models coincide with different BOGO versions identified by Jannuzzi (2012). Does the 'Give-One' part of the model determine which version of BOGO a company can achieve, thereby increasing its social impact? And how do these choices of donations impact the non-profits involved? These questions have led to the main research question which will hopefully be answered by the selection of cases based on seemingly different ways to deliver the 'Give-One' part of BOGO. Additionally, by also involving the non-profit perspective, this study can add to the perspectives Jannuzzi (2012) and Marquis and Park (2014) offer. In addition to the business model characteristics, Marquis and Park (2014) have found three common features of successful BOGO companies namely: an authentic story, choosing the right market and creating effective messaging.

The literature available on the BOGO model does not provide us with a clear or exhaustive overview of the concept because it is simply too limited. Conclusions drawn from studies that have been conducted need to be repeated to be verified, new information analyzed and gaps in literature need to be addressed. A lot of opinion pieces have been written since the initial introduction of the model, but academic literature lags behind. This also means that scholars have not reached a consensus on where to place the Buy-One-Give-One model in existing literature. As explained earlier in the introduction social entrepreneurship is one of the fields in which the BOGO model has been placed (Hand, 2011; Jannuzzi, 2012; Joy, 2016; Marquis & Park, 2014; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). Some who doubt its inherent social mission tend to lean more towards corporate philanthropy (Bansal, 2012; Rollins, 2016; Rothstein, 2014) or describe it as a distinct form of cause-related marketing (Rothstein, 2014; Solomon, 2015). As these are the most relevant concepts with regard to this new entrant in the academic literature, they will be taken into consideration for this literature review.

Cause-Related Marketing

One field that the BOGO concept has been placed into by scholars is Cause-Related Marketing. Scholars and other people writing on this subject agree on the fact that it is a strong and effective marketing tool, regardless of whether they consider this a positive or negative fact. Some articles on BOGO therefore simply claim it is the latest embodiment of cause-related marketing (Rothstein, 2014; Solomon, 2015). So, what exactly is cause-related marketing (CRM)?

1983 marked the beginning of cause-related marketing. In this year, the Statue of Liberty was successfully renovated partly through a cause-related marketing campaign set up by American Express that generated enough funds to support the operation (Adkins, 1999; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). Varadarajan and Menon (1988) were the first to publish an article on CRM as a distinct academic domain in which they created the initial conceptualization of cause-related marketing, formulated as follows:

"The process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives".

(Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, page 60)

This definition is already quite elaborate and touches upon the three most important stakeholders in the process: consumers, businesses and non-profit organizations (NPOs) (Runté et al., 2009). The transactional nature of CRM implicated by this definition is in congruence with one of the stages of collaboration between non-profits and companies, identified by Austin (2003). His research showed that cross-sector collaborations can evolve over time, usually going through three stages. Each stage displaying different levels of engagement, scope, resource deployment, interaction, complexity and strategic value (Austin, 2003). The first stage is the philanthropic stage, which represents the most common and traditional form of relationships companies have with NPOs. At this stage, the relationship is purely based on charitable giving from the firm to the NPO without real engagement. The second stage is the transactional stage. In this stage, there is more of a two-way value exchange in which both parties provide each other with benefits. Often it revolves around a particular, well-defined activity. The last stage identified by Austin (2003) is called the integrative stage in which the two parties take part in a strategic alliance and the alliance becomes part of the organizations' mission. (Austin, 2003).

The definition of CRM created by Varadarajan and Menon (1988) seems to match with the transactional stage defined in the model by Austin (2003). They mention in their article that a short-term focus in CRM seems to be most prevalent, but they do also acknowledge that a medium- or long-term focus may be desirable looking at the public relations potential (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). This argument is supported by Meyer (1999), stating that customers prefer companies that commit to a specific cause for a longer period of time. Looking at these arguments, the ideal form of CRM would lean more towards the third stage of Austin's model (2013) in which the two parties form a social alliance. The intensity of the collaboration between the company and the NPO might also depend on the decision to use cause-related marketing as a strategic or tactical marketing tool. When using CRM as a strategic tool a long-term commitment is made and resources are allocated to the CRM initiative. CRM as a tactic tool is a way to enhance the effectiveness of sales promotions efforts requiring little investment (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988).

CRM has become increasingly popular in the last decades (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hawkins, 2012; Runté et al., 2009). The reason for this increased collaboration between non-profits and firms over time is threefold, according to Hawkins (2012).

The first reason is that NPOs have a harder time raising funds. Due to decreased availability of philanthropic funds competition for those funds has become tougher (Hawkins, 2012; Meyer, 1999). Moreover, government funding has been shrinking (Austin, 2003; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004). This has made them increasingly rely on the private sector for funding (Austin, 2003; Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004; Hawkins, 2012).

Second, companies have been forced to incorporate CSR into their bottom line and brand image, to acknowledge increasing pressures of stakeholders regarding the role they play in society (Hawkins, 2012; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). Besides, companies also began to realize that how they incorporate this social responsibility has a direct impact in their business success (Austin, 2003; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). This highlights two crucial aspects of CRM to firms, the potential to help a worthy cause while at the same time improving corporate performance.

The third reason Hawkins (2012) mentions is that consumers increasingly view ethical consumption as a way to make their donations to non-profits. It is an easy and convenient way to support a cause, without any hassle (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013). Several surveys have shown that consumers find the support of a cause by a company important and sometimes even critical in making purchasing decisions. The majority of the people questioned would switch brands, try a new product or increase purchases if a product would be linked to a charity's cause (Carringer, 1994; Farquarson, 2000; Meyer, 1999).

With the growth of CRM and cross-sector collaboration, the subject has grown to enjoy increasing academic interest. The concept has evolved since 1988 and while many acknowledge Varadarajan and Menon's definition (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006) some have tried to add something to this definition to incorporate different or extra aspects. An example is the definition by Boenigk and Schuchardt (2013) used in their research paper investigating CRM in luxury campaigns. They state that CRM is: "*A strategic partnership between a for-profit firm and a charitable organization that produces a promotional marketing campaign*" (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013, page 101). They deliberately want to emphasize the strategic dimension to CRM, going beyond pure transaction based promotion. This definition shows that the stages of collaboration proposed by Austin (2003) are more on a continuum and that CRM is not necessarily fixed at the transactional phase (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013). Runté, Basil and Deshpande (2009) take on the non-profit perspective in their research but do still define CRM as keeping the focus on the firms profit generation. Nevertheless, they take a broader perspective similar to Boenigk and Schuchardt (2013) by "*linking a firm's marketing activities to an NPO's mission and identity, satisfies societal expectations for social engagement*" (Runté et al., 2009, page 265).

Most research in the domain of CRM has focused on consumer response and attitudes (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Runté et al., 2009). Gupta and Pirsch (2006) conclude that this has led to the somewhat inaccurate perception that CRM is solely transaction-based. With regard to different perspectives most articles focus on either CRM from a firm or customer's perspective, whereas literature on the NPO's perspective is clearly more limited (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013; Hawkins, 2012; Runté et al., 2009).

For the companies involved in CRM, as well as the NPOs, it is important to know how consumers perceive CRM campaigns. The most important question consumers ask themselves when evaluating CRM initiatives is: how credible and honest are the companies' intentions for participating in CRM? An initiative can either be regarded as cause-exploitive or cause-beneficial (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). This depends on some factors that influence people's feelings about CRM and the parties involved. One of these factors is the perceived cause-brand fit of the CRM initiative. When this cause-brand or cause-product fit seems sensible to consumers, they are more likely to see the collaboration as cause-beneficial (Hawkins, 2012). Therefore, CRM partners need to support causes that are close to the company's core business (Barone, Norman, & Miyazaki, 2007). This will help them increase their credibility and maximize the impact of their CRM initiative.

Another factor that influences people's decision about whether a company is exploiting or helping a cause is based on the donation format and magnitude. Consumers use information such as the amount of the donation to determine the company's motives (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013). Mixed outcomes have been reported on the importance of the donation magnitude (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013; Dahl & Lavack, 1995; Human & Terblanche, 2012; Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001).

Human and Terblanche (2012) found in their study that it does not matter if the donation is large or small, nor does it matter if the NPO is well-known or not. Consumers do prefer exact quantifiers over percentage of profit or price or any vague expression of the donations. Companies are seen as more trustworthy when they are transparent about the exact amount of money being donated (Grau, Garretson, & Pirsch, 2007; Human & Terblanche, 2012).

Consumer attitude towards cause-related marketing campaigns or partnerships is also influenced by how familiar people are with the cause and the company. For firms that have a familiar and positive image in consumers' minds, it has been proven that a CRM partnership can be successful, regardless of the fact if people are familiar with the cause or not (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005). For NPOs goes that especially the ones that that score low in cause familiarity in peoples' minds are likely to benefit from a CRM partnership (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005). Additionally, for NPOs it is also essential to be aware of any pre-existing attitudes towards the company they partner up with, as this will affect consumers' perception towards the cause (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005).

An element of CRM that has been widely researched next to consumer attitude, is rewards and risks involved when participating in CRM campaigns. Most studies focus on the firms' perspectives, fortunately through time also the charity's perspective has been highlighted. A lot of potential benefits and risks have been identified starting at rewards for firms. As companies are usually initiating these CRM partnerships there are certainly potential benefits for them. These include increased sales and profit (Barone, Miyazaki, & Taylor, 2000; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Meyer, 1999; Mohr et al., 2001), enhanced corporate reputation and brand image (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001, 2014; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Meyer, 1999), differentiation from competitors (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; Mohr et al., 2001) and employee impact (on potential as well as current employees) (Berger, Cunningham, & Drumwright, 2006; Meyer, 1999). Next to benefits, taking part in a CRM initiative naturally also involves certain risks. These risks can be a financial risks (Hawkins, 2012), the risk of customer scepticism (Hawkins, 2012; Meyer, 1999) which hurts the credibility and trustworthiness of the company and the difficulty in measuring social contributions (Hawkins, 2012; Meyer, 1999; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). The risks and benefits for NPOs have also become clear in more recent studies. The most obvious gains for a charity are increased funding and awareness of their cause (Hawkins, 2012; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). Furthermore the NPO can get access to resources of the firms and it can increase its credibility and accountability especially when the firm has a strong reputation and the NPO has enjoyed little prior awareness (Hawkins, 2012; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Runté et al., 2009). For NPOs, working together with corporations might be controversial and possibly risky. Therefore, before NPOs enter into a CRM partnership they should think carefully about the potential risks. These include damaging the NPOs image (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hawkins, 2012), wasting NPOs' resources on CRM partnerships that are ineffective (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hawkins, 2012) and decreasing individual donations as people feel they have already donated through their purchases (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hawkins, 2012).

NPOs should first consider these risks carefully before partnering up with a firm as choosing the wrong partner can be disastrous for the credibility and image of a charity. Of course this applies to firms as well, as we have seen that fit is an important determinant the success of the CRM initiative (Basil & Herr, 2003). In order for the CRM partnership to be successful for firms NPOs should be able to offer access to new customer groups, as well as having a well-recognised ethical reputation in the field (Liu & Ko, 2011).

As we can see from the available literature, the beneficiary's perspective is missing. This is also where the critics step in. Even though CRM might be able to create social as well as economic value, scholars are afraid that firms use it primarily for their own advantage. This might be harmful for charities, but also for the end beneficiaries for which social value is supposed to be created. Hawkins (2012) described CRM as it has been considered by many people over the last decades: *"A win-win-win scenario where NPOs are able to raise funds and awareness on the backs of corporate marketing expertise and resources, corporations are able to sell products while improving their corporate image, and consumers are able to participate in philanthropy while going about their daily shopping activities."* (Hawkins, 2012, page 1783). Although this of course looks like the perfect approach to create maximum value, it also seems too good to be true. And some scholars say it is. Eikenberry and Nickel (2009) have defined cause-related marketing differently: consumption philanthropy (Eikenberry, 2009). By using catchy phrases issues are made 'consumable' by CRM (Hawkins, 2012), but it is questionable if this simplicity will help to actually solve these complex problems. By pretending that purchasing products will solve world problems companies try to individualize solutions to collective problems (Eikenberry, 2009). Resources do not necessarily go to the neediest causes, but the ones that can be best marketed. As already mentioned, customers might feel they have already done their share and refrain from donating beyond this individual market transaction (Eikenberry, 2009; Hawkins, 2012). Another important argument against CRM is that by taking part, companies may want to obscure the fact that the market in which they operate creates some of the very problems philanthropy aims to solve (Eikenberry, 2009). People might be lured into the assumption that consuming more means creating more social value, whereas in reality they may very well be doing more harm than good, feeding the systems and institutions that contribute to many problems in the first place. Recently criticism has grown when it became apparent that value created for beneficiaries is often hard to measure and has not been the subject of much research, questioning the fact whether cause-related marketing is at all effective (Hawkins, 2012). Furthermore, the basic underlying assumption of CRM is questioned by Eikenberry (2009). Making philanthropy easy and convenient prevents people from having to be morally engaged and reduces philanthropy to a simple market transaction (Eikenberry, 2009).

Corporate Philanthropy

Corporate Philanthropy (CP) is an academic concept that has been around for a while. It has gone through a significant transformation throughout the past decades. Whereas motivations for corporate giving started off as being mainly altruistic, most companies now focus on some form of strategic philanthropy (Porter & Kramer, 2002). Even though the financial crisis led to a slight drop in corporate philanthropic efforts, various organizations in Europe and the US showed an increase in total donations in 2010 and 2011 after the decrease in 2009 (CECP, 2012; Gautier & Pache, 2015; The Chronicle of Philanthropy, 2012). From 2012 onwards donations have remained stable at quite high levels and measuring and monitoring societal outcomes has become more common practice (CECP, 2016). As already touched upon in the introduction, companies nowadays are expected to go 'beyond their call of duty', referring to a company's economic, legal and ethical obligations (Collins, 1993; Gautier & Pache, 2015). CSR has become a buzz-word in current business practices as well as in business literature and corporations have acknowledged their added responsibility in addressing social and environmental issues (Brammer & Millington, 2004; Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Collins, 1993; Gautier & Pache, 2015; Kapstein, 2001). Corporate philanthropy is one way to address CSR issues and therefore identified as being part of the CSR approaches companies pursue (Brammer & Millington, 2004; Liket & Simaens, 2013).

Even though corporate philanthropy is an academic concept that has been around for years, there have been divergent stances on the subject. A lot of debate has been going on about the motivations behind it, the desired outcomes and the degree to which CP is supposed to benefit the company and society (Gautier & Pache, 2015). The most elaborate definition of the concept is given by Madden et al. (2006) who define corporate philanthropy as:

"The voluntary business giving of money, time or in- kind goods, without any direct commercial benefit, to one or more organizations whose core purpose is to benefit the community's welfare"
(Madden, Scaife, & Crissman, 2006, page 49).

In this definition is becomes clear that CP is not solely about donating money. Corporate philanthropy can resolve around giving cash or securities (FASB, 1993; Gautier & Pache, 2015; Liket & Simaens, 2013; Maas & Liket, 2011; Seifert, Morris, & Bartkus, 2003), donation of stocks and shares (Himmelstein, 1997), in-kind gifts of products or services (FASB, 1993; Liket & Simaens, 2013; Maas & Liket, 2011; Seifert et al., 2003), use of facilities or managerial expertise (FASB, 1993; Seifert et al., 2003) or employee volunteering (Liket & Simaens, 2013; Sagawa & Segal, 2001; Seifert et al., 2003). Furthermore, the definition touches upon the non-reciprocity principle as Schwartz did in his conceptualization of CP in 1968: "*Corporate philanthropy is a one way flow of resources from a donor to a donee, a flow voluntarily generated by the donor though based upon no expectation that a return flow, or economic quid pro quo, will reward the act*" (Schwartz, 1968, page 480). Even though no direct commercial benefit is sought, it has been widely acknowledged that CP can and in most cases is expected to yield some intangible indirect benefits (Gautier & Pache, 2015; Maas & Liket, 2011). Consequently, the intention behind engagement in CP can be placed somewhere on the continuum of purely altruistic to profit-seeking. Gautier and Pache (2013) identify three motivations for CP that can be placed on this continuum.

The first motive is the most altruistic one in which CP is identified as a commitment to the common good. This rationale acknowledges that there is at least some degree of selflessness to the charitable contributions of companies (Gautier & Pache, 2015). The non-reciprocity condition of CP is an important characteristic in this most altruistic version of CP. The relationship between the two parties is not one of exchange of value, but a transfer of wealth from one party to another (Godfrey, 2005). This altruistic form of CP is seen as the expression of a company's care for society by addressing the need of several stakeholders in this society (Gautier & Pache, 2015).

The second motive describes CP as a community investment. Also called pseudo-altruism by Collins (1993). This rationale acknowledges that even though intentions of CP might be altruistic, companies do enjoy some form of indirect benefit from engagement in CP. CP is still primarily expected and intended to benefit society, but will also be of long-term value for the company itself (Collins, 1993; Shaw & Post, 1993; Stendardi, 1992). By addressing the needs of society the firm can benefit from a stable and safe community with social cohesion, an educated workforce and a well-functioning infrastructure (Gautier & Pache, 2015). CP in this form is seen more as an investment and can yield a competitive advantage if managed in the right way (Gautier & Pache, 2015; Porter & Kramer, 2002; Shaw & Post, 1993).

The last motive as identified by Gautier and Pache (2013) is CP as marketing. This rationale infers no altruistic intention and is on the other extreme of the continuum: the profit-seeking side. Firms have become more and more eager to communicate and inform the public about their charitable contributions in order to create goodwill and improve the company's image (Gautier & Pache, 2015). There is, however, a big downside to seeing CP as a form of marketing, as it blurs the lines between philanthropy and other forms of marketing related philanthropic engagement such as CRM. The non-reciprocity principle seems to be jeopardized by this form of CP posing the question if CP as a marketing strategy is still philanthropy (Gautier & Pache, 2015).

As already identified, literature and practice shifted from a more altruistic orientation of CP to a more strategic approach to the concept (Bruch & Walter, 2005). Most companies nowadays use strategic philanthropy to get the most out of their philanthropic efforts making CP mutually beneficial for the company and society (Porter & Kramer, 2002; Rumsey & White, 2009). By pursuing more long-term commitments companies defend their selves from charges of opportunism and increase their legitimacy with consumers, employees and the community (Simon, 1995). Long-term partnerships also have the potential to be more effective in creating long-term sustainable impact. Strategic philanthropy, first introduced by Porter and Kramer (2002), is by Bruch and Walter proposed as the most effective approach to CP. They describe strategic philanthropy as the alignment of the core competencies of the company with their philanthropic efforts while at the same time taking into account stakeholder and market expectations to benefit from the effect of their philanthropic efforts in the marketplace (Bruch & Walter, 2005). Bruch and Walter (2005) as well as Porter and Kramer (2002) do acknowledge that few companies have actually been able to achieve this win-win situation in which sustainable social solutions are created along with significant economic returns. Companies lack a cohesive strategy for their philanthropic efforts, making their contributions diffuse and unfocused (Bruch & Walter, 2005; Porter & Kramer, 2002). In addition, impact should be measured and monitored to avoid wasting resources and ensure that both society and the firm enjoy maximum benefits (Maas & Liket, 2011). In order to determine whether or not an effort can be regarded as good philanthropy a company must determine whether the desired social change is so beneficial to the company that the organization would pursue the change even if no one ever knew about it (Porter & Kramer, 2002). This acid test is also helpful to retain a company's credibility in the marketplace by ensuring that philanthropic contributions are not merely used as a marketing tool taking its place on the profit-seeking side of the continuum.

Corporate philanthropy might be hard to manage, but can also be really rewarding for both the company and cause involved. There are several motives for firms to engage in CP efforts as well as factors influencing the amount of donation, nature of the CP partnership and choice of cause. Gautier and Pache (2015) identify drivers on different organizational levels. These motives differ on the analytical level but also seem to be highly contextual (Liket & Simaens, 2013; Rumsey & White, 2009).

The most basic individual driver to engage in CP is the manager's tendency to maximize profit (Gautier & Pache, 2015). Even though CP efforts might not result in a direct profit increase, long-term results are worth pursuing. Profit maximization can be achieved through the creation of goodwill and improving a company's image and reputation (Brammer & Millington, 2005; Brown, Helland, & Kiholm, 2006; Godfrey, 2005; Shaw & Post, 1993; Stendardi, 1992).

Next to individual drivers of CP, there are also a lot of firm-level drivers that influence and shape the patterns of corporate giving (Gautier & Pache, 2015). The size of the company has been proven to significantly influence the corporate donation magnitude. Firms with more resources have the tendency to give more, as they attract more attention and are subject to higher expectations from the general public and the government with regard to socially responsible behavior (Adams & Hardwick, 1998; Brammer & Millington, 2004, 2006; Galaskiewicz, 1985). Scholars have also found that boards with a higher proportion of women and minorities are more likely to engage in high contributions (Coffey & Wang, 1992; Marquis, Marquis, & Hall, 2013). Ownership structure of the company did not seem to significantly effect CP efforts (Gautier & Pache, 2015).

The last category of drivers identified by Gautier and Pache (2013) are the field level or industry drivers. Research has shown that firms in oligopoly and monopoly structures give substantially more than their counterparts in highly competitive industries (Gautier & Pache, 2015). Additionally Brammer and Millington (2004) claim that "*Firms in socially and environmentally sensitive industries with a consumer focus were found to have higher levels of relative and absolute expenditure*" (Brammer & Millington, 2004, page 1430), these industries are especially visible to outside stakeholders due to the externalities associated to the core business (Gautier & Pache, 2015).

Corporate philanthropy can result in considerable benefits for companies as well as the causes involved. Most studies into the outcomes of CP focus on the effect it has on the financial performance of the company. Results of these studies paint a mixed picture (Liket & Simaens, 2013). The fact that CP outcomes are often indirect or intangible makes it hard to measure or evaluate the consequences of a company's philanthropic efforts (Gautier & Pache, 2015; Maas & Liket, 2011). Some scholars have found a positive relationship between CP and financial performance but are cautious as to argue that CP directly increases shareholder value (Patten, 2008; Su & He, 2010). Financial performance will not increase, regardless of the size of the contribution, if CP efforts are not regarded as genuine by the stockholders (Godfrey, 2005; Patten, 2008). Financial performance is, however, likely to increase by the indirect effect CP might have on corporate image, reputation and increased goodwill and trust (Godfrey, 2005). Additionally, CP can help increase a company's legitimacy in the marketplace (Liket & Simaens, 2013).

CP can also be used as a tool to influence a company's HR practices. CP efforts have a proven positive impact on employee morale, being a source of cohesion, pride and increased productivity, benefiting the company in the long run (Brammer & Millington, 2005; Shaw & Post, 1993). CP is an opportunity to improve work engagement as it boosts employee goodwill and reinforces trust which consequently lowers turnover intention (Lee, Choi, Moon, & Babin, 2014; Porter & Kramer, 2002) Furthermore, it may also help to attract and retain talented workers (Collins, 1993; Porter & Kramer, 2002). CP can be used to signal to potential employees that a company goes beyond pursuing only their bottom line and is caring and compassionate. Employees who perceive themselves as having socially responsible values tend to be attracted to companies that share these values and therefore these candidates could be drawn to a company due to their CP efforts (Evans & Davis, 2011; Roza, 2016).

A critical note that must be made is the fact that most research on outcomes of CP is focused on outcomes for firms. Only a few have also addressed consequences for societies and local communities. Local communities, it is argued, benefit from CP, especially when pursuing strategic CP as formulated by Porter and Kramer (2002), because companies are better able to compete when focused philanthropic efforts create the ideal local competitive context (Porter & Kramer, 2002). However, mixed results on the actual impact report that local interferences not always necessarily positive. Additionally scholars report a lack of measurable and quantifiable results of CP's impact on society (Godfrey & Hatch, 2007; Nevarez, 2000), which is troubling as CP is supposed to be beneficial for both company and society (Liket & Simaens, 2013).

Again, the perspective of society and non-profits that might be involved in corporate philanthropy is lacking. Few scholars have taken this perspective. Rumsey and White (2009) have done some research into the non-profit perspective of a CP partnership to see how managers of these NPOs perceive benefits, corporate motives and communication patterns. Motivations for corporations to engage in CP were found to be mixed, but did not need to be altruistic by default with regard to the NPO managers (Rumsey & White, 2009). Strategic philanthropy was preferred by NPO managers as they believed it resulted in higher donations and even though more effort was required at the end of the day it was worth being more involved (Rumsey & White, 2009). Furthermore, the majority of the CP nonprofit partners felt that the partnerships were really mutually beneficial.

Some managers complained about an obsessive marketing interest, indicating that companies should be careful with their desire to publicize every 'good deed'. Porter and Kramer (2002) warn in their article that focus on public relations will sacrifice opportunities to create social value. Communication must be effective but most of all credible (Bruch & Walter, 2005). Image building seems to be important to NPOs as well as corporations in a CP partnership and has been referred to as "*the unspoken secret between nonprofits and large corporations*" (Rumsey & White, 2009, page 302). Additionally, corporate volunteering has been found to increase NPOs organizational capacity, giving them an insight into alternative practices that could potentially benefit the organization. Furthermore, it can provide additional resources and increase NPO's ability to recruit volunteers (Roza, 2016).

Social Entrepreneurship

The last academic concept BOGO has been associated with by scholars and other authors is social entrepreneurship (SE). It is also the most recent entrant into academic literature. As was the case with CRM and CP scholars have struggled to find consensus on what social entrepreneurship entails and how it can be best conceptualized. Almost every academic article on social entrepreneurship highlights the lack of a clear unified conceptualization (Mair & Martı, 2006; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Santos, 2012; Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009; Thompson, 2002; Weerawardena & Mort, 2006). SE has thus been placed on a broad continuum.

Social entrepreneurship is on the rise due to the some of the same factors that influenced the growth of CRM and CP. Non-profits have been under increasing pressure for financial resources due to tighter government funding, growing competition for donors and increasing needs of the communities they serve. This has led to a more businesslike approach of satisfying their goals, finding new and innovative ways to create value on the market (Mort, Weerawardena, & Carnegie, 2002). Creating a competitive advantage is not just necessary for commercial businesses any longer, but is becoming more and more important for non-profits in order to survive. Another reason for the emergence of social entrepreneurship is the fact that public spending seems to fail the people that need it most. The public funds intended to provide services to satisfy basic human needs are failing poor people in terms of access, quality and affordability. Those needs are increasingly served by social enterprises, who use novel types and combinations of resources to create social value (Mair & Martı, 2006; Seelos & Mair, 2005). Social entrepreneurs are capable of targeting local problems that usually have global relevance. In this way they are able to address complex problems such as the lack of provision of basic needs (Santos, 2012).

A clear conceptualization of social entrepreneurship has been particularly difficult to formulate due to the unique social mission and the dual nature in which social entrepreneurs operate, trying to achieve commercial and social goals simultaneously (Mort et al., 2002). Scholars do agree on the fact that social entrepreneurship is distinctly different from its commercial counterpart in terms of the mission and key operational characteristics (Mort et al., 2002). This central social mission also means that social entrepreneurs face distinctive challenges (Dees, 1998). Due to this complexity Mort et al. (2002) define social entrepreneurship as a multidimensional construct. First of all, social entrepreneurs are driven by a social mission of creating better social value than their competitors by exhibiting virtuous entrepreneurial behavior. Second, they have a balanced judgment, coherent unity of purpose and pursue action in the face of complexity. Thirdly, social entrepreneurs explore and recognize opportunities to create better social value and lastly they display innovativeness, pro-activeness and risk-taking in their key decision making (Mort et al., 2002). The number of elements in this definition makes it clear that the conceptualization of social entrepreneurship is a particularly difficult matter. Weerawardena and

Mort (2006) created another multi-dimensional definition in which innovativeness, proactiveness and risk taking are the dimensions of social entrepreneurship within the constraints of environment, sustainability and social mission. A broader definition of Austin et al. (2006) highlights both the social value creation and innovativeness aspect which is common across most definitions of SE. SE is defined as an *"innovative, social value creating activity that can occur within or across the nonprofit, business, or government sectors"* (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006, page 2). In addition, this definition touches upon the important notion that SE is not defined by legal form but can be pursued by and in any organizational form. The organizational form should be chosen based on the format that would be most effective in mobilizing the needed resources. Social entrepreneurship can therefore occur when setting up a new organization, but can also be pursued in existing ones where it can then be referred to as social intrapreneurship (Mair & Martı, 2006).

A last factor influencing the lack of clarity around the concept of SE is the fact that different terms are used throughout literature interchangeably. Even though they all focus on and describe the same subject they all differ slightly in meaning. Social entrepreneurship is usually referred to as a process or behavior. The person who displays this behavior and the founder of the initiative is called the social entrepreneur. Definitions of a social enterprise represent the tangible outcome of social entrepreneurship (Mair & Martı, 2006).

Social entrepreneurs have been called the change agents of the social sector, "*one species in the genus entrepreneur"* (Dees, 1998, page 3). The social entrepreneur is the person who possesses the behavioral characteristic of social entrepreneurship expressed within a social enterprise or an already existing organization. The social entrepreneur is able to offer innovative and exceptional leadership in achieving a social mission (Mort et al., 2002). Scholars suggest that there are only so many people that possess the characteristics to make successful social entrepreneurs. Their motivations go beyond pure altruistic motives usually expressing the need to change the status quo (Seelos & Mair, 2005). The personality of the social entrepreneur has been a popular, early stream of research into social entrepreneurship. However, the multidimensional conceptualization as given by Mort et al. (2002) indicates that the more traditional personality trait-based entrepreneurial theory is not sufficient to describe the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship. That is why more recent research has focused more on the phenomenon social entrepreneurship in a broader sense.

Social value creation is the primary objective in social entrepreneurship, which distinguishes this form of entrepreneurship from its commercial counterpart. However, scholars argue that the importance of the social mission can be placed on a continuum. On the one hand of the continuum is the requirement of this social mission being critical to the company, for some scholars a requirement to qualify as a social enterprise. On the other end of the continuum is the enterprise that has social goals somewhere along its aims (Peredo & McLean, 2006). Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern (2006) highlight the side of the continuum that requires a central social mission: “*Social entrepreneurship involves the recognition, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities that result in social value — the basic and long-standing needs of society — as opposed to personal or shareholder wealth”* (Certo & Miller, 2008, page 1). Other scholars support the need for this explicit and central social mission in which economic value is merely a by-product allowing the organization to achieve sustainability and self-sufficiency (Dees, 1998; Mair & Martı, 2006; Mort et al., 2002; Seelos & Mair, 2005). Thompson (2002) argues that social entrepreneurship can occur in profit-seeking businesses, social enterprises and the non-profit sector. The belief that social entrepreneurship does not necessarily needs to be purely social or non-profitable finds another place on the continuum. SE in a broader sense is supported by the Northland institute who advocate the “double bottom line” in which both financial as well as social returns are pursued (Peredo & McLean, 2006). When non-profit and for-profit organizational features are combined, organizations are often referred to as hybrids (Davis, 1997). While social entrepreneurship is mostly a non-profit sector phenomenon, requiring the social mission to be central to the organization, literature reveals that *“socially entrepreneurial activities blur the traditional boundaries between the public, private and non-profit sector, and emphasize hybrid models of for-profit and non-profit activities”* (Johnson, 2000, page 2)

Apart from the social mission, regardless of its place on the continuum, there are other ways in which SE is different from commercial entrepreneurship. One is the performance measurement, which is less standardized and more adapted to the particular organization and their goal. Next to that, value capture is often difficult, or at least limited in the form of economic value (Dees, 1998; Mair & Martı, 2006). This relates directly to the difficulty of resource mobilization for social entrepreneurs. Since there is almost no appeal of financial returns for social enterprises, attracting capital can be difficult (Austin et al., 2006; Certo & Miller, 2008). On the other hand, social entrepreneurs are also able to access capital that commercial entrepreneurs cannot, such as government funding and funding from large philanthropic organizations (Seelos & Mair, 2005). The same struggles are present when attracting human capital. Social enterprises typically cannot afford to pay market rates. Therefore social entrepreneurs are again more restricted and rely on volunteers and employees that prioritize social value over economic wealth (Certo & Miller, 2008).

Assessing social impact has been proven to be one of the biggest challenges for scholars and practitioners (Mair & Martı, 2006). Markets usually fail to correctly value social improvements, public goods and harms, and benefits for people who cannot afford to pay for them. It is considerably harder to determine whether a social entrepreneur is creating enough social value to justify for the resources sacrificed to create that value, as it is for his commercial counterpart (Dees, 1998). As has been mentioned before, performance measurement is adapted to the organization, but this also makes the outcome more subjective and less comparable. Even when improvement can be measured in a distinct way, it is still difficult to determine if this social value creation was due to a specific intervention (Dees, 1998).

Outcomes that have been mentioned in literature revolve around the ‘social mission’ and include social value creation (Dees, 1998), empowerment of beneficiaries (Santos, 2012) and business models to serve the poor (Seelos & Mair, 2005). Economic wealth is ignored by the majority of scholars as an outcome of social entrepreneurship, and if mentioned just referred to as means to an end (Dees, 1998). Some do acknowledge these outcomes, but still emphasize the social mission at the core of the social enterprise (Mair & Martı, 2006). The other extreme end of the continuum, where the social mission is merely a by-product, is usually not elaborated on in depth in most academic literature. According to Mair and Marti (2006) the social enterprise needs to clearly give priority to social wealth creation versus economic wealth creation in order to create satisfactory social value.

Concluding Remarks

As touched upon in the introduction, BOGO has been regarded as a form of cause-related marketing, corporate philanthropy or social entrepreneurship. After having reviewed these three academic subjects we can now see how the BOGO concept might relate to any of them.

First of all, with regard to cause related marketing, we can see that BOGO, especially well-marketed BOGO, might rely on a principle that is at the base of cause marketing. The marketing of BOGO relies on creating this very strong direct link between the purchaser’s emotions and buying power and the company’s intended social cause. By creating this emotional link, which is easy to grasp and understand in the case of offering a Buy-One-Give-One product, people can relate to the company and its cause more easily and might be persuaded into buying a BOGO product (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Tran, 2015). BOGO could be regarded as CRM in a developed stage such as the second and third stage of Austin’s model (2003), where it is used as a strategic tool with a long-term commitment between the company and the non-profit partner. Some criticism on CRM can also be linked to BOGO. Eikenburry (2009) argues that companies trick people into buying CRM products by pretending that purchasing products will solve world problems by just an individual market transaction. Furthermore by encouraging more consumption, these companies might want to obscure the fact that consumerism and the way it has grown over the years, contributes to the exact problems philanthropy tries to solve (Eikenberry, 2009). These are both arguments that might also be valid to BOGO offerings.

Corporate philanthropy can be linked to BOGO in two ways. First, CP is by some organizations used as a marketing strategy (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). Which relates to one of the biggest debates in the history of BOGO: is it really a way to create social change or merely a marketing tool? The academic stance on CP as a marketing strategy might also shed more light on the fact that both CRM and CP were identified as possible overarching concepts. When looking at CP from a marketing perspective it blurs the line between philanthropy and cause related marketing efforts (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). Overall however, CP as a marketing strategy is just one of the ways in which CP is used. CP is also proven to be useful for purposes such as acquiring HR benefits. Therefore, one would more likely label BOGO as a CP effort when it is not marketed explicitly (distinguishing CP from CRM) and is used for acquiring other more indirect benefits. Additionally, as BOGO has proven to be quite effective for some companies, it is interesting to see if this is due to the same advantages strategic CP adds up to.

The last, more recent academic concept that is closely related to BOGO is social entrepreneurship. This is also the concept that BOGO is most regularly associated with (Hand, 2011; Jannuzzi, 2012; Joy, 2016; Marquis & Park, 2014; Sánchez-Hernández, 2015). Next to scholars, the companies that use BOGO usually refer to themselves as social enterprises. The reason why SE might be regarded as most relevant is because social entrepreneurship as a concept is about the business and its business model, how a company operates and how value is created. Therefore, BOGO as SE assumes that the social mission and how it is pursued is an inherent part of the company, not merely a marketing strategy in order to increase sales. SE is about changing the status quo, about using novel types and combinations of resources to create social as well as economic value (Mair & Martı, 2006; Seelos & Mair, 2005), which was also what TOMS did when they first introduced their BOGO business model. BOGO and the way it is implemented might also blur the boundaries between the public, private and non-profit sector, similar to SE (Johnson, 2000). Finally, as has been outlined in SE literature, it is very hard to measure performance with regard to social impact. BOGO literature also reveals that this is a specific topic of interest, directly relating to the credibility of a company's dedication to their social mission. This complexity of measuring social impact makes it hard to establish legitimacy for the BOGO concept as well as for some social enterprises, as they struggle to justify the resources that were put into achieving a social impact that can hardly be measured.

To investigate how BOGO relates to any of these academic concepts, three cases will be thoroughly analyzed, while keeping the key points of the literature review in mind.

Methodology

Research Strategy

The main aim of this multiple case study was to explore a new academic topic, that has been subject to little prior research. Exploratory research is the most suitable strategy when little prior research exists and there is a possible unknown relationship between variables involved (Tulder, 2012). This thesis will serve as a starting point for a more in-depth research agenda on the BOGO model. Even though the BOGO concept has enjoyed little prior research, motivations for implementing a BOGO strategy and its operationalization may overlap with different concepts that relate to BOGO as earlier identified: corporate philanthropy, social entrepreneurship and cause-related marketing. By using an inductive research method, the cases served as an example to investigate if BOGO really is a distinct and new way to create social value and how it can be effectively implemented. Inductive research is referred to as a 'bottom-up' approach as observations are used to build an abstraction of the subject that is being studied (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). An inductive approach "*involves the search for pattern from observation and the development of explanations – theories – for those patterns*" (Bernard, 2011, page 7). Exploratory research into the BOGO principle was therefore be done by means of an inductive research approach, leaving room to alter the direction during the research process when deemed necessary (Dudovskiy, 2016). Both research questions were answered through inductive reasoning. The second research question uses the answer to the first main research question as a starting point and attempts to create a guideline for the successful implementation of a BOGO model.

In order to test the formulated research question by means of inductive reasoning a comparative multiple case study design was used. A case study has been defined by Yin (2009) as "*an empirical inquiry that investigates an a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context*" (Yin, 2009, page 18). As this research looks into BOGO strategies and its implications on the most important stakeholders it is important to study this real-life phenomenon in the context in which it takes place. A case study is subsequently a suitable research design when context is highly important (Yin, 2009). A second reason why a comparative case study is most suitable is because the chosen cases are outwardly different in the way they execute the 'Give One' part of their BOGO strategy. To investigate these differences in more depth different real-life cases needed to be studied. Studying multiple cases allows for a cross case analysis to identify similarities and differences, which can then provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon (Yin, 2009). In this thesis, the comparative case study was used as a qualitative research method, as it looked at three specific companies in depth.

The level of analysis used in this research design was the organizational level, the unit of analysis was the BOGO strategy implemented by these three specific organizations. Outcomes were analyzed on an organizational level (firms and charities) as well as on a community level (beneficiaries).

Sampling

Purposive sampling was used to select three cases to conduct this research. Purposive sampling enables you to select cases based on judgement and use the ones that serve you best in answering the research question (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The purposive sampling technique subsequently used was critical case sampling. This type of case study is particularly useful when resources are limited and the purpose of the research is exploring a phenomenon (Lund Research Ltd., 2012). Critical case sampling allows for selecting cases based on their ability to make a point and their importance in answering the research question (Saunders et al., 2009). The three cases were selected based on the fact that they seem different from an outside perspective, therefore being possibly decisive in analyzing and drawing conclusions about the BOGO concept (Lund Research Ltd., 2012). By conducting this study, we aimed to analyze the extent to which these BOGO strategies are really different and how this influences their effectiveness. The selection of cases was based on the three distinct ways in which firms seem to implement the 'Give One' part of their BOGO strategy (identified as 'donation models' by Marquis and Park (2014)). The different models as identified by Marquis and Park (2014) include: the initial one-for-one model in which an identical product is donated, a money donation as a percentage of sales or profit or a combination of the two. Different options were available for the case selection, based on availability and richness of information, as well as the potential to tap into direct sources of information the following cases were selected:

Donation model	**Characteristics**	**Selected case**	**Other possible cases**
One for one	An identical product is donated	Waka Waka	Soapbox Soaps, Smile Squared
Percentage of sales or profit	Money is donated to a second party in order to donate a 'similar' product	Warby Parker	Out of Print, Mealshare
Combination of the two	Both a product donation and a money donation are in place	TOMS Shoes	Roma Boots, Commonbond, Baby Theresa

Table 1: Case selection

Waka Waka was chosen as a first case as an example of a 'one for one' BOGO model over the other ones mentioned due to the possibility to get into direct contact with people that could offer more information on the company and their BOGO strategy. The company is located in the Netherlands, consequently presenting the best opportunity to obtain more detailed insights through direct contact.

Warby Parker was chosen as an example of a 'percentage of sales or profit' BOGO model over the other cases available due to readily available information from different sources on both Warby Parker as well as on VisionSpring, which is the main partner in their BOGO strategy.

TOMS shoes was chosen as an example of a 'combination of both' BOGO model over other companies that seem to have the same BOGO approach due to the fact that this company is considered the initiator of the Buy-One-Give-One movement. TOMS model has been embraced as well as criticized and has changed significantly over time. Information is readily available and offers insights from different perspectives.

Data Collection

In order to compare different cases secondary data was analyzed. This was done by means of content and document analysis. Document analysis is "*a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating document, both printed and electronic*" (Bowen, 2009, page 27). The data from these documents will then organized in a non-numerical way to discover patterns, themes, categories and case examples through the use of content analysis (Labuschagne, 2003). Document analysis is useful as it provides data on the context of the subject studied (Bowen, 2009), and context is a very important factor in case studies. Furthermore it provides a way to track change and development by comparing documents from different points in time (Bowen, 2009).

Document and content analysis is based on secondary data sources. As this secondary data consisted mainly of documentary data sources, it can also be referred to as archival data (Saunders et al., 2009) This has advantages such as the fact that documents might be easily available, they are stable because the investigator's presence does not change what is studied and they might give a large coverage of the subject (Bowen, 2009). These advantages however rely on the specific topic studied, since relevant information might not be readily available for every subject. As the BOGO model is relatively recent, information is limited. What should be taken into consideration when working with secondary data is the fact that documents were produced for another purpose, this might contribute to the objectivity of the analysis, but it can also reduce the level of detail needed to answer the research question (Bowen, 2009). Furthermore when the selection of documents is incomplete and originates merely from one source this can create a biased outcome, influencing construct validity as will be explained below (Bowen, 2009). These are all factors that need to be taken into consideration when using this way to collect and analyze data.

Additionally, in the case of Waka Waka an attempt was made in order to collect some primary data by means of an interview. This attempt was partially successful. Some data was gathered through means of a semi-structured interview. Unfortunately, the interviewee was currently no longer actively involved with the company, but had been in the past. Therefore, information provision on the case was limited. Additionally, a current employee working at Waka Waka answered some of my questions by email. These questions were specifically focused on obtaining more detailed information on how the social mission influences the business and stakeholders involved, the relationship between the foundation and the company, how their BOGO strategy is implemented, why they chose to use a BOGO strategy, impact measurement and goals and their involvement in the projects. After receiving a response on these questions per email, I replied with some follow-up questions in order to get some more clarity on matters that were not yet evident to me, focusing specifically on their current transition at the retailers and the extent to which they use market-based solutions. Even though this primary data collection did provide me with useful insights, within the time frame of this thesis I was not able to gather and analyze all the primary data I had hoped to gather through direct contact with the company. I did include all the insight that could be gathered up until the point it was no longer feasible.

Data Quality

In order to assess the data quality in social science research commonly four tests have been used. These tests were consequently used in this multiple case study design in order to assure the overall quality of data collection and findings.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the establishment of correct operational measures for the concepts being studied and has been proven to be especially difficult in case studies (Yin, 2009). Construct validity can be best ensured in the data collection and analysis phase by use of multiple sources of evidence. Since data collection was based on secondary data, construct validity is mainly dependent on secondary data availability. BOGO strategies have not been pursued by a lot of companies in the Netherlands which makes primary data collection difficult. Due to the nature of the data establishing a chain of evidence will be very hard (Riege, 2003; Yin, 2009).

Internal Validity

Internal validity is especially important in experimental research when causal claims are made, and not as relevant to exploratory research. Internal validity in case study research extends to the problem of making inferences when an event cannot be directly observed. In order for these inferences to be trustworthy rival explanations must be addressed and cross-case analysis must be conducted (Riege, 2003; Yin, 2009).

External validity

This third test is used to determine whether results are generalizable beyond the particular case being studied. External validity has been a major barrier in doing case study research as generalizability beyond a specific case is usually very hard. However, as opposed to statistical generalizability, case studies rely on analytic generalizability (Yin, 2009). This indicates that the results of one case study may be generalizable to cases in which companies use a similar BOGO implementation strategy. Still generalizability is critical and should be done with caution. The use of replication logic in multiple case studies may increase the external validity (Riege, 2003; Yin, 2009).

Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the ability to replicate the case study and arrive at the same results. Its goal is to minimize errors and biases in a study. In order to ensure reliability procedures and data collection were well-documented (Yin, 2009).

Indicators of Effectiveness

In order to analyze the effectiveness of the BOGO models for the three relevant stakeholders some indicators of effectiveness were defined beforehand. These indicators can also be used when trying to replicate this research, hereby increasing the reliability of the results. The indicators are based partly on the literature about BOGO, CP, CRM and SE, and partly on intuition. For the businesses involved the possible indicators of effectiveness are increased sales, increased brand image (based on how they are portrayed by third parties) and HR benefits (recruiting and retaining of employees, increased employee morale). Indicators of effectiveness for the non-profit are increased funding, increased brand image or awareness of the cause (based on how they are portrayed by third parties), recruitment of employees and organizational learning (gaining new expertise from for-profit partner). For both the business and the non-profit involved, transparency is a key indicator as this may improve their credibility. Transparency is on the long run also important for the beneficiaries as they stand to gain from companies that keep their BOGO promises and report their impact, thereby showing they take their responsibility towards the beneficiaries seriously. The beneficiaries are the last group of stakeholders, they are also the group for which effectiveness is very complex to measure. Most indicators of effectiveness for beneficiaries are only measurable in the long-run and consist of soft-indicators which are often hard to quantify and evaluate. Overall, BOGO for the beneficiaries should contribute to their progress in any way possible. Focus should be on involving local people and communities, the solutions must be long-term and people should be empowered.

Relevant indicators / Stakeholders	**Business**	**Non-profits**	**Beneficiaries**
	Increased sales	Increased funding	Progress based on factors such as:
	Increased brand image	Increased brand image of awareness of cause	- Empowerment
	HR benefits	Recruitment of employees	- Involvement of local communities
	Transparency	Transparency	- Long-term solutions
		Organizational learning	

Table 2: Indicators of Effectiveness

BOGO Case Studies

Case 1: Waka Waka

Waka Waka has been selected as the first case due to the nature of their donation format. From the first impression, it seems like Waka Waka donates a similar product they sell. Waka Waka's BOGO strategy is called 'Share the Sun'. It refers to the link between the sun and energy, which is a fundamental need for people all over the world. Power is not available to everyone and the sun is a source of energy that, with the right tools, could make energy available to anyone who needs it (Waka Waka, 2017d). Waka Waka is a social enterprise working together with their own Waka Waka foundation taking care of the 'Give One' impact of their BOGO model. This case study will take a closer look at this particular BOGO strategy, analyze the stakeholders involved and determine the effectiveness of this approach for the different stakeholders.

COMPANY:	Waka Waka B.V.
NON-PROFIT:	Waka Waka Foundation
FOUNDED:	2012
BOGO:	Share the Sun – similar product donated
PRODUCT:	Solar devices

Waka Waka

Waka Waka, which means 'Shine Bright' in Swahili, was founded in 2012 by Maurits Groen and Camille van Gestel. The inspiration for Waka Waka originates from a journey the founders made to South Africa in 2010, trying to offset carbon emissions from that year's FIFA World Cup soccer championship (Waka Waka, 2015). Together with Lemnis Lighting they managed to make the World Championship soccer in South Africa climate neutral with the use of LED-lighting (Lemnis Lighting, 2010). However, the two social entrepreneurs did not stop there. They took notion of the fact that this lighting was only accessible to more privileged people, using the lights in offices and hotels. For the thousands of people living in the slums and townships, this light was not accessible. At 6.30 P.M. it becomes pitch dark in Africa and without light there is not much that can be done in the evenings (Sprout, 2012). They decided it was time to do something about the lack of safe and affordable lighting for those living at the Base of the Pyramid (BoP) (typically used to describe the more than four billion people in the world living on less than US$4 per day (Hart & Prahalad, 2002)) in developing countries (Waka Waka, 2015). So in 2012 the company was founded as Waka Waka B.V. (Bijzondere Vennootschap), the Dutch version of a private limited liability company (KvK, 2017). Waka Waka is usually referred to and call themselves a social enterprise, due to their inherent social mission, but there is no distinct Dutch legal form for being a social enterprise. To date locations are based in the

Netherlands, the US and in Rwanda, where they also operate a pay-as-you-go scheme. Their mission is formulated as follows: "*To provide sustainable solutions for the 1.5 billion people living at the base of the pyramid, primarily off-grid, easing their lives and facilitating a better and brighter perspective on the future*" (Waka Waka, 2015, page 1). They position themselves between traditional private and public sectors (Waka Waka, 2017a). Therefore, the Waka Waka foundation is a non-profit working closely together with the Waka Waka company, to make sure Waka Waka as a whole can operate as a hybrid organization. Waka Waka believes the combination of business and aid to be the best way to effectively fight complex problems in developing countries (WakaWaka Foundation, 2013). The company is initially funded with capital of the founders and they have gathered a lot of additional money through crowd-funding campaigns on Kickstarter and OnePlanetCrowd (Sprout, 2012). They have grown significantly since their inception in 2012 and have managed to create an increase in turnover of 56 percent on average. This amounts up to €11 million in four years' time. Furthermore, Waka Waka's solar devices are sold in over 40 countries around the world (hetkanwel, 2016; Waka Waka, 2016b).

Share the Sun

Waka Waka did not implement a Buy-One-Give-One strategy from the start. When founded in 2012 they initiated a model in which they used ten percent of their profits for emergency aid. Somewhat later they set up two BOGO campaigns for the Philippines and Syria, which were so successful they decided to implement a BOGO strategy for all their western sales (personal communication, June 5, 2017). Their BOGO strategy is called Share the Sun. Share the Sun means that for every Waka Waka product sold, one is distributed to a family without access to electricity. The Waka Waka product that is donated or sold is exactly the same quality and design as the one that is bought (Waka Waka, 2017a). Share the Sun is set up to provide the 1.2 billion people on this world that live without access to power with a convenient, safe and off-the grid solution to access electricity from the sun (Waka Waka, 2016a).

Initially BOGO was used for all their offerings, however for the Waka Wakas sold through the regular retail channels, which were introduced later, this has proven to be too expensive. The margin of the retailer is too high, which leaves Waka Waka with too little money to source an extra product. Currently they are in transition to a model that works as follows: a true Buy-One-Give-One model is used whenever possible, mostly for corporate customers and through occasional campaigns at the retailers. Additionally, one percent of the turnover in the western markets is used for providing Waka Wakas in crisis situations (personal communication, June 5, 2017).

Waka Waka acknowledges the fact that donating a product is not always the best option, even though there are a lot of people living off-grid that need power and cannot afford such a device. In the short term donating is probably beneficial for these families that do not have access to electricity, but in the long term it can harm local dynamics and have an adverse impact on the community. Therefore, Waka Waka formulated a giving strategy and encourages other NGOs to follow the same approach. Their giving strategy says that donations are only justified when there is a crisis situation and access to safe light and electricity can mean the difference between life and death (Waka Waka, 2017a). Whenever the conditions are stable, but poor nonetheless, in-kind donations are highly discouraged as they can disrupt local markets, create dependency, reduce the perceived value of the product and can harm humans pride and values. In these situations, Waka Waka tries different approaches such as subsidized leasing, lease-to-own methods or micro-finance programs. Sustainable business models are set up that involve and empower local communities. In more developed countries Waka Waka operates as a regular business and continues their operations with the proceeds of the sale of Waka Waka products at competitive market prices (Waka Waka, 2017a). These sales make it possible to provide effective and affordable solar products to people in the developing world that need to live off of less than $2 a day (Lohuis & Gestel, 2016). One exception to the not-donating rule has been made with regard to long-term refugee camps. These cases should be looked at more closely as people are usually not allowed to work for money making it impossible for them to acquire solar devices to get access to electricity. This is when Waka Waka chooses to use the 'free, but not for nothing' principle, so people can perform community duties in return for a Waka Waka product (Waka Waka, 2017a).

Waka Waka works with a lot of different partners in a lot of different areas of the business. Intivation is their technology partner with their patented Sunboost technology at the core of every Waka Waka product. Do-Inc is a co-founder and carbon finance partner. Waka Wakas generate light and power without any carbon footprint, these savings are catalogued and can be sold to generate additional income. UTI is their biggest global logistical partner helping to get the solar devices where they need to be (Waka Waka, 2015). Locally the Waka Wakas are also donated leveraging the network of a large range of international NGOs like Red Cross, Warchild, Save the Children etc. (Waka Waka, 2017a). Other kind of partnerships Waka Waka has engaged in is for example their partnership with the Clinton Global Initiative (CGI) to whom they committed to light up the lives of at least one million families. CGI supports their mission with their global network (Waka Waka, 2015).

Moreover, there are quite some well-known influential people around the world that have publicly supported Waka Waka and their 'Share the Sun' initiative. Examples are Bill Clinton, Al Gore, Kofi Anna and Desmond Tutu. Together with customers, employees and supporters of Waka Waka these people are all called 'Agents of Light' (hetkanwel, 2016; Waka Waka, 2015).

Waka Waka Foundation

The Waka Waka foundation is an internationally operating NGO based in the Netherlands set up to fight energy poverty. Their mission is: "*to provide people living at the bottom of the pyramid with safe, sustainable and self-sufficient energy and light solutions as well as providing necessary life skills and support"* (WakaWaka Foundation, 2016, page 2). The Waka Waka foundation manages the Share the Sun initiative for Waka Waka B.V (Waka Waka, 2016b). Next to supporting the foundation by buying

Waka Waka solar products, companies and individuals can also donate money directly to the foundation (Waka Waka, 2017b). This is especially more beneficial for corporate donors since their donations are tax-deductible (personal communication, June 5, 2017). The foundation sets up energy related programs and distributes the Waka Waka solar devices in order to fight energy poverty. Such a small solar device can make the difference between night and day for people living off-grid without access to power. The Waka Waka Light is the most efficient solar led light in the world, when completely charged it offers up to 34 hours of very bright light. The Waka Waka + can give up to 150 hours of light and can also charge electric devices such as mobile phones and has a SOS modus (for specifics on the device see Appendix 1) (Waka Waka, 2017e; WakaWaka Foundation, 2016).

The Waka Waka Foundation operates on five core values. *Long term commitment* based preferably on market-based organizational models, integrating solar solutions in local practices. *Empowerment* and leveraging local partner NGOs that have the necessary experience and efficiency. The establishment of a more *equal relationship* between donor and end-user in which individual initiative is encouraged. Best practices, scientific research and monitoring are used to ensure the highest attainable impact (*knowing before doing*). And lastly throughout the process *transparency* is key. (WakaWaka Foundation, 2013)

There are several programs set up by the Waka Waka foundation operating partly on proceeds from the BOGO sales and partly on philanthropic capital. First of all, the foundation creates impact through their Crisis Aid program. These projects are for the major part based on pure donations of solar devices when circumstances are critical, examples are Lighting up Haiti and Solar for Syria. By partnering up with NGOs solar devices are distributed with as many and as fast as possible (WakaWaka Foundation, 2013). When conditions are stable but poor as described earlier the Waka Waka Foundation focusses on programs that empower and educate people and kickstart economic development. The Micro-Entrepreneurs Program is a program in which the foundation provides Waka Waka solar products as a start-up capital. Those entrepreneurs then sell those products to BoP customers through micro-loan instalments (WakaWaka Foundation, 2016). The Climate Here Education program is set up to educate children on the benefits and importance of sustainable living. Additionally, the foundation provides solar trainings and rural awareness programs. The Sun Sharing Alliance makes Waka Waka solar devices available to partner NGOs for a heavily reduced price, enabling these NGOs to more effectively serve communities in specific projects (WakaWaka Foundation, 2013). The foundation envisions the transition of personal energy in the same fashion as communication. People at BoP jumped straight to affordable cell phones, skipping land lines as a form of communication. Therefore energy transition in these countries should skip large scale energy grids largely run on fossil fuels and instead they should be enabled to switch to off-grid renewable energy solutions right away (WakaWaka Foundation, 2013).

The impact map (see Appendix 2) shows the worldwide impact the Waka Waka Foundation together with the Waka Waka company, donors, other NGOs and the Agents of Light have made up to date. The impact amounts up to 278,175 WakaWakas, that have influenced the lives of 1,214,234 people in 59 countries by offering up to 62,036,130 extra hours of light to work or study. Waka Waka has been involved in 303 projects that have been able to save up to 13,055,512 euros of energy costs and have saved 20,333 tons of CO_2 per year (Waka Waka, 2017c).

When you purchase a Waka Waka solar product you can choose where you want to make your impact by selecting a particular project or program on the website (WakaWaka Foundation, 2016). This gives the BOGO strategy a more personal touch by knowing that exactly the same product you bought will be distributed to a project and person of your choosing. Moreover, it improves credibility as well as the effectiveness of the BOGO strategy as a marketing tool.

Beneficiaries

So how does Waka Waka impact the lives of the people that receive or purchase such a solar device? Approximately 1.2 billion people worldwide do not have access to electricity. In order to create some light in the darkness they are dependent on kerosene lamps that can be dangerous and toxic. Kerosene lamps result in 300,000 deaths per year and millions wounded from lamp-related burns, houses may burn down and mixing kerosene with different fuels often results in explosions. Additionally, accidental ingestion of kerosene is the primary case of child poisoning in the developing world (Mills, 2012; UNEP, 2014; Waka Waka, 2016a). When kerosene lamps are used inside they cause serious air pollution resulting in respiratory problems and even tuberculosis (Mills, 2012; UNEP, 2014). Research has shown that the effects on the lungs is equal to smoking two packs of cigarettes per day.

Next to the direct effects on people's health, lack of clear light can lead to unsafe and unhygienic circumstances in health care centers. Moreover, as the light of these fuel based lanterns is so poor, it is only one to ten percent of the illumination recommended by lighting authorities, leading to vision related problems as well as difficulty studying (Mills, 2012; UNEP, 2014). In addition, the fuel for those lamps is quite expensive and can amount to up to twenty percent of a family's income. Together all these people spend more than $30 billion on fuel every year (Groen, 2015; Waka Waka, 2015; WakaWaka Foundation, 2016). Not having access to light is detrimental for safety, school results, economic activity and community life and usually disproportionately impacts women and children (Mills, 2012; UNEP, 2014; Waka Waka, 2015; WakaWaka Foundation, 2013).

By giving people access to electricity and light the dangerous kerosene lamps can be eliminated. This has several positive implications for people living in rural areas with regard to education, health, economic development and safety. Waka Waka's vision says: "*With access to affordable and sustainable light, power, electricity, water and sanitation, families living at subsistence levels have a chance to escape the poverty trap and build a future for themselves"* (Waka Waka, 2015, page 1).

Health conditions improve by decreased air pollution as well as less injuries and deaths from fires (Changes in user reported health and safety problems see Appendix 3) (UNEP, 2014). Clear light also ensures that circumstances in health care centers improve and this makes better health more accessible. The twenty percent of disposable income that is used for fuel can now be used for food, education and health care. Waka Waka solar devices can extend people's day with more than three hours significantly improving productive time. A nice example are the 4500 Dogonwomen in Mali that received a Waka Waka solar device. They were able to work during the evening which increased their productivity and disposable income with 40 percent (Groen, 2015). Some businesses are highly dependent on light and with access to solar power light, these businesses can stay open longer by which income is increased. It also increases time to study which results in improves school grades (Waka Waka, 2015). Several studies have been compared to quantify the effect of switching from fuel-based light sources (such as the kerosene lamp) to LED light sources. The studies found that this switch meant an average increase of 1 to 3 hours studying a day. Grades increase with 25 percent on average and pass grades are likely to almost double. Eliminating the health burdens that are linked to kerosene lights, students are more motivated to study (Waka Waka, 2016a). Next to education, health and economic development safety is also increased by the provision of LED lighting. Less fires occur because of fuel-based lighting and public spaces are much safer when lit up especially for women, hereby decreasing incidences of crime and violence (UNEP, 2014). Sanitation facilities are outside and cannot be used during the night when there is no lighting available (UNEP, 2014). Even though people in developing countries are probably not too worried about the environment as their top priority, they are actually being way more sustainable when using LED lights as these sources of light are carbon neutral. Finally, even though in developing nations most people do not have a lot of money to spend, the majority does own a cheap cell phone Without off-grid solutions such as the Waka Waka power, it is very hard and expensive to charge these phones. Mobile phones can be a source of economic development and are a way to stay in touch with family members scattered around the country. Mobile phones are considered one of the top non-food items for refugees (Waka Waka, 2016a).

Effectiveness for the three stakeholders

Business

Waka Waka is what people might refer to as a true social enterprise, set up to achieve a social mission. Every decision made during the initial founding of Waka Waka was said to revolve around the goal they had set for themselves, which was to provide as many people in need with off-grid energy solutions to improve the lives of these people (personal communication, May 19, 2017). And this has been the case ever since. BOGO was introduced not long after the initiation of the company when they found that *"the Buy One, Give One offer was up to 100 times more effective in delivering products to Haiti than requesting product donations"* (Waka Waka, 2013, para. 3). It has proven to be a very successful marketing tool in order to increase sales. With Share the Sun Waka Waka has found a way to make the impact people have with a product they purchase personally verifiable. This feeling of connectedness with the larger goal will most likely trigger people to purchase a product. By these means Waka Waka was able to reach economies of scale, expand distribution and increase impact all over the world. The product Waka Waka sells may also account for the success of their BOGO strategy since the customer segment that is targeted is the educated traveler, who is usually willing to pay more for a good quality product (personal communication, May 19, 2017). Choosing the solar market is not a bad choice when looking at the potential, in Africa alone the market for LED lighting is supposed to grow at a staggering 450 percent per year. Penetration is still very low, which makes for a significant growth opportunity (Groen, 2014).

Next to how the company want to present itself, there is also a way in which an image is formed by third parties. This was investigated based on media and news coverage. Most of the items published focus on the successful crowdfunding, the functionality of the solar device and the impact that was achieved so far. The impact is of course directly linked to the BOGO model that Waka Waka operates. Since Waka Waka is most well-known in the Netherlands a detailed media and trend analysis is hard to conduct. The media attention the brand has received so far is positive and applauds the company for their ability to deliver a product that is technologically good, climate neutral and having an impact on people in third world countries.

Unfortunately, there is not much that can be found on Waka Waka's employees or their stance on the social mission Waka Waka tries to achieve. When one takes a closer look at the current team, they have a broad spectrum of people in their company and not all of them have sustainability in any form as a reoccurring theme in their career. Some have some experience with working in functions that have to do with sustainability or creating social impact but in order to get more insights, further research is needed. Waka Waka does argue that people primarily join the company because of its inherent social mission (personal communication, June 5, 2017).

The goal of Waka Waka in collaboration with the Waka Waka foundation is clear and well-defined with regard to the distribution of solar devices. Safe, sustainable and self-sufficient energy for people at BoP. The ultimate goal is to provide all 1.2 billion people that still live without access to power with sustainable solutions to eradicate energy poverty. The goals however do limit themselves to the number of solar devices that can be distributed and do not take into account the longer term benefits that can be achieved. Even though no clear goals have been formulated with regard to this long-term impact, Waka Waka does emphasize (as explained earlier) these long-term benefits as a result of the provision of energy. The impact Waka Waka has made up to date is well registered and communicated by their Impact Map on the website (Waka Waka, 2017c). They say they do gather additional information that is not publicly shared, but do not elaborate on what kind of data (personal communication, June 5, 2017). Details on the project such as the location, the partner involved, the number of Waka Wakas distributed are all displayed on the impact page. To date however no real impact study has been conducted by Waka Waka itself. They encourage their NGO partners to monitor and gather as much data on the use of the solar devices as possible, however their ability to control this data collection is limited since Waka Waka usually is not in direct contact with the end user and beneficiary (personal communication, June 14, 2017). They argue more data is gathered in Rwanda where they have their own subsidiary, however it seems like this data is also not publicly available to date.

With regard to transparency and credibility, it is clear that Waka Waka's social mission is at the core of this company. But even though the Impact map gives a lot of insights on what the company and foundation have been doing, they haven't been able to provide the public with a consistent clear report, as the last Foundation report originates from 2013. They acknowledge the importance of measurement and transparency and claim to be working on improvement in that area (personal communication, June 5, 2017). Adhering to the principle of transparent and consistent reporting would certainly make their activities more credible. The goals of the foundation are in line with those of the company as the foundation is foremost used to realize the social impact of the company. They acknowledge that specific goals of the foundation should be better defined in the future (personal communication, June 5, 2017). An example of an ambiguity that could have been resolved when Waka Waka would use transparent and consistent reporting is the fact that 700,000 Waka Wakas have been sold to date, but the impact map only shows us a number of 278,000 distributed. Waka Waka explains that these are only the Waka Wakas that were delivered to off-grid areas, moreover there are still BOGO donations for which no suitable partner or project is found (personal communication, June 14, 2017). This means that around 420,000 Waka Wakas are sold in Western markets, but to date only 280,000 are distributed (personal communication, June 5, 2017). Consequently, their BOGO is not truly a one for one when looking at the numbers. By means of transparency Waka Waka could explain why this is the case, greatly increasing their credibility. They could give updates on the latest results and measurements and what has been done to improve their impact. Likewise, they could address questions about possible future opportunities and how to tackle challenges that may be encountered. These are important questions to ask yourself as a company but also to share with the so called 'Agents of Light'.

Waka Waka is a B corporation, which means they are independently evaluated by a nonprofit (B-Lab) and they have been ranked as meeting some of the highest standards with regard to social and environmental performance, accountability and transparency. Their score is a 159 out of 200, indicating that they take the influence the have on society and the environment very seriously. Waka Waka explains that they: *"became a B Corp to be part of the collective voice of companies that are about integrity, responsibility, sustainability and doing good in the world instead of being just about profits"* (B Lab, 2017a, para. 3).

Foundation

No information was found on the exact proceeds of the BOGO model in the financial details made publicly available by the Waka Waka Foundation. Waka Waka B.V. is not by law obliged to publish annual reports, which was no additional use. We do know that the markup on products in western markets is higher in order to sell and distribute the solar devices in developing countries for affordable prices. Additionally, this markup is used to finance other projects under the Waka Waka Foundation. The proportion of donations that originates from the BOGO model is significantly higher than that from regular donations. An example is the campaign Solar for the Philippines in which 99 percent of the proceeds originated from BOGO sales (personal communication, June 5, 2017).

With regard to how the Waka Waka foundation is perceived, a media and trend analysis shows that there is not much attention on the foundation overall (Google, 2017a, 2017b). On their website they clearly state that the foundation is a distinct part of Waka Waka, but not all news items or articles comment on the fact that the 'Give One' part of Waka Waka is carried out by the foundation. A reason for the less obvious distinction between the two parties could be based on the fact that they have tight connections, share a name and are intertwined with regard to the governance of the two entities. Waka Waka argues the two organizations reinforce each other in a positive way by carrying the same name. It saves money on marketing costs. Additionally, the foundation sometimes enjoys other benefits of being a non-profit such as free advertisement space which is also beneficial for the company (personal communication, June 5, 2017).

There is no publicly available information on the hiring practices of either the foundation or company. Therefore, we cannot conclude that the BOGO approach or social mission has any influence on the recruitment of employees and to what extent. One might assume that the foundation, due to the direct link with the company, might receive assistance in finding the right workforce. Additionally, due to this close tie between the foundation and the company it is also very likely that the foundation might use other company resources in order to more effectively pursue their goal, however no information has been found on such matters.

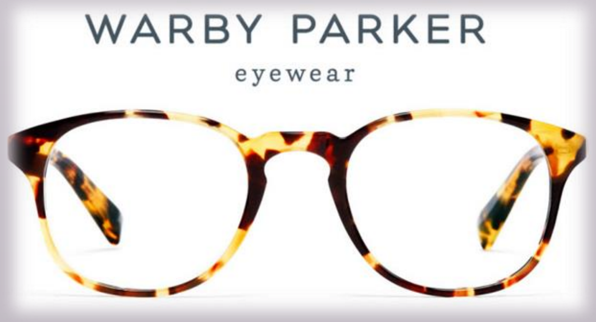
Beneficiaries

In order to create the greatest value a BOGO strategy should focus on creating long term sustainable value, but ideally would create value on the short term as well. By making sure that people have access to power Waka Waka makes an immediate impact but also focuses on long-term improvement of people's lives. The provision of energy, as has been outlined before, leads to significant improvements for people living off-grid with regard to improved productivity, education, health and safety and quality of life. By making a direct leap from no access to power to renewable energy sources people in developing countries get the chance to start their economic development in a sustainable matter. Light and electricity empowers people to take the lead of their own lives and helps them become educated and build up a career.

The distribution of Waka Wakas is not necessarily focused on community involvement nor does it create a lot of local employment. Waka Waka does however involve smaller, locally focused NGOs in order to most effectively distribute the solar devices in a way that is most beneficial to specific communities. Additionally, even though the sale and distribution does not lead to additional direct employment, it does lead to better education and increased productivity thereby improving people's prospects for the future. A point of attention is that even though Waka Waka only donates their products in crisis situations, at the moment this emergency aid seems to make up for the major part of their impact. Waka Waka only operates its own market-based solution in Rwanda where they have their own entity. Additionally, they are trying to expand operations into Kenia. This however indicates that the remainder of the impact is based on product donations through partner NGOs. Waka Waka does mention that these NGOs not solely operate in crisis situations, but might also use Waka Waka donations or subsidized models in areas where this would be suitable (personal communication, June 14, 2017). Nevertheless, expanding the market-based model would be a big opportunity to create a more long-lasting impact. A good follow up campaign Waka Waka has recently started is their battery replacement programs for the solar devices that have reached the end of their lifecycle, ensuring the beneficiaries can continue using their devices (personal communication, June 5, 2017).

Case 2: Warby Parker

Warby Parker has been selected as a second case due to the nature of their donation format and the fact that they are a quite well-known company which means there is more information publicly available. The 'Give-One' part of their model seems to come about as a percentage of their profit or sales. The figure donated needs to amount up to a number that is sufficient to source the number of glasses Warby Parker has sold. Warby Parker implements a 'Buy a pair, Give a pair' donation strategy. It basically means buy a pair of glasses and one pair will be sourced to a person in a developing country that lacks access to glasses (Warby Parker, 2017b). This case study will take a closer look at this donation format, analyze the stakeholders involved and the effectiveness of this BOGO model for these different stakeholders.



COMPANY:	Warby Parker
NON-PROFIT:	VisionSpring
FOUNDED:	2010
BOGO:	Buy a Pair, Give a Pair – percentage of sales or profit
PRODUCT:	Eyewear

Warby Parker

Warby Parker is a prescription eyeglasses and sunglasses company founded in 2010 by the four friends Neil Blumenthal, David Gilboa, Andrew Hunt and Jeffrey Raider, who were still students at the Wharton School of Business at the time (Denning, 2016). Nowadays Neil and Dave are still co-CEO of the company while Jeffrey and Andrew are members of the board but have went on and pursued other business opportunities (TODAY, 2016). Warby Parker is the company's trade name for the privately held company JAND, Inc. (Bloomenberg, 2017a). Warby Parker as a trade name was derived from the two characters Warby Pepper and Zag Parker created by the novelist Jack Kerouac (CNBC, 2016). Inspiration for the four founders often originates from literary figures, as can also be seen by the frames of the glasses often named after characters from literature. For them, authors and their work represented the tie between vision and reading (From Scratch Radio, 2015; TANK Magazine, 2015; Warby Parker, 2017a).

The idea for an eyewear company first came up when one of the four friends lost his glasses while backpacking. He found out that buying a new pair for a reasonable price was nearly impossible. The reason for this high price standard was fairly simple, the eyewear industry was dominated by one big player: Luxottica. By their ability to maintain a monopoly (Luxottica is largely vertically integrated, the only intermediary being Essilor manufacturing the lenses) they were able to artificially keep prices high. Due to their enormous markup they were earning huge profits, taking advantage of customers that had no other choice but to buy from them (From Scratch Radio, 2015; Klocani, Siddiqi, Lahood, & Dong, 2016; Warby Parker, 2017b). Luckily for those consumers these four friends from Wharton were about to change that with a very simple strategy: bypassing the middle men and transferring this cost saving directly to the consumer by significantly marking down the price of a pair of glasses, offering them for an average of around $95 (Denning, 2016; Klocani et al., 2016). Warby Parker started as an e-commerce business operating a virtual try-on technology as well as a Home-Try-On-program in which people can choose five glasses to try on for five days free of charge. However as demand grew the founders acknowledged the growing request for a brick and mortar shopping experience and opened their first physical store in spring 2013 (Shearman, 2016).

Their initial launch in 2010 was incredibly successful as the team achieved their first year sales target in the first three weeks of business (Denning, 2016). But, the reason they thrived, and still do, is argued to be about more than just offering cheaper, quality glasses. By listening and engaging with their customer, they created a customer-centric experience just by the sale of a pair of glasses. Additionally, even though the social mission they have committed to is important to the company, they are first and foremost a fashion brand (Klocani et al., 2016). Brand building is done through the hierarchy of stories they want to convey to their customers, but also through their company culture and the way they engage their employees. The founders prioritized the stories they wanted to share with their customers which would help them become number one in people's minds. This hierarchy of stories is based on the reasoning of consumers when buying a pair of glasses, starting at how the glasses look on their eyes. The second key component of their competitive advantage had to be the price, followed by the customer experience offering the best service possible to keep customers happy. This positioning in the mind of consumers has been proven to be very important as they are regarded as the first company to successfully beat the eyewear monopoly. But next to being an affordable, fashionable eyewear company Warby Parker is perceived as a brand that cares, for its customers, its people, but also for the rest of the world (Denning, 2016). This is where their social mission steps in. Even though their social mission is not centralized in their marketing strategy and is not the first thing they carry out as a company, it is important to the founders and essentially also to the success of Warby Parker. Their BOGO approach will be explained in more detail in the next part.

Warby Parker's Buy a Pair, Give a Pair

Warby Parker's BOGO strategy was implemented at the inception of the company. The founders of the company believe in doing good and to do so they decided to stay close to their core competency: making affordable prescription eyewear. They acknowledged the fact that everyone has the right to see and decided to help the fifteen percent of the world population that has no access to glasses. In order to help these people get access to proper eyesight Warby Parker partners with non-profits that help them distribute a pair of glasses for every pair sold (Warby Parker, 2017b). Their biggest non-profit partner is VisionSpring, of which Neil Blumenthal was the director before he co-founded Warby Parker (Klocani et al., 2016). Buy a pair, Give a Pair as implemented by Warby Parker is explained as follows:

Step 1: Shop, you buy a pair of Warby Parker Glasses.
Step 2: Donate, we tally up the number of glasses sold and make a monthly donation to our nonprofit partners, which covers the cost of sourcing that number of glasses.
Step 3: Train, the nonprofit trains men and women in developing countries to give basic eye exams and sell glasses to their communities at affordable prices.
Step 4: Go forth, these men and women work hard to spread awareness and make eyecare available to their communities.
(Warby Parker, 2017c)

It sounds pretty easy and in theory it is. Of course, the intended results of their BOGO strategy are a lot more complex to establish. Neil and David call glasses *"one of the most effective poverty alleviating tools in the world as they allow people to see, to read, to learn, to work"* (Warby Parker, 2014, 0:39). Warby Parker does explicitly state in their approach the reason why they do not simply donate the glasses to people in need. As can be derived from the reviewed literature, pure in-kind donation has been proven to possibly negatively impact local markets and not address the root cause of these complex problems. The founders emphasize the temporality of making donations, creating a culture of dependency instead of offering a sustainable solution (Warby Parker, 2017c). By teaching people to sell the glasses for an affordable price, it creates a market based solution providing jobs as well as glasses to people in need. This also means that people are forced to offer glasses that people actually want to buy, adapting them to local styles and people's preferences. Consequently the wearer not only gets to enjoy better sight, but can also express his/her identity by wearing glasses they like (From Scratch Radio, 2015; Warby Parker, 2017c).

VisionSpring

Even though Warby Parker mentions to work with several non-profit partners, VisionSpring being their primary partner, they do not disclose the name of any of their other nonprofit partners. Therefore, this thesis will have a closer look at VisionSpring, their biggest non-profit partner. VisionSpring was founded in 2001 as the Scojo Foundation, which was set-up two years after establishing the for-profit Scojo Vision LLC (Kassalow, Macmillan, & Blumenthal, 2007). Scojo Vision offers premium ready-to-wear reading glasses (SCOJO LLC., 2017). The Scojo foundation was set up by Jordan Kassalow, a trained optometrist and public health expert, and Scott Berrie, a businessman, to provide affordable glasses to people in low-income communities. From the initiation of the foundation they committed to donating five percent of the profit from the LLC to the Scojo foundation (Kassalow et al., 2007). Due to their past experience and talent they decided that Scott would focus on the for-profit company while Jordan would take the lead in running the foundation (Christiansen & London, 2011).

In 2008 the Scojo Foundation was sold and became a separate entity from Scojo LLC. At that time the organization also decided to change its name to VisionSpring to better reflect its mission and brand in the long run (Monday Vision, 2008). VisionSpring was initially a not-for-profit enterprise (Kassalow et al., 2007). They changed to become a social enterprise taking on a hybrid organizational form. They are registered as a 501(c)3 non-profit and a Private Limited Company (PLC) (VisionSpring, 2017d). They create both economic as social value, earning revenue and supplementing it with contributed income. Performance measures are based on sales metrics as well as social impact measures. As explained in the literature review, social entrepreneurship can occur in a profit as well as a non-profit setting. The profit made by VisionSpring is reinvested in the country in which it was made in order to make these countries self-sustaining in the provision of eye-glasses (Kassalow et al., 2007). The ultimate goal of VisionSpring is to reinvest their earnings and refine the business model in such a way that the company can be financially sustainable and self-sustaining as a whole without having to rely partly on philanthropic capital (Ip, 2012; Karnani, Garrette, Kassalow, & Lee, 2011).

VisionSpring aims to reach the people at the Base of the Pyramid (see Appendix 4). The business model they operate on is partly based on micro-franchising (Christiansen & London, 2011; Kassalow et al., 2007). Micro-franchising is explained as: "*a business model that applies the traditional concepts of franchising to small businesses and can be easily replicated by entrepreneurs, even those at the bottom of the pyramid"* (Ip, 2012, para.1). Additionally, VisionSpring works with subsidiaries in different countries. In some countries they fully own a subsidiary, in some countries they partner up with other organizations or with NGOs. Dependent on the country VisionSpring tries to figure out what works best in order to effectively source as many glasses as possible. Through a systematized partnership model in which they work with NGOs, microfinance institutions, for-profit businesses and social enterprises VisionSpring now reaches more than 40 developing countries with their glasses. To date most glasses have been distributed in India (896,111) where they have a partnership with two for-profits and a health institute, in Bangladesh (776,542) where they have a strong partnership with BRAC one of the largest NGOs worldwide, Rwanda (209,512) where they partner with an NGO and a social enterprise and El Salvador (158,520) where they have their own subsidiary and a partnership with a national NGO (VisionSpring, 2017a).

Their initial business model is quite simple and is built on empowering local entrepreneurs. Local entrepreneurs are selected to become Vision Entrepreneurs (VE) based on a number of qualities such as educational level, reputation in the community, economic need and potential leadership ability (Kassalow et al., 2007). They are then trained to take basic-eye exams. They receive a 'Business in a Bag' for a small non-refundable fee (approx. $4) which contains the materials, stock and information they need to set up and run their own business (Christiansen & London, 2011). Regional or district coordinators make regular rounds to replenish stock. At these times, money is collected for the items that have been sold. VEs can keep their commission which is between 30 and 50 percent (Kassalow et al., 2007). Additional products such as eyeglasses and eye-drops can be put in the vision kit to offer a full eyecare solution. VEs are encouraged to spread awareness in their community about vision problems (Kassalow et al., 2007). When applying the microfranchise solution VisionSpring is involved in all aspects of the value chain (Kassalow et al., 2007). Even though this approach was successful, it proved unsustainable in isolation and hardly scalable, indicating that if VisionSpring wanted to expand its operations and reach as many people as possible they would have to alter their business model (VisionSpring, 2015). Therefore, they expanded the VE model into a Hub-and-Spoke approach, in which VisionSpring optical shops were established as hubs and VEs continued doing their work around this hub and creating awareness in the communities (VisionSpring, 2015).

Next to micro level assistance VisionSpring also offers macro level assistance. This concerns VisionSpring's partner organizations. These organizations receive technical assistance and guidance through a large-scale implementation program, while leveraging their existing distribution network of entrepreneurs (Christiansen & London, 2011; Kassalow et al., 2007). The franchisee, in this case the intermediary organization, is responsible for daily operations. VisionSpring solely replenishes stock through the partner when needed (Kassalow et al., 2007).

The last approach taken by VisionSpring is a wholesale approach in which glasses are distributed through pharmacies in urban and peri-urban areas to reach a wider audience (Karnani et al., 2011).

Next to these two methods of reaching BoP consumers and providing them with eyecare, VisionSpring organizes vision campaigns run by VEs to broaden their scope of impact. Vision campaigns include visions screenings in combination with a pop-up shop to buy eyeglasses and protective sunglasses. One very important aspect of VisionSpring's approach is creating awareness. People in developing countries are often not aware of how badly their vision has deteriorated and how easily this can be corrected in most cases. They assume that poor vision is inevitable and that they cannot afford solutions to correct it (Karnani, Garrette, Kassalow, & Lee, 2010). By educating communities about eye care VisionSpring makes these people aware of the problem and easy obtainable benefits that can be achieved by purchasing a pair of glasses. Hereby they do not only educate but they also broaden their potential market (VisionSpring, 2016d).

Initially the VEs were only able to treat presbyopia (blurry near-vision), when people suffered from myopia (blurry distance-vision) they were referred to a nearby hospital to get prescription eyeglasses (Christiansen & London, 2011). From 2010 onwards VisionSpring started incorporating prescription eye-glasses using a more retail based approach, offering people the possibility to get prescription eye-care service in mobile optical stores or on-site optical stores (GlobalGiving, 2012; Schwab Foundation, 2012; VisionSpring, 2016b), this way people did not need to take time off from work or travel very far to get the glasses they needed.

As mentioned before there is a reason that glasses are sold, not donated. To be more concise, there are several reasons for that. First of all, the cost. Selling eyeglasses is a lot cheaper than donating them. For one pair donated, four pairs can be sourced and sold as it costs VisionSpring about US$6 to deliver a pair of glasses to the developing world (VisionSpring, 2016a, 2017d). Furthermore, only seven percent of the donated glasses are in adequate condition to redistribute. Another argument has been mentioned earlier, donating does usually not address the root cause of the problem. Therefore, by offering a market based solution, VisionSpring contributes to the empowerment of these people instead of making them dependent on donations. Moreover, even though people might have a limited income, they still value the ability to choose a pair of glasses that they feel comfortable wearing and that suits their personality. By selling glasses these people are provided with a dignity of choice (VisionSpring, 2016a).

Beneficiaries

So how does the provision of eyeglasses help alleviate poverty? According to VisionSpring 624 million people worldwide do not have access to eyecare, while they could have their vision restored by a pair of glasses. 90 percent of these people live in the developing world (see Appendix 5). About 77 percent of these people just need a pair of reading glasses the restore their vision (VisionSpring, 2016c). The inability of companies to offer affordable glasses to low-income countries is a major market failure, but this failure also makes for a huge market opportunity (Kurlantzick, 2005). These people should not be left with simple donations, but should instead be involved in a market mechanism that can be activated through a high-volume and low-margin approach (VisionSpring, 2016b).

Loss of vision has a severe effect on people's ability to create economic value, it limits educational opportunities and it poses threats to occupational and public safety (Karnani et al., 2010).

For adults, vision impairment means they may become less productive and sometimes lose their ability to work all together. A study in Tanzania showed that 71 percent of the people that suffered from presbyopia were dissatisfied with their ability to do their job (Patel & West, 2007). Moreover, uncorrected vision results in $202 billion annual loss in productivity to the global economy (VisionSpring, 2016b). The effectiveness of providing glasses to people with vision impairment has been explored in the past when they found that the invention of spectacles had doubled the working life of craftsmen, especially those doing fine jobs (Landes, 1998). A study done in India found that factory workers with vision-impairment are less productive than their co-workers and those who have eye-glasses are better at performing near-vision tasks. After vision correction, productivity increased significantly (Patel & West, 2007). Another study found that 44 percent of Indian cotton mill workers improved productivity by ten percent after their vision was restored (Silver, Douali, Carlson, & Jenkin, 2003). The reading glass project VisionSpring conducted together with their partner organization BRAC demonstrated that eyeglasses increased working hours by at least 1.5 hours per day and over 75 percent of the people reported increased income (Karnani et al., 2010). Additionally, VisionSpring partnered up with University of Michigan's William Davidson Institute from 2005 to 2010 to study the impact VisionSpring eyeglasses have on low-income populations in the developing world. VisionSpring conducted this study to assess the impact of glasses and to see if a real link existed between correcting presbyopia and economic capacity. A direct relationship was found in which a pair of reading glasses increases productivity by 35 percent and has the potential to increase monthly income by twenty percent (VisionSpring, 2010, 2013). The study was based on 450 BoP consumers in India's Andhra Pradesh state. This impact assessment was then used a starting point to determine the financial impact of vision correction. Using estimates of average daily income, working days per year and expected life of a pair of glasses it was estimated that each pair of glasses increased earning potential over two years with $381 (Kassalow, 2011; VisionSpring, 2010). The full impact study was not published, but a year after publication a mistake was found as increased earning potential was based on the 35 percent increased productivity instead of the twenty percent potential income growth (NPI, 2012). VisionSpring acknowledged this problem and corrected their figures to an earning potential of $108 annually (see Appendix 6) (VisionSpring, 2016c).

For children, bad eyesight may result in failing school and not getting the opportunity to learn, this consequently limits their prospects for the future (Silver et al., 2003; VisionSpring, 2013). VisionSpring reports a 25-50 percent increase in learning in primary school students that have their vision corrected. This claim is supported by a recent Chinese study which reports increasing test scores for children who had their vision corrected, with the impacts of corrected vision equivalent to as much as a half year of schooling (Bach, 2014; VisionSpring, 2016c). A study performed in an adult literacy class showed that of all people that dropped out of class 93 percent needed vision correction, revealing that not only children suffer from limited educational opportunities (Silver et al., 2003).

Next to education and work, vision also links to safety. One study showed that vision degradation decreases a person's sign recognition and road hazard avoidance (Higgins, Wood, & Tait, 1998). In South Africa it was found that drivers who were involved in accidents had significantly worse vision than those who are accident-free (Humphriss, 1987). Moreover personal safety can be increased by providing eyeglasses as a study amongst elderly showed that those with visual impairment were twice as likely to fall as their counterparts with clear vision (Legood, Scuffham, & Cryer, 2002).

To date VisionSpring has sold about 3.5 million glasses worldwide, which they say has created a $208 million economic impact. They claim that the potential impact of $1 donated is $23 economic impact (VisionSpring, 2017e). Warby Parker has said to have sourced one million pairs of glasses through their nonprofit partners since as of 2014 and two million to date (TODAY, 2016; Warby Parker, 2017c). Warby Parker and Vision Spring have worked to train over 18,000 men and women in over 35 countries to date.

Next to offering access to affordable glasses, VisionSpring also creates jobs in the process by training local people to become VEs. Becoming a Vision Entrepreneur has several advantages. First of all, they are able to set up and run their own business with very little investment. They receive training in conducting eye-exams and in business skills. VisionSpring makes sure glasses are supplied at the right times so that VEs can keep their business up and running. As the glasses are sourced as cheap as possible, still offering acceptable quality, VEs are able to offer these glasses at a price that is actually affordable for the majority of the people in their community. Because VisionSpring (or any of their partners) takes care of the distribution channel as explained earlier, VEs can focus on building awareness in their communities and serving the needs of their customers, providing them with the glasses they need (Kassalow et al., 2007).

Effectiveness for the three stakeholders

Business:

Warby Parker is a B Corporation, scoring 112 out of 200 points the median being 55 (B Lab, 2017b; Warby Parker, 2017a). Them being a B corporation shows their stance towards corporate responsibility and how they take into account social and environmental factors in their daily operations. Therefore, even though as mentioned earlier this is not the first thing they carry out, Warby Parker do wants to be regarded as a company that cares about the impact they have on society and the environment (Warby Parker, 2017a). Their 'Buy a Pair, Give a Pair' gets a lot of free publicity. Mainly because the company was one of the first to provide affordable glasses and has been trending topic ever since GQ printed an article on the company calling them 'The Netflix of Eyewear' (TODAY, 2016). The social impact they create by their BOGO strategy is a sort of add-on to the story which was picked up by the media. This consequently means that this social impact does get mentioned a lot of times in a news item, article or academic paper on Warby Parker. Even though it is hard to establish, because no figures are available and Warby Parker has been a BOGO company from the start, it is likely that people are also drawn to this company by the social mission, possibly increasing sales. However, as Neil Blumenthal mentions in an article, a lot of people are not aware of the social mission until they open the box in which it says one pair will be donated. He doubts that their social mission is the no 1 reason people by glasses if it even appears at all on customer's priorities list. People choose glasses, as already explained, foremost by how they look on their face and how they are priced (Avins, 2014b).

Warby Parker does mention VisionSpring as their biggest charity partner on their website, but does not explicitly market the organization. It is striking however that even though Warby Parker claims to have several non-profit partners, they disclose no names of other partner anywhere on their website. From logic thinking the most direct link which led to the choice of taking VisionSpring as a partner is Neil's past ties to the company as well as the fact that VisionSpring can effectively leverage their business model to source the glasses Warby Parker pays for through BOGO. This is a key point for a successful BOGO model, instead of trying to deliver the product yourself a company is usually better off selecting an experienced local partner to create solutions for the underlying problems (SEI, 2014).

With regard to how Warby Parker is presented to the public by third parties a Google trend analysis shows that Warby Parker is not frequently linked to VisionSpring. To be more accurate, Google News shows about 20,000 results for Warby Parker, 1750 for Warby Parker and donate and 183 for Warby Parker in combination with VisionSpring. Indicating that even though the BOGO model has been picked up by the media, it is not the main thing they are recognized for and specifics about this BOGO strategy (like the partnership with VisionSpring) are usually not outlined in the media (Google, 2017a, 2017b).

The company's founders say that the social mission is not so much about recruiting customers, but recruiting employees (Avins, 2014b). This would indicate that the social mission has serves several purposes. Research by PricewaterhouseCoopers found that half of the millennials would consider leaving an employer if their social-responsibility no longer matched their own (PwC, 2011). Millennials value helping people in need over having a high-paid job. Neil and Dave say they still interview all their hires and the strongest candidates are the ones who talk about making an impact with their work (Blumenthal, 2014). One of their first employees, Mara Castro, gave an interview in which she said: "*with my background of wanting to work somewhere that was going to do good in the world, it was just awesome to see how it wasn't a marketing ploy. It was part of the brand and who they really wanted to be from day one."* (Cannon, 2016, para. 18) This highlights the fact that the social mission was indeed taken into consideration before taking the job.

Even though VisionSpring is not explicitly marketed by Warby Parker, choosing a partner that has a good track record is important as bad publicity on the partner's side might also hurt Warby Parker in the long run. VisionSpring does not seem to have had any significant bad publicity from the media analysis in Google Trend. Additionally, VisionSpring scores 93.83 out of 100 in the Charity Navigator and has been improving their performance over the last couple of years (Charity Navigator, 2015d). Therefore, it seems that even though it is hard to say what influence the partnership with VisionSpring has on Warby Parker's performance, it will most likely not be negative.

In order to create a lasting impact it is very important to have well-defined goals. For Warby Parker their goal with regard to their social mission is source as many glasses as possible. For them this is a win-win as it means the more glasses they distribute, the more they have sold. They are however not really transparent when it comes to how much money is donated and what happens with that money. They claim they have sourced two million glasses, there is however no way to check if and how this was done, which does not add to the credibility of their social mission.

<u>Social Enterprise</u>

Unfortunately, Warby Parker does not have publicly available annual reports and says they cannot clarify how much of the proceeds of the glasses sold are used for donations to VisionSpring (Chokkattu, 2014). VisionSpring does provide a number on the amount of money received from contributions and grants but it is not further accounted for to see where the money comes from. To make a calculated guess the most recent consolidated financial statement of VisionSpring was used (2014) as well as the milestone of one million pairs of glasses. This milestone was achieved in June 2014, just a year after they reached the milestone of 500,000 glasses. Revenue has been reported to have been $35 million in 2013, having doubled in 2014 and being well over $100 million in 2015 (Chafkin, 2015; O'Brien, 2015). Therefore, one can assume that sales have also grown steadily over the years and that sales in 2014 would have been at least another 500,000. These glasses were sourced for around $6 dollar a pair according to Visionspring's website. Taking a range of $2 to $6, Warby Parker donated $1,000,000 - $3,000,000 to VisionSpring. When taking a look at VisionSpring's financials that would amount up to 32 to 85 percent of their 'Contributions and Grants' balance account, being a quite significant amount

(VisionSpring, 2014). This could be somewhat accurate since we have seen that VisionSpring donated 3.5 million glasses and Warby Parker past the milestone of two million glasses donated, which would mean Warby Parker accounted for more than half of the glasses sold by VisionSpring. Nevertheless, Warby Parker is only mentioned once on their website, which is under their recognition tab (VisionSpring, 2017c). Therefore, it seems they do not necessarily need to be directly associated with Warby Parker. From the Google Trend analysis however is it becomes clear that VisionSpring is associated with Warby Parker on the internet on several occasions (Google, 2017b). Due to the favorable reputation of Warby Parker, this is not expected to have any negative influence on VisionSpring, on the contrary it might make people more aware of VisionsSpring and the cause they are fighting for. Additionally, Warby Parker, as explained above is possibly a quite big donor which makes them important for the financial sustainability of the enterprise. VisionSpring aims to be self-sustaining in the long run but for the time being they are still very much relying on donations, specifically so called 'repeatable philanthropy' which is something Warby Parker, with sales still growing, can certainly offer (Karnani et al., 2011).

Unfortunately, there is little shared on the hiring practices of VisionSpring however taking a closer look at their staff section tells us that there is a mix of people with previous experience in social-mission driven companies and people who have mainly had a profit-driven focus (VisionSpring, 2017b). Since Visionspring is a social enterprise they might not have the same problems finding the right personnel as pure non-profits do, since they have more resources to do so. Warby Parker seems not to be involved in any of these processes. However, it seems plausible that due to the close ties between the two organizations (Neil Blumenthal was the former director of VisionSpring) experience and other resources might be shared between the two parties.

For VisionSpring, being concerned with the business of selling the glasses sourced by Warby Parker, goals are more complex. Their mission is: "*VisionSpring works to reduce poverty and generate opportunity in the developing world through the sale of affordable eyeglasses*" (Charity Navigator, 2016, para. 7). Even though they have a very clear mission, there seem to be no set targets with regard to the impact they want to make. They have committed to the goal of selling ten million pairs of glasses by 2022 and are continuously improving and experimenting to find new and better ways to broaden their scope and reach as many people as possible (Kassalow, 2012).

VisionSpring is moderately transparent about their practices. They report their impact and conduct impact assessments. However, no detail financial data is available on how much they receive from which donors and consistent reporting needs improvement since their latest annual report is of 2014. This does not contribute to their credibility.

Beneficiaries:

The VisionSpring model serves two purposes: creating jobs for local entrepreneurs to earn a livelihood and enabling individuals who otherwise could not afford eyeglasses to purchase a pair. This enables them to study or work, consequently addressing a root cause of poverty (Solomon, 2015). In order to create the greatest value a BOGO strategy should focus on creating long term sustainable value, but ideally would create value on the short term as well. It seems that through their partnership with VisionSpring, Warby Parker is well on the way to create a serious impact. Providing glasses creates an immediate impact as people's vision is restored by a limited investment. Additionally, VisionSpring creates a long-lasting impact by providing training, jobs as well as increased income and extension of working hours and even working life. People are involved in the solution to make it sustainable in the long run. They are empowered to build their own small businesses, so instead of creating a culture of dependency VisionSpring empowers people to develop their own economies and becoming self-sufficient.

Case 3: TOMS Shoes

The third case, TOMS Shoes, is chosen because of their seemingly different donation format and the readily available information that can be found on their One-for-One movement as it is the most well-known example of BOGO. TOMS Shoes' 'Give One' part of BOGO appears to come about as a mix between the donation of a similar product and donation of a percentage of the profit or sales. As TOMS Shoes is usually referred to as the founder of Buy-One-Give-One, naming it the One-for-One movement, it is interesting to see how they have evolved and what might have changed over time to the way their BOGO strategy is implemented. Initially TOMS Shoes started their One-for-One movement with donating shoes, nowadays they are involved in the gift of sight, water, safe birth and kindness. This case study will take a closer look at this donation format, analyze the stakeholders involved and the effectiveness of this BOGO model to these different stakeholders.

COMPANY:	TOMS Shoes LLC.
NON-PROFIT:	Giving Partners
FOUNDED:	2006
BOGO:	One for One – combination of donation of similar product and percentage of sales or profit
PRODUCTS:	Shoes, eyewear, apparel, coffee & bags

TOMS Shoes

TOMS Shoes is a company that produces and sells footwear, eyewear and apparel for women, men and children. It is a Limited Liability Company based in Los Angeles (Bloomenberg, 2017b). The company was founded in 2006 by Blake Mycoskie, a born entrepreneur. Before he founded TOMS, he set up a couple of other businesses (e.g. dry-cleaning service and online driver's education service), some of which were more successful than others. Not being entirely satisfied with the course of the company he was running at the time, Blake took a month off to travel to Argentina. But what started as a holiday away from work, turned out to become the inspiration for a new company. During the trip he met a woman in a café in Buenos Aires who collected shoes from donors to distribute them to children in need, explaining to Blake that the lack of access to shoes caused children to miss school and also exposed them to a lot of diseases. While it was a very kind gesture and it seemed evident to collect donated shoes, it also meant that they had very little control over the supply of shoes (Mycoskie, 2011; Solomon, 2015). He traveled a few days with this woman from village to village and became aware of the poverty that was present just outside the city borders. He saw children without shoes and it got to him. That is when he decided he wanted to do something about it (Mycoskie, 2016). So, when thinking about a solution, he found it in entrepreneurship instead of charity. Setting up a business would create a more constant flow of shoes and eliminate the dependency on donations from people that did not need their shoes any longer. This was the initiation of a very easy to grasp business model set up with the goal to provide children in need with shoes: *"Sell a pair of shoes today, give a pair of shoes tomorrow"* (Mycoskie, 2011, para. 9). Even though a lot was still uncertain at that point a name had already been created. Blake came up with 'Shoes for a better tomorrow' which changed to 'Tomorrow's Shoes' eventually ending up with TOMS Shoes as it is known today (Mycoskie, 2011). They designed a shoe based on the Argentinian alpargata, but with some changes so that it would sell on the American market. Essentially TOMS Shoes pretty much hit off as Warby Parker's glasses did. The media picked up on the product, but more importantly the story. Los Angeles Times printed an article and demand grew in no time, while TOMS had virtually no inventory at the time. The first summer TOMS managed to sell 10,000 shoes (Mycoskie, 2011). To date TOMS has sold over 70 million pairs of shoes and distributed the same amount to children in need through their one-for-one business model. After inventing the business model, Blake also trademarked it as the One-for-One movement™ (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2016, 2017e). Thereby Mycoskie intended to not only create a business, but to start a true social movement. In 2014 some things changed for TOMS when private equity firm Bain Capital purchased a 50 percent stake in the company. TOMS was valued at $625 million at that time. Mycoskie used half of his payout to start his Social Entrepreneurship Fund, which had invested in fifteen different social ventures by the end of last year (Quittner, 2016). Some analysts were a bit surprised by the sale of a 50 percent stake in TOMS shoes to an equity firm as this usually means more focus on financial results, which might stand in the way of making a social impact (Tran, 2015). However, Mycoskie argues that it was necessary in order to support growth and hire a capable CEO. Additionally, Mycoskie says that keeping the one-for-one model was part of the deal with Bain. So for better or for worse, one-for-one will always be a part of TOMS (Lebowitz, 2016).

Currently Mycoskie is no longer CEO of the company, but has granted himself the title of Chief Shoe Giver. His main concern is no longer the everyday operations of the company, instead Blake is mainly focused on spreading the story of TOMS shoes and getting people excited about the mission. Storytelling is a big part of TOMS marketing strategy and Blake is especially good at telling that story (Buchanan, 2016; Lebowitz, 2016). The company's marketing is effective but essentially without a lot of costs for TOMS Shoes. Blake has said in multiple interviews that the company virtually spends nothing on traditional advertising. Instead they really on social media on which their followers create a worth-of-mouth buzz (Mycoskie, 2016). TOMS lets their customers be their 'evangelists', spreading the TOMS' story with the rest of the world (Binkley, 2010; Mycoskie, n.d.). Another thing that has helped their marketing substantially is the number of celebrities that have publicly supported TOMS and their mission. Due to the prevalence of the brand in pictures showing celebrities wearing the shoes, a lot of free publicity has been created. People such as Keira Knightley, Scarlett Johansson and Julia

Roberts became TOMS storytellers by adopting the brand and spreading the story (Bonfanti, Mardirossian, Angus, Dutt, & Naeini, 2015).

Storytelling is used by TOMS to raise awareness for their cause, while simultaneously raising awareness for the brand. One well-known campaign is the annual ‘One day without Shoes’. On this day people are encouraged to go barefoot for one day to raise awareness for children’s health and education issues that are caused by a lack of access to shoes (Bonfanti et al., 2015; TOMS Shoes LLC, 2016). Additionally, TOMS channels a lot of personal stories on their website showing people that have benefited through one of their one-for-one programs. By sharing pictures and letting these people tell their personal stories, the impact gets a more genuine and personal feel to it.

One for One

BOGO is part of TOMS mission and at the core of their operations. Their social commitment is excessively displayed on their website: *“Improving lives. With every product you purchase TOMS will help a person in need. One for One.”* (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2016, para.1). The One-for-One movement originally started with shoes. To date TOMS has given away more than 70 million pairs of new shoes to children in need. However, their giving strategy changed over time since the company’s founding. For one, the company has changed the design of the donated shoe to adapt to the needs of the children. These may vary depending on the local circumstances (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017e). The shoes are always distributed through partner humanitarian organizations that are aware of the needs of the local community. Additionally, nowadays shoes are not just stand-alone donations, but are incorporated in the health and education programs of their Giving Partners (Chu, 2013; TOMS Shoes LLC, 2013). TOMS most recent Giving Report (2013) explains the entire process of ‘the gift of shoes’. This process starts with establishing partnerships with humanitarian organizations that have long-term presence and experience in the countries and communities they serve. Next, the number of pairs sold is customized in order to provide the right quantities, sizes and type of shoes to these partners. These shoes are placed on the children’s feet by the Giving Partners as part of their broader programs incorporating e.g. health checkups and microfinance programs. All costs to get the shoes to these communities are covered by TOMS. TOMS also commits to review and improve this process through impact studies and field visits (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2013).

After five years of donating shoes, TOMS expanded their One-for-One movement into eyewear, creating TOMS Eyewear in 2011. From then on, Mycoskie wanted TOMS Shoes to be called TOMS as they now do more than just selling shoes. When buying a pair of TOMS sunglasses you provide a person in need with a full eye exam by a trained medical professional, using part of the profit from the sale (Lebowitz, 2016). The patient is then treated according to the diagnosis, as TOMS supports treatment for the three most common vision issues: prescription glasses, sight-saving surgery and medical treatment (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017f). Next to restoring sight, TOMS also invests in the clinics, hospitals and the employees in order to create a sustainable impact. Their lead Sight Giving Partner

Seva helps them to support locally based organizations who train residents and provide eyecare (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2013). To date TOMS claims to have helped to restore the sight of over 445 thousand people in need (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017f).

In 2014 the third one-for-one product was brought onto the market by TOMS. They expanded their business model to offer their first commodity: coffee. TOMS Roasting Co. works with their Giving Partners to provide 140 liters of safe water (one week supply) to a person in need with the purchase of one bag of coffee (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017g). The clean water can be used for cooking, drinking and sanitation by the more than two billion people that lack access to this essential need according to an estimate of the United Nations (Strom, 2014). There is a reason for linking coffee to water as explained by Mycoskie. Water is the no. 1 ingredient used in making coffee and coffee is often grown in places where clean water is scarce. Therefore the water that is given away goes to the same regions where the coffee beans are sourced from (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017g). To date TOMS Roasting Co. has helped to provide over 400,000 weeks of safe water to people in need (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017g).

In 2015 TOMS expanded their offering once again, this time bags were added as a new BOGO product. The purchase of TOMS bags goes hand in hand with the Gift of Safe Births. This is executed by providing their Giving Partners with vital materials and the funding of training needed to help provide a safe birth regardless of the facility (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017d). 40 million women give birth under unclean circumstances without any professionals around. 90 percent of maternal deaths occur in developing countries, and a lot of these deaths are preventable by simple measures. By providing clean birth conditions and skilled attendants, nearly half a million lives can be saved by limiting the chance of infection which is the leading cause of death among mothers and their newborns (WHO, 2014). To date TOMS has supported safe birth services for over 70,000 mothers (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017d).

The last offering TOMS has added to its portfolio recently is the Gift of Kindness. With the purchase of a TOMS High Road Backpack you help provide for the training of staff and crisis counselors that help prevent and respond to bullying (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017c). Nearly one out of three students in the US aged between twelve and eighteen reports being bullied (Robers, Kemp, & Truman, 2013). By financing bullying prevention and response programs TOMS wants to fight this.

One-for-One as explained by TOMS goes as follows:

Step 1: Purchase. Sales of TOMS Shoes, Eyewear, Coffee and Bags drive Giving through the TOMS One for One® model. Every time a TOMS product is purchased, a person in need is helped.
Step 2: Plan. The TOMS Giving Team collaborates with Giving Partners to plan how we can further the partners' work, by giving TOMS products or helping the partners to provide services.
Step 3: Support. TOMS uses business for good, through tailored products and services, logistical support, local production and more.
Step 4: Give. Our Giving Partners provide TOMS products or services, supporting sustainable and responsible programs for communities in need.

Giving Partners

TOMS works with more than 100 Giving Partners in more than 70 countries order to create impact with their One-for-One business model (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2016). These Giving Partners are nonprofit humanitarian organizations that help fulfill TOMS one-for-one promise. TOMS partners are selected based on a number of qualities: sustainability, local commitment, the need for TOMS' support and integration of that support into their programs, willingness to provide feedback on TOMS work and neutrality with regard to religion or politics (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017j). Depending on what is given (shoes, sight, water, safe birth or kindness), these values are accomplished by other relevant requirements.

TOMS works with a lot of different Giving Partners, hence every product category is discussed along with one of the associated Giving Partners.

First of all, TOMS has over 90 Shoe Giving Partners, that have helped distribute over 70 million shoes in over 70 countries. Shoes are not meant to be merely stand-alone donations, they need to be integrated into the Giving Partner's everyday work in their community development (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017j). One of TOMS Giving Partners is Children International (CI). Children International has partnered up with TOMS Shoes in 2013. CI call this collaboration a 'perfect partnership' as both organizations are in business to help improve lives. To date TOMS has given nearly three million pairs of shoes to children in need through CI (Children International, 2017d). CI provides access to health services and educational assistance by setting up community centers. In these community centers CI focuses on four core values that are pursued through their programs: health, education, empowerment and employment. How these programs are delivered depends on the age of the children, the location and the circumstances in which these children live. Incorporating the values aforementioned is essential to reach the overarching goal, which is helping to alleviate poverty by giving children access to a better future (Children International, 2017b). CI has been acknowledged for its charitable efforts by several institutions such as Better Business Bureau (BBB) and Great Nonprofits (Children International, 2017a), scoring 89.27 out of a 100 on Charity Navigator (Charity Navigator, 2015b).

TOMS has thirteen Sight Giving Partners, that have helped to restore the sight of 445,000 people in thirteen countries (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017f). Seva is TOMS main Sight Giving Partner and has been working with the company since 2011, the year the one-for-one Gift of Sight was initiated. Seva declares that together with TOMS they focus on service delivery quality, equity, working with local providers without disrupting the existing system of healthy eye programs. The partnership has helped 400,000 people with critical eye care services since its initiation, accounting for the majority of the sight restorations reported by TOMS (Seva, 2017a). Seva focuses on building capacity as well as providing surgery, medical treatment and glasses. By restoring vision Seva believes it can break the cycle of poverty by increasing educational opportunities, helping people back to work and empowering women and girls (Seva, 2017b). Seva has also been accredited by BBB and Charity Watch, in addition scoring a 93.98 out of 100 on Charity Navigator (Charity Navigator, 2015c).

TOMS only has two Water Giving Partners, that have helped to provide 400,000 weeks of safe water in four countries. These four countries are Guatemala, Honduras, Peru, Rwanda and Malawi, also being the countries where the coffee is sourced from. These Giving Partners do not only provide the 140 liters of water that are needed to supply one person for a week, they also engage in sustainable solutions to solve the water supply problem. In order to do so, these partners support local business development and government investments to create sustainable water systems, empower local ownership and secure water supply for the whole community (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017j). The two partners TOMS works with are Water for People and Aguayada. Water for People is a global NGO with the mission of "*reaching Everyone Forever with safe water and sanitation"* (Water for People, 2017, para. 2). To do so they adhere to a couple of strict principles. The first one being sustainability, to make sure that water systems will last forever and can be operated and maintained within the community. Second, Water for People always works as a co-investor and urges local governments and communities to invest as well. This way they will feel responsible to take ownership. Impact is monitored and whenever possible successful systems are replicated and scaled (Water for People, 2017c). Water for People scored 92.93 out of 100 on Charity Navigator (Charity Navigator, 2015e).

TOMS has three different Safe Birth Giving Partners in three different countries. These partners help to decrease the number of maternal deaths due to infection by providing clean birthing conditions. The three partners in this program are Building Resources Across Communities (BRAC), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and Ayzh. BRAC is the world's largest development organization, dedicated to empowering people living in poverty (BRAC, 2016). Their operations and impact are very broad as BRAC has programs targeting any possible cause of poverty. They build their projects around: well-being and resilience, economic development and social protection, expanding horizons, empowerment and support programs (BRAC, 2017). TOMS supports Safe Birth through BRAC by donating part of the profit from the sale of the TOMS bag. Initially this funding was used to train community health promotors in Bangladesh potentially expanding to other countries (BRAC, 2015). However, in the annual report of 2016 BRAC USA states that TOMS has contributed in the form of safe birth kits. BRAC USA managed to distribute more than 48,000 kits in 2016 through its partnership with TOMS, contributing to a 40 percent decrease in maternal mortality (BRAC USA, 2016). BRAC scored 92.92 out of a 100 on Charity Navigator (Charity Navigator, 2015a).

The latest one-for-one initiative TOMS launched, the Gift of Kindness, works with two Bullying Prevention Partners in all American states. These partners are No Bully and Crisis Text Line (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017j). No Bully is a US based NGO that has created a trademarked No Bully System® to fight bullying and cyberbullying. The No Bully System is a step-by-step approach created to guide teachers, school leaders and staff through a series of interventions to respond to bullying and harassment.

Beneficiaries

TOMS is targeting a lot of different beneficiaries with their broad offering of one-for-one products. Whereas their initial product was a pure one-for-one in-kind donation of shoes, the company has expanded its model to a one-for-one in which part of the proceeds from sales are used to create a one-for-one impact, not necessarily focusing on donating a product. In this section we will take a look at how TOMS different one-for-one approaches impact the beneficiaries.

Starting with TOMS initial offering, the purchase of one pair of shoes goes hand in hand with the donation of one pair of shoes to children in need in developing nations. These shoes were originally delivered in these countries during so called 'shoe drops'. At first TOMS inspired a lot of people by its powerful marketing, perceived good intentions, and the potential of its model to do enormous good (Chu, 2013). However, after some time the first critics started to wonder if this 'shoe dropping' created any positive impact for the receiving community, if not creating a negative impact. The criticism was not solely meant to judge TOMS Shoes BOGO model, but was more projected towards BOGO in general. However, as the pioneer of the BOGO business model, TOMS was the one hit the hardest. The main criticism TOMS received was that it did nothing to address the root cause of poverty, it just provided a temporary band aid. Donating shoes is a short term fix in a system that needs long-term sustainable solutions (Davenport, 2012). Mycoskie failed to ask the people what they needed in order to break the cycle of poverty, instead he decided for them. This creates the problem of portraying people in developing countries as helpless and ineffective, passively waiting for us to donate something they need (Davenport, 2012; Taub, 2015). Mycoskie's approach has been called inefficient and he has been accused of favoring evangelical groups as Giving Partners, consequently also favoring Christian children instead of helping all children in need (Favini, 2013; Taub, 2015). So, what did TOMS do in order to react to all this criticism? In 2010 an impact study, initiated by TOMS, was conducted amongst shoe receivers in El Salvador in order to establish what the exact impact of the shoe donations was. This study found no significant statistical evidence to conclude a negative impact. However, the findings did point to a small negative impact on local markets. Additionally, the study found that 95 percent of the children had a favorable impression of the shoes and wore them regularly. Unfortunately, they also concluded that the shoe donations had no life-changing impact on the children such as increased school attendance or growing self-esteem. Moreover, the children were significantly more likely to say that others should provide for their family's needs, showing increased dependency on external aid (Wydick, 2015; Wydick et al., 2014). To his credit, Mycoskie admitted that his critics were right and has since tried to alter his model to better address the root causes of poverty (Townsend, 2014). This started with changing his 'shoe drops' into shoe giving trips that were executed through their humanitarian partners by incorporating the shoe donations into broader programs. These programs address health, education and economic development. This new strategy emphasized the need for program integration (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2015). Additionally, TOMS committed to producing 40 percent of their supply chain in countries that they donate to. Since this commitment TOMS says they have created more than 700 jobs in Kenya, Haiti, India and Ethiopia (Lebowitz, 2016; TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017a). TOMS lists the benefits they associate with the provision of shoes on their website under 'What your purchase supports'. These are: improved health, access to education and confidence building (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017e). TOMS says two million children have been protected from hookworm and that shoes also protect children from other infections and diseases such as Podoconiosis and Tetanus (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2013, 2017h). Additionally, they report a 42 percent increase in maternal health care program participation, an increase in student enrollment of 1000 kids in Liberian primary schools and 100 children were identified as needing malnutrition care in Malawi through shoes donation programs (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017h).

Impact made by the Gift of Sight is not based on pure in-kind donations. Instead money goes to providing communities in need with access to eyecare. TOMS reports that 285 million people in the world are blind or visually impaired, 80 percent of those cases can either be corrected or prevented by already available eyecare (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2013). TOMS tries to make an impact by investing in existing hospitals and clinics and training professionals to provide eye exams and the follow-up treatment needed (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017h). By purchasing a pair of TOMS glasses you support: economic opportunity, gender equality, access to education and restored independence. The extra funding available to TOMS partners enables them to set up mobile eye camps to travel to remote areas (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017f). The approach of TOMS' Gift of Sight is quite similar to Warby Parkers' BOGO approach. TOMS partnerships however also allow people to get medical treatment and surgery in order to restore their sight.

The third extension of TOMS one-for-one model was another reaction to the criticism that the shoe program did little to address the fundamental problem of poverty. As Mycoskie acknowledged this was fair criticism, he set up TOMS Roasting Co.(Strom, 2014). This one-for-one offering is essentially about giving back. In areas where coffee is grown, a lot of water is used even though water is also often a scarce good. Therefore, all the water that is provided through their one-for-one is given back to communities that are affected by water scarcity due to coffee plantations (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017g). The facts gathered by Water for People, one of TOMS Giving Partners show the following (Water for People, 2017c): 2.4 billion people around the world do not have access to adequate sanitation, 1.8 billion people do not have access to safe water, consequently 3.4 million people die every year from water related diseases and 200 million hours a day are lost by women and girls that are sourcing water (see Appendix 7). TOMS argues that purchasing coffee supports: improved health, increased economic opportunity, access to education and job creation. The money TOMS donates to its Water Giving Partners is used to provide one person with a week's water supply. The donations help support the development and maintenance of safe water systems that are locally run and will last for generations (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017g). Water for People has found that every dollar invested in improving safe water and sanitation services, yields an average return of five dollars in economic productivity. This is especially true for women and girls, who can go back to work and school instead of spending their time fetching water (Water for People, 2017c).

The Gift of Safe Birth is said to provide: delivery of safe birth kits, training for skilled birth attendants and a healthy delivery for newborn baby and mom (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017d). With the provision of training and proper materials in order to safeguard a safe delivery, mothers are up to 80 percent less likely to develop an infection, moreover almost half of the newborn deaths can be prevented through these measures (WHO, 2014).

TOMS latest one-for-one offering is focused on creating an impact in the USA. With the money from the proceeds of the sale of High Road Backpacks, TOMS pursues the Gift of Kindness. This entails that the money goes towards their Giving Partners that train school staff and crisis counselors to help prevent and respond to bullying practices. Your purchase thus supports: training of school communities or training of crisis counselors in order to improve safety, academic performance and well-being of students (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017c). An impact study of their giving partner No Bully has shown that using their approach, they were able to reduce bullying in over 90 percent of the cases. Average feelings of safety were reported to have improved significantly and facilitators found the Solution Team Intervention approach to be successful in 90 percent of the cases (DeNike, 2016).

Effectiveness for the three stakeholders

Business:

TOMS Shoes was set up as a BOGO company, initiator of the One-for-One movement. The social mission has been part of the company from the beginning and it looks like carrying out this social mission worked out quite well for TOMS. By 2011 TOMS had an average annual growth rate of 300 percent (Mycoskie, 2016). To date TOMS has annual sales of around $500 million and employs around 500 people (Quittner, 2016). Sales have been growing substantially over the years simultaneously with the expansion of their one-for-one product offerings (see Appendix 8). TOMS however, does not publish any financial statements, which means that exact figures cannot be disclosed here. It also means that it cannot be verified how much of the proceeds really go to their One-for-One movement in order to create a social impact. Nevertheless, it becomes clear from different sources that TOMS is regarded as a highly successful company, at least a commercial one. This has mainly been attributed to their marketing strategy. Their One-for-One movement and the way TOMS markets it, is effective and innovative (Bonfanti et al., 2015). Some people refer to it as cause-marketing as it relies heavily on creating a link between a buyer's decision power and the company's intended social cause in order to make the customer choose and buy TOMS product (Binkley, 2010; Tran, 2015). Even though some might doubt its social impact, no one has ever questioned the effectiveness of TOMS marketing strategy. By the simplicity of the message consumers feel connected to the social mission and the ability to feel part of something bigger (Marquis & Park, 2014). By buying a pair of shoes it can give the consumers a feeling of social prestige because their purchase supported something beyond their own self-interest, subsequently tying an emotional impact to the purchase (Grace, 2013; Tran, 2015). The success of their marketing strategy is in line with research that found that companies that focus their marketing efforts somehow on their mission showed a five percent growth compared to one percent for companies without a clear stance on CSR (Avins, 2014a). However, TOMS does not spend a whole lot of money on marketing since their use of social media and storytelling has made them enjoy a lot of free publicity, making the movement highly visible. Additionally, they had the advantage (and later disadvantage as their model was the victim of a lot of criticism) of being the first one to introduce BOGO, which creates a first mover advantage possibly boosting their sales as well as their publicity.

As was touched upon before, due to their first mover advantage and their explicit social mission, TOMS story was picked up pretty soon after the launch of the brand. Los Angeles Times was the first to publish a story on the brand and its social mission. Soon other media picked up on it, celebrities endorsed the brand and Bill Clinton called Blake Mycoskie: "*one of the most interesting entrepreneurs I've ever met*" (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017b, para. 4). News and other sources of media have been writing a lot on TOMS shoes and it is very rare that these items do not cover anything on their one-for-one model or their social mission, regardless of the fact if this coverage is positive or negative. Google Trends shows a quite steady news coverage on TOMS Shoes. When searching the term 'Buy One Give

One', TOMS is the first BOGO company showing up in related topics, Warby Parker is the only other company present in the list. Additionally, 'TOMS buy one give one' is also on the list of related queries (Google, 2017b). Google News covers 60 thousand items on TOMS Shoes and 6500 on TOMS Shoes in combination with the word donate (Google, 2017a). When scrolling through the search results, you can see one-for-one is clearly closely linked to TOMS at all times.

As with the other companies, there is not much that can be found on employee engagement with regard to the company's social mission. Blake Mycoskie seems to be convinced that their One-for-One movement does not only engage consumers but certainly also their employees. He says: *"I've been lucky enough to attract passionate, dedicated people who will do anything to make an impact on the world. They are all seeking something more than a 9-to-5 job."* (Zimmerman, 2009, para. 12). Zimmerman (2009) argues that good employee morale is an intangible benefit of the BOGO business model. Blake Mycoskie additionally underwrites an argument that has been expressed before. Even though you might have limited capital as a social enterprise, people are willing to leave their jobs and high paychecks to come and work for you to be part of something. One-for-one seems to attract and retain a lot of talented workers as well as improve employee morale (Mycoskie, n.d.).

In order to effectively create an impact it is important that the company as well as the associated partners have well-defined goals. TOMS Shoes does not seem to have clear defined goals concerning the social impact they want to achieve. They seem to be aiming to reach as many people as possible through their programs, while at the same time aiming to effectively market their efforts. They have not formulated or publicized clear targets with regard to long term goals and solutions to alleviate poverty. To date TOMS Shoes has conducted one impact study related to their shoes giving program. Long-term outcomes have not been studied for any of their other one-for-one offerings. They do outline the impact they have achieved to date with regard to how many people they have reached with their One-for-One movement, distinguishing between the different offerings. There is no public information available on how much TOMS shoes exactly contributes to their Giving Partners in order to implement their one-for-one approach.

As opposed to Waka Waka and Warby Parker TOMS is not a B corporation, additionally Rank-A-Brand has given them an E score, which is the lowest sustainability score (Rank a Brand, 2015). This does not mean the company is not sustainable in any way, it simply means that they are not transparent about their environmental and supply chain practices.

<u>Nonprofit:</u>

As mentioned before TOMS has a lot of Giving Partners. It is therefore hard to determine to what extend these partners have enjoyed significant increased funding through their partnership with TOMS. None of the annual reports of the Giving Partners that have been studied go into detail as to how much TOMS exactly contributes, neither does TOMS itself. Only Water for People gives us an estimate of TOMS contribution stating TOMS roasting Co. in their Everyone Forever Leaders Channel which covers donations between $ 100,000 - $249,999 (Water for People, 2017a). Judging from the number of partners, and the fact that funds will be have to be distributed amongst them, most likely Giving Partners will also have other substantial sources of income to run their operations.

Increased funding however is of course not the only reason for a non-profit to become a partner of TOMS. Of the Giving Partners that have been included in this study, at least two have some significant coverage on their partnership with TOMS. For Children International, TOMS is the first one of the Global Partners on their website. Additionally, a lot of stories channeled on their story page feature TOMS and their Giving Trips that are organized through the nonprofit (Children International, 2017c). Another Giving Partner, Save the Children, an organization that aims to provide children in third world countries with a better future, says: "*TOMS plays a critical role in raising visibility for Save the Children's brand, offering regular exposure to new audiences and influencers."* (Save the Children, n.d., para. 7). Seva, a nonprofit organization that focuses on restoring sight, also channels a lot of stories featuring TOMS. No Bully, an organization that fights bullying, mentions becoming a proud TOMS' giving partner, as did BRAC (BRAC, 2015; No Bully, 2015; Seva, 2017a). TOMS gives these non-profits an distinct incentive to become a Giving Partner as their social media strategy gives them a great reach and wide audience. TOMS channels a Giving Partner Spotlight on their website in which every partner is featured at least once. The Giving Partner Spotlight is a short piece on what the specific Giving Partner does and how the partnership with TOMS is operationalized. Additionally, they write a lot of stories on their blog in which Giving Partners are mentioned (TOMS Shoes LLC, 2017i). This might increase brand image as well as awareness for the cause of the Giving Partners. Furthermore, non-profits might try and learn from their experience with TOMS for example with regard to marketing, which is what Water for People did when they joined forces on a customized media campaign (Water for People, 2016). Is also seems to work the other way around as the Giving Partners that have been looked into in this study score high on the Charity Navigator and are also acknowledged by other institutions that accredit nonprofits for their activities. This indicates they have a good track record and will not be able to hurt TOMS company image. This good reputation and track record is most likely also one of the reasons these non-profits were selected by TOMS in the first place, indicating an interaction between these two factors.

Unfortunately, there is little to be found on the hiring practices of TOMS Giving Partners or if TOMS has anything to do with their recruitment practices in any way. TOMS does send their employees on regular giving trips with their Giving Partners that provide shoes as a part of their programs. This way their employees engage with the cause and the partners they work with (Save the Children, n.d.).

In contrast to the limited transparency TOMS offers, the Giving Partners that have been studied provide up to date annual reports, inform the public on the impact they have achieved and the long term goals that they strive to accomplish and how they want to get there.

Beneficiaries:

TOMS has been criticized heavily for not addressing root causes of poverty. To address this criticism the company has made significant changes to its business model as well as expending their offering into different products and donation formats. In addition to donating in-kind, other one-for-one offerings use a part of the proceeds from sales to fund several initiatives such as clean water systems, sight restoration and bullying prevention programs. This indicates at least an attempt to create a more impactful business model, as most academics have agreed that in-kind donations do not benefit people on the long-term, but are only useful in crisis situations (Bansal, 2012; Jannuzzi, 2012; Wydick et al., 2014). In order to provide long term solutions, beneficiaries need to be part of the solution. This seems to be the case with the Gift of Water. Additionally, restoring sight and providing safe birth seems to be improving quality of life in the long run as well. Moreover, TOMS has been working on providing jobs in the countries they donate shoes to by setting up manufacturing in these countries. This does not only create local jobs, in the end it is also beneficial for TOMS as it cuts distribution costs and time. However, since this is mentioned as ‘Beyond One-for-One’ on their website it seems like TOMS sees this as an additionality rather than a necessity of making an impact.

TOMS’ Giving Partners do seem to value local involvement and empowerment and require these virtues to be present in order for aid campaigns to be successful. Especially the empowerment of women and girls is emphasized by four out of the five Giving Partners studied. This might indicate that even though TOMS has not defined its goals and impact in detail, they have selected partners that do. By expanding their business model into different BOGO offerings, TOMS seems to have chosen the right partners to make up for the somewhat easy outlook on helping people they have been accused of. The lack of information provision on TOMS’ part makes them lack credibility, as this is in sharp contrast with the strength with which the market their social mission. Additionally, as their one-for-one offering has been expanded over the years, the products and their attached ‘Give One’-part have become more and more divergent. This could be because TOMS has identified vital needs and wants to address those, yet in some cases it seems like they want to keep true to their successful One-for-One movement even though the link between the ‘Buy One’ and ‘Give One’ becomes a bit far-fetched.

Conclusion

This comparative case study was set out to explore a relatively new concept: ‘Buy-One-Give-One’, by means of studying three cases in depth. The cases and their respective BOGO strategy were selected based on the different donation formats as identified by Marquis and Park (2014). The following cases were analyzed: Waka Waka (donation of a similar product), Warby Parker (percentage of the profit/sales) and TOMS Shoes (combination of both).

Waka Waka is a Dutch company that sells solar devices and works together with their own Waka Waka foundation in order to create an impact through their ‘Share the Sun’ initiative. With the distribution of solar devices they aim to provide light and energy to people without access to the electricity grid. In order to distribute one solar device for every one sold, the markup in Western markets is significant so the proceeds from one sale can fund the production and distribution of two products. The solar devices are sold to consumers in Western, as well as developing countries and products are only donated in crisis situations. Access to light and power can result in improved productivity, education, health and safety and enhance the overall quality of life.

Warby Parker is an eyewear company based in the United States, that first and foremost focuses on being a successful fashion brand. Their social mission is not at the core of the organization, nevertheless they claim to have made a considerable impact through their ‘Buy a Pair, Give a Pair’ approach. Their primary partner is the social enterprise VisionSpring, an organization that tries to have an impact by offering a market-based solution to correct people’s vision. Warby Parker donates the amount of money that is needed to source the same number of glasses they have sold. The provision of glasses through a market-based solution provides local employment. Additionally, people get a chance to obtain an affordable pair of glasses which enables increased productivity and education.

The last case is TOMS Shoes, also based in the United States and the initiator of the One-for-One movement™. The company started their BOGO model with the donation of shoes, but is now involved in the gift of sight, water, safe birth and kindness. They work with over 100 Giving Partners and use the donation of a similar product (shoes) as well as a percentage of the proceeds to make an impact. This impact is established through either the donation of shoes, sight correction, one week of clean water, a safe birth or bullying prevention.

The cases outlined above were essentially analyzed to answer the following research question:
What makes a BOGO model effective from the perspective of firms, non-profits and beneficiaries?

By using pre-determined indicators of effectiveness for the three most important stakeholders involved (as outlined in the Indicators of Effectiveness section) the effectiveness of these BOGO approaches was determined. After having analysed the available information, the table below represents the effectiveness of the BOGO models as implemented by Waka Waka, Warby Parker and TOMS Shoes.

Effectiveness for stakeholders	***Waka Waka* *(one for one)***	***Warby Parker* *(percentage of profit)***	***TOMS Shoes* *(combination of both)***
Business	Beneficial	Partly beneficial	Beneficial
Non-profit	Beneficial	Beneficial	Partly beneficial
Beneficiaries	Partly beneficial	Beneficial	Ambiguous

Table 3: Effectiveness of the BOGO models implemented by Waka Waka, Warby Parker and TOMS Shoes

From table three, one could conclude that a 'one for one' or 'combined' BOGO approach is most beneficial for the *business*. A 'one for one' or 'percentage of profit' BOGO approach is most beneficial for the *non-profit* partner. And the 'percentage of profit' BOGO approach is most beneficial for the *beneficiaries.* However, one should also take into consideration that the way in which the 'Give One' part (one for one, percentage of profit or a combination of both) of the BOGO model comes about is not the only thing that sets these three cases apart. Therefore, rather than labelling one BOGO approach as the best model out there, it is more valuable to look at the most effective components of the three different strategies.

The business perspective

First of all, when looking at the business perspective BOGO seems to be most beneficial to the company when it is effectively marketed. Advertising a BOGO offering significantly increased Waka Waka's sales, making them decide to implement a BOGO approach for all their regular sales in the Western market. Increased sales as a result of marketing a social impact approach would reinforce earlier research claiming that companies that focus their marketing efforts somehow on their mission show a five percent growth compared to one percent for companies without a clear stance on CSR (Avins, 2014a). This relates closely to CRM, by the explicit marketing of a company's social mission (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). TOMS has been criticized along the way for failing to create social value, however the effectiveness of their marketing strategy has not been questioned by many. These BOGO marketing efforts demonstrate close similarities to CRM as both Waka Waka and TOMS shoes establish a clearly visible direct relationship between their sales and support of a social cause (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). The simplicity of the message makes consumers feel connected to the social mission and gives them a sense of being part of something bigger (Marquis & Park, 2014). This way a purchase is tied to an emotional feeling of acting beyond one's self-interest (Grace, 2013; Tran, 2015). This approach to marketing a cause-related initiative is in congruence with the transactional stage of Austin's model (2003) in which parties exchange value and provide each other with benefits, in this case the parties being referred to are the company and non-profit. However, the BOGO models of these companies are an inherent part of the organization which points to a more long-term commitment between two parties. This has consequently been proven to be more desirable for the PR potential (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). Despite the similarities we have identified, the long-term commitment would indicate that even though the companies actively market their Buy-One-Give-One offer thereby demonstrating characteristics of CRM campaigns, there are also some differences between the BOGO approach and traditional CRM efforts. Since BOGO is next to a marketing tool also an inherent part of these companies, largely influencing their operations as they are actively involved in pursuing their social impact, it goes beyond pure marketing purposes. The odd one out in these three cases is Warby Parker that claims they do not actively market their BOGO strategy. Still, they do mention Buy a Pair, Give a Pair on their website. Instead of wanting to be recognized for their BOGO offer, they want to be regarded as a successful fashion brand. Since their BOGO strategy is clearly not used as their main marketing tool to attract additional customers, we cannot say this approach is most beneficial to the company. But, even though this cannot be substantiated by concrete evidence, I would argue that their BOGO strategy has certainly done them no harm and will probably have increased their sales to some extend even without the explicit marketing. By not explicitly marketing their BOGO efforts, Warby Parker adheres to the arguments made by Porter and Kramer with regard to strategic CP. By marketing one's philanthropic efforts, emphasizes is on publicity rather than social impact (Porter & Kramer, 2002).

But increased sales and being acknowledged for your social efforts is not the only benefit that can be achieved by pursuing a BOGO strategy. The major benefit of BOGO as argued by Warby Parker is not so much about increasing sales, but rather about recruiting talented employees (Avins, 2014b). The same advantage is outlined by the founders of both Waka Waka and TOMS who argue that employees have primarily joined their company to be part of something bigger. Additionally, the BOGO business model is argued to increase employee morale, thereby decreasing employee turnover (Zimmerman, 2009). This is in accordance with earlier research stating that especially millennials would consider leaving their jobs when an employer's social-responsibility no longer matches their own (PwC, 2011). The use of BOGO as a strategy to influence HR practices relates to CP practices that have the potential to do just that. Companies use their social impact to attract potential employees that care about having a meaningful job (Evans & Davis, 2011; Roza, 2016). At the same time pursuing social goals can positively impact employee morale, lower turnover and increase productivity, significantly benefiting the company in the long run (Brammer & Millington, 2005; Lee et al., 2014; Porter & Kramer, 2002; Shaw & Post, 1993). When BOGO is used as a tool to attract and retain talented employees, marketing a company's social mission might still be beneficial to better reach potential talent. However, it is very likely that people looking for a job will investigate companies more thorough to get to the core of what they are doing in comparison to consumers. When they do so, they will most probably classify Warby Parker as a socially responsible company pursuing a double bottom line (financial and social value) even without explicit marketing.

Waka Waka and TOMS Shoes are usually considered and consider themselves to be social enterprises, with their business model revolving around making the greatest social impact. Warby Parker on the contrary does not argue to be a social enterprise but rather wants to be regarded as a successful fashion brand and consequently for-profit company. Instead of becoming a social enterprise, they chose to work together with one: VisionSpring. Therefore, the BOGO model as pursued by Warby Parker shows most resemblance with efforts of CP, with main benefits for the company being the recruitment of talented employees, possible increased sales and the image in people's mind of a socially responsible corporation. Waka Waka and TOMS Shoes seem to lean much more toward social entrepreneurship in which the social mission is central to their organization and pursued by means of a BOGO model. Additionally, both companies market their efforts based on CRM principles. Being the pioneer of the movement TOMS wanted to change the status quo, combining resources to create social as well as economic value (Mair & Martı, 2006; Seelos & Mair, 2005). Waka Waka's combination of a foundation with a for-profit company blurs boundaries between public, private and non-profit sectors as do social enterprises (Johnson, 2000), but also shows resemblance with a distinct way in which CP is be set up by companies, by establishing their own foundation. The reason why it is less appropriate to refer to this BOGO strategy as CP, is because the social mission is the sole reason for founding this company. Therefore, it cannot be regarded as a secondary goal, but it is a goal in itself. The foundation tied to the company is a means to achieve that social mission. Moreover, both companies quantify success for the major part based on the social impact achieved rather than economic measures. These are all characteristics that point to Waka Waka and TOMS Shoes and their BOGO model belonging more to the realm of social enterpreneurship. One thing that sets TOMS apart again is the fact that they seem to be able to capture significant economic value next to the social value they claim to create. Usually this is a quite difficult task for social enterprises (Dees, 1998; Mair & Martı, 2006).

A final interesting link when discussing the business perspective is how BOGO compares to strategic CP, as both practices have been proven to be successful opportunities to improve a company's double bottom line. Strategic CP, as introduced by Porter and Kramer (2002) is pursued by companies to optimize their competitive environment. It aims to create shared value by enhancing a company's competitiveness while at the same time improving social and economic conditions in communities in which the company operates (Porter & Kramer, 2002). The concept of shared value can also be used to describe BOGO, where the value created is shared between the company, the non-profit and the beneficiary. The shared value approach is also the reason for the still increasing growth in companies that use the BOGO model according to Marquis and Park (2014). This shared value approach however is set up with different ultimate goals in mind. For-profits merely use strategic CP to more successfully pursue their bottom line. BOGO companies create shared value in order to more effectively pursue their double or triple bottom line, consequently maximizing their social impact. BOGO models do not specifically intend to benefit local communities in the company's own competitive environment as does strategic CP. They intend to optimize the environment and conditions in places where their BOGO impact is carried out.

The BOGO models of Waka Waka and TOMS Shoes seem to be most effective in increasing sales through their explicit marketing. All three BOGO strategies seem to be equally effective in obtaining HR benefits, however further in-depth research is needed to confirm this.

The non-profit perspective

Taking the non-profit perspective, all involved parties seem to benefit from the BOGO strategy implemented, some to a greater degree than others. With regard to funding the Waka Waka foundation seems to benefit the most, VisionSpring would come second and most likely TOMS' Giving Partners would come third. In Waka Waka's case BOGO proceeds account for most of the money that flows to the foundation and only a minor percentage is pure donations. Waka Waka claims that *"the Buy One, Give One offer was up to 100 times more effective in delivering products to Haiti than requesting product donations"* (Waka Waka, 2013, para. 3). In the case of Warby Parker an educated guess tells us that a large part of VisionSpring's philanthropic funds originate from the company. For TOMS a few of their partners receive a significant part of their funding through TOMS' BOGO proceeds, for others it is only a minor percentage. Increased funding is a benefit for non-profits as mentioned in literature for both CRM (Hawkins, 2012; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988) and CP (Rumsey & White, 2009).

However, as explained earlier not only increased funding is a positive outcome of such a BOGO partnership. Increased awareness for the non-profit as well as their causes is a very meaningful result, which corresponds with benefits non-profits acquire through CRM initiatives (Hawkins, 2012; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). Image building is also an important advantage mentioned in CP literature (Rumsey & White, 2009). Through TOMS wide reach and the explicit marketing of their Giving Partners, TOMS would be most effective in creating awareness for these organizations and their causes. As one of their partners mentioned on their website: "*TOMS plays a critical role in raising visibility for Save the Children's brand, offering regular exposure to new audiences and influencers."* (Save the Children, n.d., para. 7). In the case of the Waka Waka foundation, having an associated non-profit partner with the same name has mutual benefits. Since Waka Waka has a good reputation, this is automatically linked to the foundation. Additionally, Waka Waka mentions the benefit of sharing a marketing budget. VisionSpring is the only non-profit partner of Warby Parker mentioned by name on their website as well as throughout news coverage. However, as Warby Parker does not explicitly market their social mission VisionSpring's additional exposure through this partnership might be less compared to the other two cases. None of the cases seems to display any of the risks that are mentioned in the CRM literature with regard to a partnership between a for-profit and non-profit organization. The fact that TOMS received some criticism concerning their BOGO strategy did not seem to have any impact on their Giving Partners. In these three cases, working with companies has not turned out risky or controversial for these non-profits (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hawkins, 2012).

Some of TOMS' Giving Partners have also mentioned their learning experience from working with TOMS, especially with regard to marketing practices. As non-profits usually cannot employ the same talent as for-profit companies due to limited financial resources and the fact that they operate in a different competitive environment, organizational learning could be valuable to both parties. Due to the limited information available on this topic, further research is needed in order to study to what extent organizational learning occurs and how this benefits both partners involved.

All of the aforementioned non-profit partners are believed to benefit from their partnership with the BOGO company. When looking at the literature one could tie back to CRM, in which the success of a campaign is largely dependent on the consumer regarding the initiative as either cause-exploitive or cause-beneficial (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). In all of these cases, the success of these partnerships for both parties indicate that consumers perceive the BOGO initiatives as cause-beneficial. This is most likely the case since the BOGO offer is easy to understand and the impact of the purchase is clear and concrete. This limits the likelihood of consumers looking beyond the BOGO offer to find out what amount is donated, thereby evaluating a company's motives (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2013). One thing that influences consumers' perceptions in the case of CRM is perceived cause-brand fit. This cause-brand fit seems sensible in the case of Waka Waka and their foundation (both fight energy poverty) and Warby Parker and VisionSpring (selling glasses and restoring vision). However, the further the TOMS One-for-One movement developed, the more their offering seemed to move away from the impact they have on their beneficiaries, as was explained in the case (e.g. Backpak and no bullying). However, no evidence was found that this significantly impacted consumer perceptions or hurt TOMS or their Giving Partners in any way. This might indicate that cause-brand fit is not as critical to BOGO as it is to CRM. Even though I would agree with the notion that companies need to support causes that are close to their core business (Barone, Norman, & Miyazaki, 2007) in order to increase credibility and maximize impact, consumers seem to be quite indifferent. Further research should investigate if this is really the case.

The BOGO models of Waka Waka and Warby Parker seem to be most beneficial to the non-profits by offering the advantage of highest increased funding. The BOGO model of TOMS seems to be most beneficial to the non-profit partners due to the explicit marketing of their Giving Partners, thereby creating increased awareness of the non-profit and the cause. Organizational learning between the two parties is a subject for further research.

The beneficiary perspective

Taking the beneficiary perspective, the BOGO model of Warby Parker and their partnership with VisionSpring seems to be most effective, as their approach yields most advantages for people on the receiving end. Social impact is however a very hard thing to measure and therefore results need to be critically evaluated. BOGO strategies as well as aid organizations have been criticized for not addressing the root cause of complex problems. One very important argument made is that in-kind donations are often used, which creates a culture of dependency as well as possible disruptions of local markets (Bansal, 2012; Jannuzzi, 2012; Wydick, 2015). That is why I would argue that it is important for a BOGO model to focus on solving the underlying societal problem instead of trying to fight the symptoms by simply donating products. Warby Parker as well as Waka Waka have acknowledged this from the start. Warby Parker's non-profit partner VisionSpring operates based on a market based solution, creating jobs, offering people affordable glasses as well as the dignity of choice. Vision correction has been proven to result in benefits such as increased productivity and income, enabling people to get out of poverty and offer them a brighter future. Waka Waka has a mission to fight energy poverty. Donations are only used in crisis situations when access to power and light can mean the difference between life or death. Provision of energy and light has shown to improve productivity, education, health and safety. Currently their operations are mainly focused on donations (in crisis situations), as their market-based solution is only implemented through the subsidiary in Rwanda, somewhat limiting their impact. TOMS has been heavily criticized for their initial BOGO model which was based on pure donations. After acknowledging the fair criticism, TOMS partly changed their BOGO model by expanding their offering. Even though they have found better ways to integrate their donations and address more serious problems such as maternal death and vision impairment, their basic one-for-one model is still donation based. Going back to Jannuzzi's (2012) versions of BOGO that concern the impact they are able to achieve, TOMS would be positioned in between version 1.0, Treating the Symptoms, and 2.0, Treating the Causes, since their model is still mainly based on donations. Warby Parker and Waka Waka would qualify as version 2.0 as they aim to solve complex problems, giving people the dignity of choice and empowering local communities by offering market-based solutions.

Adopting a critical perspective, especially concerning the impact of the three BOGO models on the beneficiaries, a common problem must be pointed out: the lack of transparency. All three companies have chosen a legal form that does not obligate them to publish any reports. But even though the law might not require them to publish any data, their presumed central social mission does. The lack of transparency is not in line with the commitment made in their BOGO strategy. If you market such a strong social mission (especially Waka Waka and TOMS), you should feel the need and responsibility to report to what extent you have achieved your goals. This is important for the stakeholders as well as for the company itself as it makes them aware of what has been achieved and what can be improved. The reason why this lack of transparency is also relevant for the beneficiaries, is because I believe that being transparent is key to showing how these companies have lived up to their promises, but also to show that they have learned from their failures and improved their practices. Well-defined goals and reporting on the progress of achieving those goals will ensure that companies feel the pressure to actually make a difference in the lives of the end beneficiaries and contribute to their progress. Transparent and consistent reporting increases credibility and can also help other organizations to learn from past experiences. Waka Waka does not publish any financial information on how BOGO sales account for money donations to the foundation. This makes it hard to verify if their behavior is actually in line with the commitment as laid down in their BOGO strategy. It is impossible for example, to check if their BOGO strategy is purely 'one for one'. Additionally, the latest Waka Waka Foundation report is from 2013, which means recent results cannot be studied. The same goes for Warby Parker, no financial data is made publicly available to show how much of the proceeds are used to source the glasses. Furthermore, VisionSpring's latest annual report is also not a recent one as it originates from 2014. Similarly, TOMS does not seem to be more transparent than the previously mentioned companies with regard to what they contribute financially. Their Giving Partners, on the other hand, do seem to be very consistent and transparent in reporting their impact. However, since TOMS keeps expanding their One-for-One movement which leads to a growing number of Giving Partners it is hard to keep track of the actual impact they have achieved. The reason why these companies display a lack of transparency is not always evident. Waka Waka argues that it is hard to collect data since they are not usually the ones to reach their end beneficiaries. Still, companies should make transparency a top priority, otherwise explaining why data cannot be provided. If companies fail to do so, it makes people wonder if there is something to hide, which can be detrimental when a company pursues a social mission. Meanwhile the lack of transparency can very well be caused by a lack of capacity of limited expertise in data collection and analyses, rather than the deliberate withholding of results. Problems with measuring and reporting social impact have been acknowledged in CRM, CP as well as SE literature. SE literature additionally outlines that social impact targets differ depending on the company, therefore measurement is adapted to the organization, which makes it often more subjective and hard to compare (Dees, 1998).

The BOGO models of Waka Waka and Warby Parker seem to be most effective for the end beneficiaries. Arguably this is because of their clear focus on two distinct problems they aim to solve: vision impairment and energy poverty. TOMS Shoes impact is harder to measure, partly due to their broad offering and divergent areas of impact. Transparency is a critical point in all three cases and needs considerable improvement in order to verify whether the impact reported is actually realized.

As can be seen from the three case studies in this thesis, there are a lot of factors in addition to the way the 'Give One' of BOGO comes about that influence the model's effectiveness. With regard to the characteristics of BOGO models as identified by Marquis and Park (2014), most are valid for these three companies and their respective BOGO strategies.

First of all, they all offer consumer products and two of them offer apparel (TOMS and Warby Parker). This product offering enables people to express their own style while showing their support for a cause for the same time (Marquis & Park, 2014; Rollins, 2016; Solomon, 2015). Waka Waka offers solar devices and even though this is not apparel, it targets a promising customer segment, usually the knowledgeable travellers willing to pay more for a quality product.

Second, none of the prices top $100, except for some of Warby Parker's glasses. From the case analyses it becomes clear that Waka Waka charges a higher price in the Western market to provide for the financial resources needed to 'Give One'. TOMS charges a premium price as well as keeping their costs low. Warby Parker has primarily found a way to keep costs to a minimum.

The third aspect as outlined in the article is the potential of BOGO to serve as an effective marketing tool creating economic value as well as attracting talented employees. As was already discussed, of the three cases, Warby Parker is the only company that does not explicitly market their BOGO strategy.

Next to the main research question the following sub-question was formulated in order to create a guideline for the possible implementation of a BOGO model, initiated by either the non-profit or firm, having an impact on the beneficiary.

What is the best practice to implement a BOGO model for each of the three stakeholders (firms, non-profits and beneficiaries)?

As became clear from the case studies, two out of the three companies studied actively market their BOGO strategy. A lot of criticism has been expressed in the realm of CRM towards companies actively marketing their social impact efforts. They argue that even though such initiatives might have the potential to create social as well as economic value, most of the companies use it primarily to their own advantage (Hawkins, 2012). BOGO can be regarded as a form of 'consumption philanthropy' in which complex issues are made consumable by the purchase of a product (Eikenberry, 2009). Moreover, BOGO companies have been accused of not addressing the root causes of the problems they aim to solve. In order to address this criticism companies should put more thought into how and why they want to implement a BOGO model. Two ways to implement a BOGO model were identified through the case analyses. First of all, BOGO can be used as an extra dimension to the company with the aim to create more than just economic value, but not representing the central mission. This is what is Warby Parker does. They do not claim to be a social enterprise, they merely want to create social impact as a company. They have selected a giving impact that is close to their core business and selected an experienced partner in order to carry out their BOGO strategy. This is a key point for a successful BOGO model. Instead of trying to deliver the product yourself a company is usually better off selecting an experienced local partner to create solutions for the underlying problems (SEI, 2014). The second option is the one Waka Waka and TOMS demonstrate, making BOGO an integral part of your company, using it as a tool to successfully pursue your social mission that is central to the company. Social enterprises could use this innovative business model in order to increase their social impact as it has been proven to increase sales and attract talented employees. Therefore, marketing BOGO is effective for the businesses involved. However, companies should take into consideration that they really intend to create this social impact and not merely market it. Transparency is a crucial factor in communicating a company's credibility with regard to their social mission. Consistent and transparent reporting should therefore be a priority. The acid test as defined by Porter and Kramer (2002) which is used for CP in order to determine whether or not an effort can be regarded as good philanthropy is a good way to test a company's intentions. A company must determine whether the desired social change is so beneficial to the company (or the beneficiaries) that the organization would pursue the change even if no one ever knew about it (Porter & Kramer, 2002). Additionally, social return on investment (SROI) is a method of impact measurement that has been gaining popularity. This method is similar to a cost-benefit analysis that measures non-financial value created relative to resources invested. SROI attempts to measures 'hard outcomes' (e.g. number of children passing a literacy test) as well as 'soft outcomes' (e.g. increased happiness) The method is mainly used for charities and NGOs, but would be suitable for use by e.g. social enterprises (Jimenez & Pulos, 2012). SROI would be a good method to implement in order to measure social impact. Consequently, when the method is adopted by several companies, comparing relative impact will be a lot easier.

The non-profits that partner with a BOGO company and are responsible for making their impact mainly stand to gain from increased funding and increased awareness. Therefore, when engaging in a BOGO partnership non-profits should be very much aware of the advantages these companies have to offer them, but also the risks that might occur. These companies can be successful for-profits that provide increased funding because of their high sales (e.g. in the case of Warby Parker). Furthermore, they can provide increased awareness of the organization and their cause by explicitly marketing the non-profit (e.g. TOMS). This is of course most effective when the for-profit has a wide reach and a good reputation. Even though not yet proven to be true for BOGO, non-profits that are not very familiar in people's minds are likely to benefit more from a partnership with a for-profit according to CRM literature (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005). Organizational learning could be very valuable to non-profits and would seem most likely to occur when the company's activities relate to the non-profit's activities.

Beneficiaries benefit most from BOGO models that are initiated by companies that truly want to make an impact. Wanting to make an impact does not mean a company will get it right the first time, but it does mean that they will try and develop in order to get to the most effective and sustainable model. Based on the versions of BOGO introduced by Jannuzzi (2012) companies need to aim for version 2.0 at least in which they try to address the root causes of complex problems. This can be best done by operating on market based solutions that work according to an exchange of value even though the value people in developing countries can offer is only limited. Rather than referring to a 'Give One' approach companies should consider a 'Subsidize One' or 'Empower One' approach. Market-based solutions have been proven to empower people and create more long-term sustainable solutions, initiating economic development. Version 3.0 would be most ideal according to Jannuzzi by acknowledging people's potential and facilitating them in pursuing this potential by providing them with the necessary infrastructure and resources to do so. Most important in finding effective ways to help these people is to start with what they need and not assume that we know what they need. Solutions need to be culturally relevant in order to be adopted by the beneficiaries and create long-term sustainable value. We need to work with the people we want to help, not for them (Costello, 2012). They need to be regarded as equal parties and given the opportunity to build their own future by means we so often take for granted.

Limitations and Future Research

This thesis provides a lot of valuable insights into the BOGO model and its effectiveness, nevertheless the research also has several limitations that need to be taken into account.

First of all, the number of cases studied is limited. This is due to the scope of this thesis as well as the information that was available. This leads to limited external validity and consequently low generalizability of results. This is always a major barrier in doing case study research. However, this does not mean that results cannot be used in practice as several conclusions could be drawn from the comparison of these case studies. In order to verify the outcomes of this research, additional companies and their BOGO models should be studied and the results should be compared in order to analyze differences and similarities with the three cases that make up this research.

Second, some indicators of effectiveness defined beforehand could not be identified as relevant in the cases studied. This was mostly caused by the limited availability of secondary data on indicators such as the HR benefits of BOGO including recruiting employees and employee morale. In order to further investigate these indicators future research should focus on gathering primary data by means of interviews and observation within companies and non-profits in order to draw conclusions about these indicators of effectiveness.

The secondary data in itself has proven to be a limitation to a certain extent. It must be taken into consideration that a significant amount of information used was produced by the companies themselves, hence this may have created a biased outcome as companies merely publish what they wish to share. Nevertheless, because Warby Parker and TOMS are well-known companies, a lot of information was available for analysis. Especially information provided on TOMS contained different points of view, which was valuable for the research. Fortunately, Waka Waka's archival data sources could be complemented by primary data in the form of an interview with someone who was involved with Waka Waka in the past and email correspondence with a senior employee at the company. This somewhat limits the bias of the data and provides more in-depth information. Still, due to several constraints the information shared by Waka Waka was not exhaustive and therefore it was hard to get to the bottom of some critical factors. Secondary data will always pose a certain limitation to the research validity, especially when there is not a significant number of sources of evidence that can be consulted.

Another factor that might have influenced the outcome of this research is the geographic location of the companies. Two of the cases presented American based companies and one was a company based in the Netherlands. Further research should look into cultural factors influencing the effectiveness of BOGO models.

Lastly, most information available was on the company involved rather than the non-profit and beneficiary perspective. Analysis from their perspective was sometimes possible only to a limited extent due to a lack of publicly available information, a lack of transparency and a lack of or inconsistent measurements.

Future research should focus specifically on primary data collection in order to investigate the effectiveness of BOGO models. These could focus on the HR benefits, organizational learning between the non-profit and the company and impact measurement. Additionally, consumer attitudes towards companies using BOGO could be investigated in more depth in order to see if these findings coincide with results on consumer attitudes towards CRM campaigns. Furthermore, in order to increase knowledge on the perspective of non-profits and beneficiaries - as I think this still lags behind- studies should focus on these stakeholders in greater depth.

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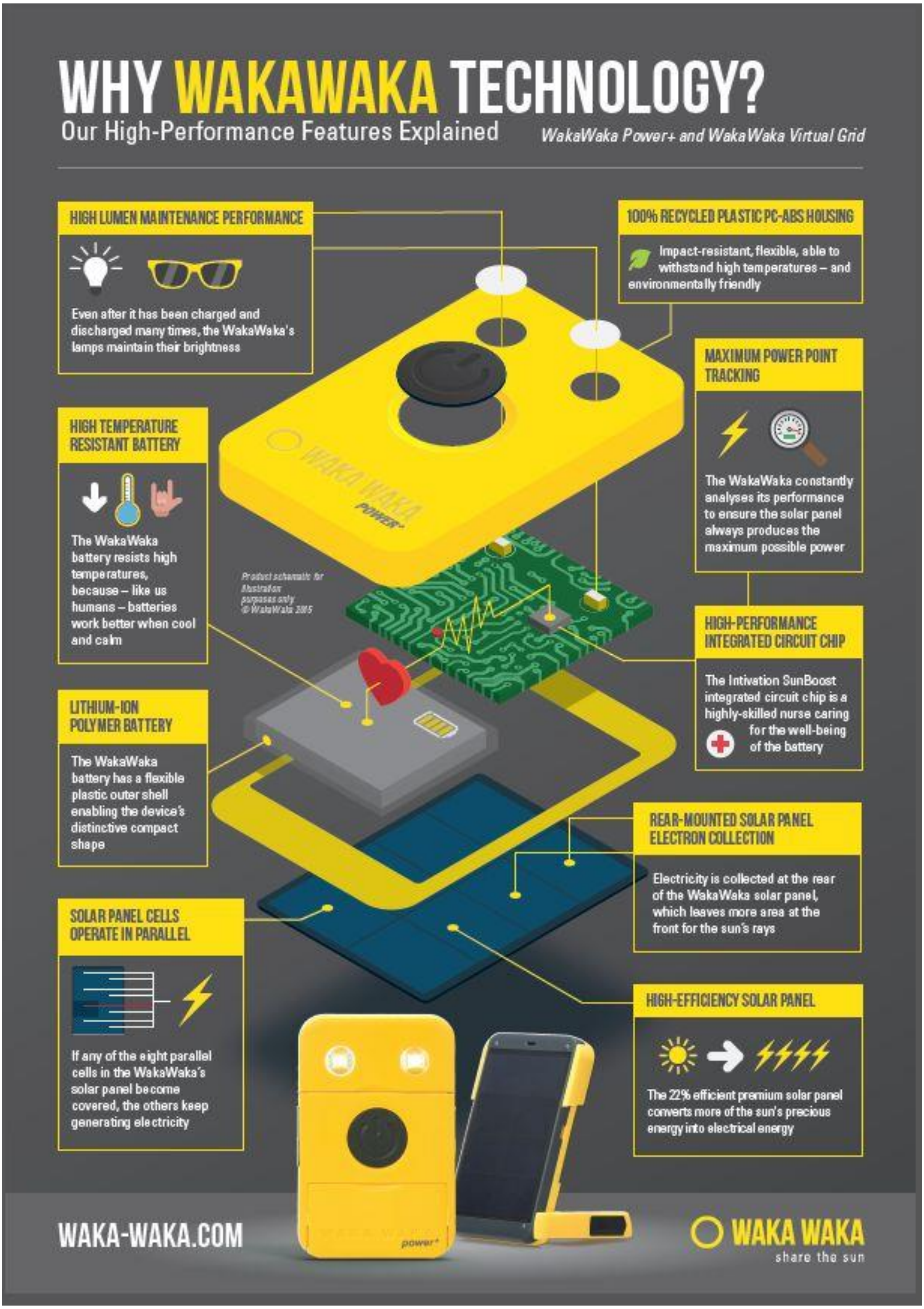
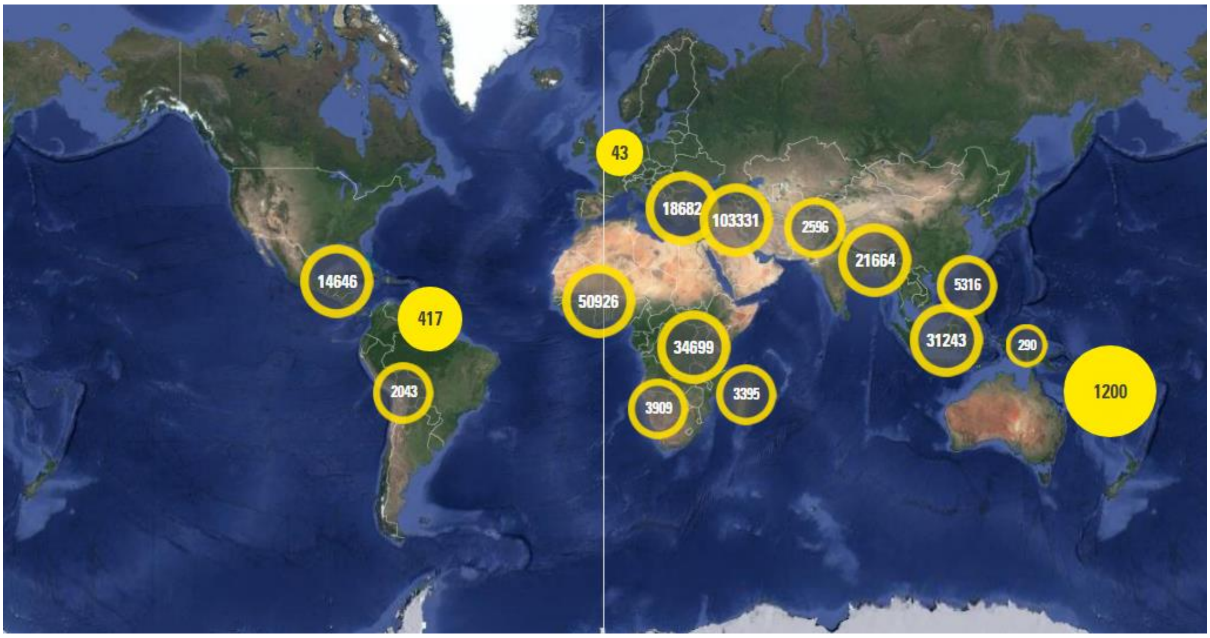
Appendices

Appendix 1



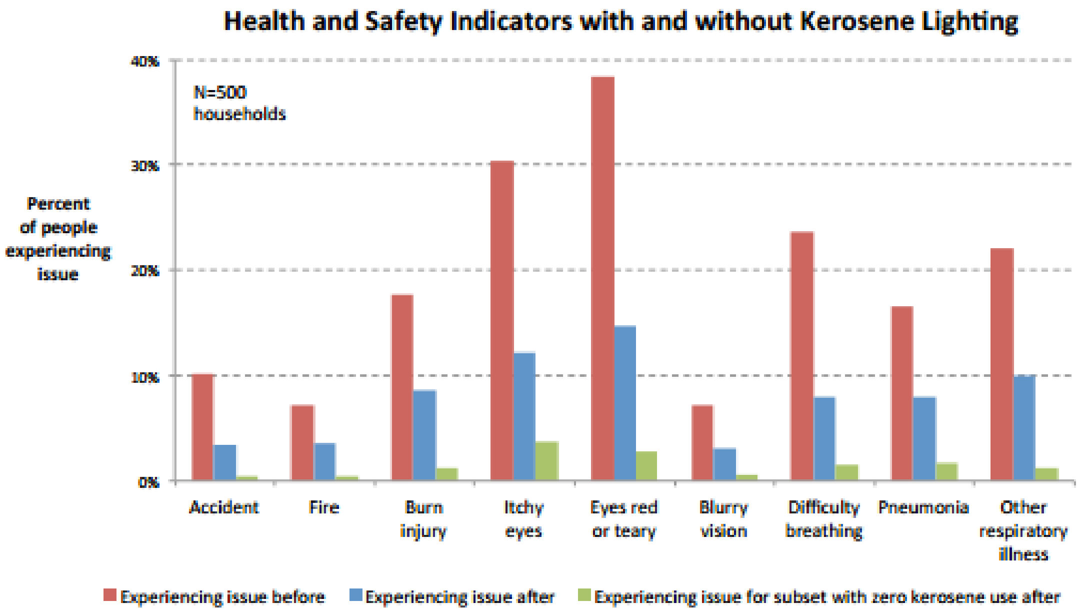
(Waka Waka, 2016c)

Appendix 2



(Waka Waka, 2017c)

Appendix 3



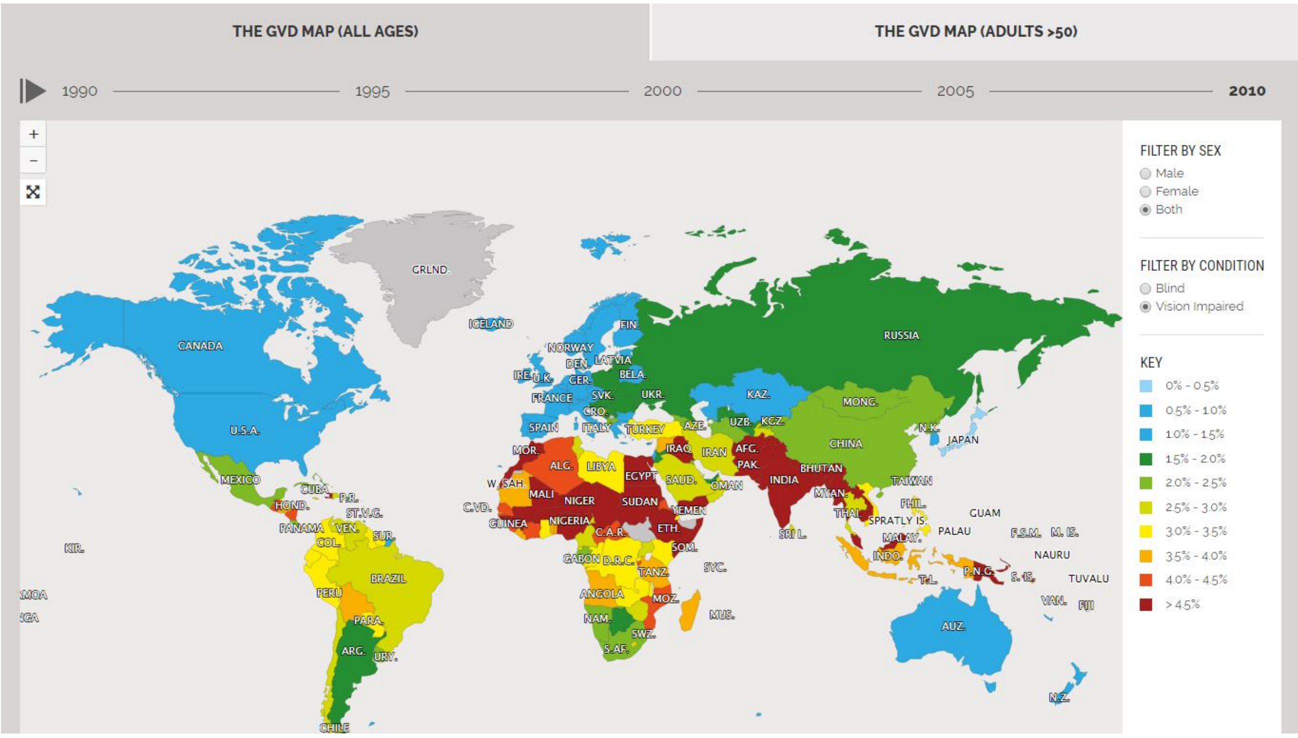
Changes in user-reported health and safety problems believed to be associated with kerosene lanterns before and after receipt of LED-solar replacements among 500 homes in the Philippines (Thatcher 2012).

(Mills, 2012)

Appendix 4

(VisionSpring, 2015)

Appendix 5



(Vision Atlas, 2010)

Appendix 6

ECONOMIC IMPACT OF READING GLASSES
(per consumer)

$2 Average Daily income
X 280 Working Days Per Year
X 20% Average increase in monthly income
- $4 Average Cost of Our Eyeglasses

$108 annual increase in earning potential

$108 average increase in annual income
- $4 initial investment
/ $4 initial investment

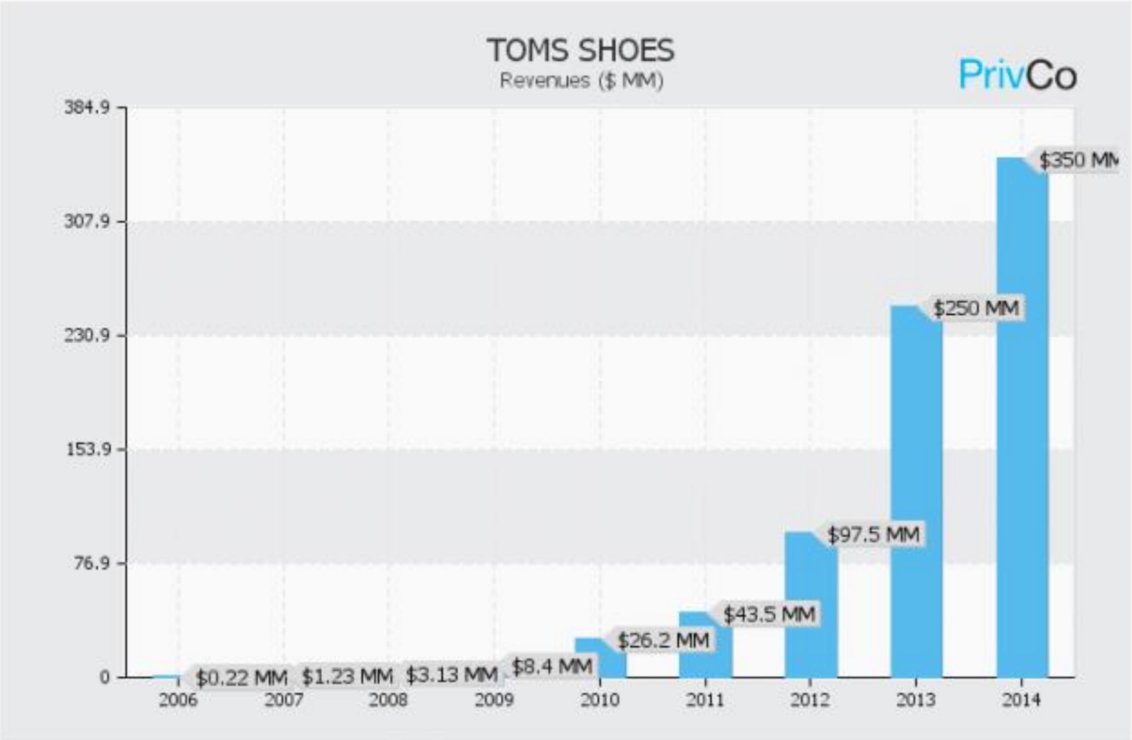
26 times the return on investment

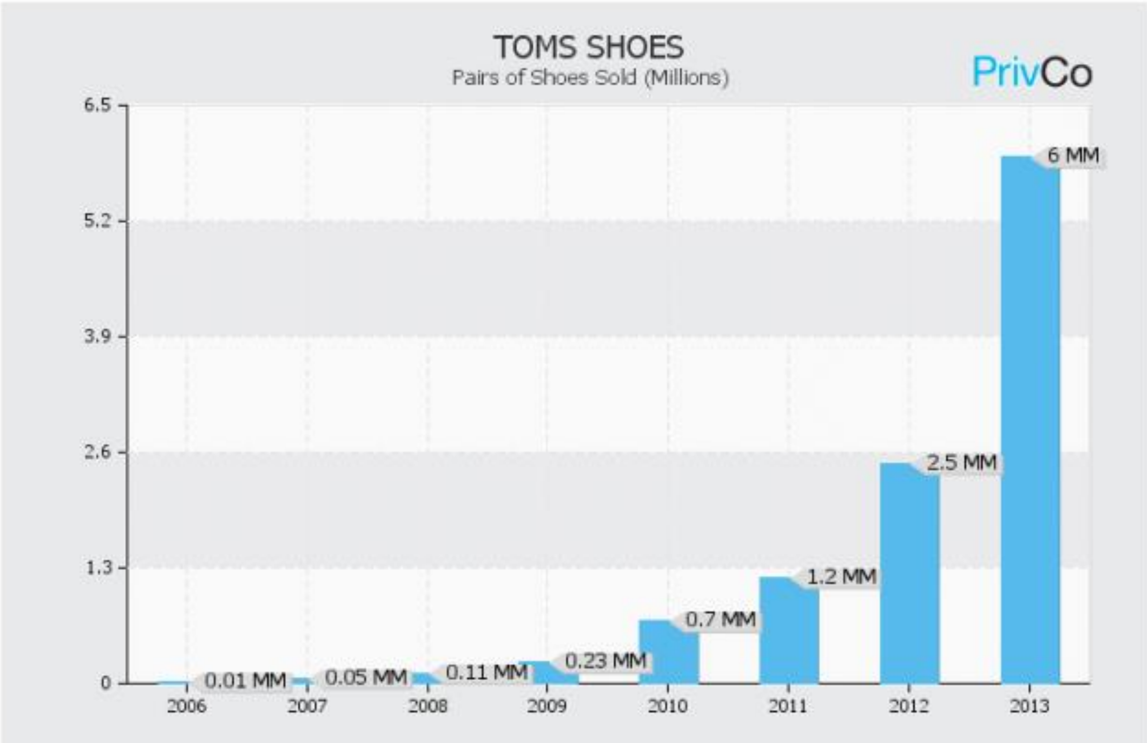
(VisionSpring, 2013)

Appendix 7

(Water for People, 2017c)

Appendix 8





(Tran, 2015)