Corporate Social Responsibility: Committing to Social and Environmental Impact in the Global Economy

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Defined by the World Business Council (2009) as a “commitment by business to contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the community and society at large” (p. 3), corporate social responsibility (CSR) has emerged as a driving force for social and environmental change within the global economy. It is a catalyst for financial communication, and in turn it is shaped by the media, public and investor relations, advertising, and activism. CSR can take many forms, including community engagement, volunteerism, environmentalism, and philanthropy. It can also include the changing of business practices, such as product packaging or supply chain management, for social or environmental benefit. A managerial definition of CSR comes from Davis (1973), who describes it as an organization’s “considerations of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm to accomplish social [and environmental] benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks” (p. 312).

Debates over the benefits and costs of CSR programs feature wide-ranging and strongly held perspectives in academic and management communities. A view put forth by Friedman (2007) argues that the social responsibility of companies is the maximization of profits. Others argue that CSR falls outside the purview of the profitability equation (Kolstad, 2007). Regardless of such wide-ranging beliefs, the growing stature of CSR has major implications for businesses of all sizes (Sprinkle & Maines, 2010). For its strongest proponents, there are both good social cases and good business cases for CSR, with the latter reflected in the bolstering of the bottom line. The cultivation of engaged and loyal customers can lead to improved market share, increased profitability, and other financial incentives. Other CSR advocates, however, maintain that a company’s socially responsible program should inherently include moving away from the maxim of profit maximization (Kolstad, 2007).

At the heart of much CSR, then, lies a convergence between the norms of a company—reflected in the traditional shareholder model and an imperative to increase profits (Friedman, 1970; Jones, Wicks, & Freeman, 2002)—and those of stakeholders. In this sense, corporate motivations can vary from one organization to the next, but can include blends of altruism and self-interest (Rumsey & White, 2009). Corporations pursuing strategic partnerships with charities and other not-for-profit organizations increasingly engage in symmetrical and strategically based relationships, which in turn are characterized by high satisfaction levels (Rumsey & White, 2009).

For publicly traded companies, CSR also needs to be viewed in the context of the rise of shareholder-driven social activism, particularly over the past decade. An expanded role for investor relations, predicated on corporate commitment to action serving society, can help organizations
to meet or exceed societal expectations (Uysal, 2014). The concurrent role of social shareholder activists in influencing corporate societal action underscores the increasingly fluid relationship between activism and CSR and hints at their potential conflation. While CSR has a long and varied history that goes back centuries, formal articulations of the responsibility of business to stakeholders in the public have arisen primarily over the past half-century (Carroll, 1999). This includes management positions such as that of chief sustainability officer, which address the growing demand for CSR approaches within organizations.

External publics are also central to social responsibility. The rise of CSR has occurred during a time when an increased emphasis has been placed on organizational public relations and relationship cultivation. CSR’s rise in the late 1970s and early 1980s coincided with the growing importance of corporate image management and a higher demand from the public for corporate transparency and information (C. E. Clark, 2000). This emphasis on public and stakeholder engagement has shifted the typology of CSR from an earlier framework of economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic categories toward issues concerning the environment, diversity, community, employee relations, and human rights (Hou & Reber, 2011). Similarly, the fostering of cultural connectedness, local relations, and community inclusiveness is shown to help organizations reach their CSR goals in the realms of environment, diversity, equity, and enterprise (Schoenberger-Orgad & McKie, 2005). Public relations and corporate communication practices have laid down the foundation for CSR as a legitimate and growing business practice in local contexts, mirroring an increasing focus on social responsibility that has occurred at national, global, and industry levels and is seen in the development of reporting guidelines, industry codes, and international standards (Bartlett, Tywoniak, & Hatcher, 2007).

These perspectives underscore the relative importance of national and cultural contexts in deploying social responsibility programs. A comparison of CSR reporting in Australia and Slovenia, for example, found financial and management considerations to be more important in the former country, with the latter nation’s CSR actions shaped by employee, community, and cultural concerns (Golob & Bartlett, 2007). However, organizations that operate beyond their local or national jurisdictions should be wary of positioning CSR efforts exclusively within local or national contexts. In several areas, particularly the environment and labor, activists interrogate and challenge organizations across geographical boundaries, creating issues for companies operating in areas where social expectations or standards are different (Golob & Bartlett, 2007). In the United Kingdom, Kovacs’ (2006) study of the organizations Global Compact, Global Alliance, and Business for Social Responsibility found a development of the themes of diversity, community, environment, and employment practices within organizing frameworks of corporate social responsibility.

Communicating CSR

For communications practitioners and their audiences, CSR enjoys a felt presence. Increased knowledge of a company’s CSR activities can impact consumer purchase decisions and lead to more positive attitudes toward a company (Wigley, 2008). This focus on awareness and interactivity has positioned the activities of public relations practitioners as strikingly similar to topics within CSR (C. E. Clark, 2000). For example, the activity of media relations and obtaining accurate media coverage, which can be a key ingredient in CSR approaches, involves expertise from public relations professionals (Zhang & Swanson, 2006). A necessary embrace of CSR by public relations practitioners has been addressed as one route to a greater management role for the public relations function within organizations, in great part because CSR addresses a corporation’s societal impact (Coombs & Holladay, 2009). This assertion builds upon the findings of a 2008 Public Relations Society of America survey pointing to public relations’ significant management role in
the context of CSR (Kim & Reber, 2008). The same survey, however, noted the importance of CEOs, with the support of executive leadership or dominant coalitions a crucial element in the success of practitioners’ individual CSR efforts. Professional communicators within CSR-focused organizations are thus empowered to interact with stakeholders about these issues. In conceptualizing corporate social advocacy, previous research posits that companies and their CEOs who weigh into polarizing sociopolitical issues or communicate for public policy change—whether intentionally or not—are engaging in a form of advocacy, one that in turn can have an impact on consumer perception and financial performance. While consumer agreement with a company’s stance results in greater purchase intention, the opposite is also true—disagreement lessens the same intention (Dodd & Supa, 2014).

A growing desire for greater disclosure of CSR activities on the part of companies means that organizational communicators must communicate their social responsibility actions beyond the context of media relations or brand management. Company stakeholders—including shareholders, customers, and employees—are demanding to know more about the objectives, costs, and outcomes of CSR activities. CSR practitioners and communicators must then be prepared to provide their audiences with appropriate, standardized CSR reporting that allows for relevant comparisons. Wigley (2008) notes that many companies have done a poor job of communicating their CSR activities historically, and that the impact of message source—whether a sponsor company or the media—could play as strong or greater a role in audience embrace of CSR efforts than cognition of the activity itself. Increased knowledge of a firm’s CSR actions leads to more positive cognition of the organization and a higher degree of purchase intention (Wigley, 2008). One effective means to engage various kinds of publics about social responsibility is through corporate websites, given their ability to foster reporting at the global level and their widespread availability to audiences (Capriotti & Moreno, 2007).

The presentation of informational CSR content has become standard for many companies, although some of this content, delivered via interactive media such as websites, has yet to realize its full dialogical potential (Capriotti & Moreno, 2007). A study of CSR messaging via social media suggests a potential disconnect between the two realms, as the substantive nature of CSR activities is often a poor fit for the casual or conversational dimensions of forums such as Facebook, Twitter, and blogs (Berg & Sheehan, 2014). Social media also invites “in-the-moment” discourse, which can be at odds with the long-term aims of CSR strategies. Bridging CSR into social media communication will thus be a key challenge for organizational communicators in the future.

**International Implications**

As industries globalize in order to grow new markets for their goods and services, or to improve their production or supply chain prospects, the potential of CSR in this process continues to grow. While CSR can often be sector or industry specific, it is also a broader domain of the global economy and thus requires attention from national and international governments (Laudal, 2010). Increasingly, the global dimensions of CSR have aligned the interests of nation-states with their corporations and other organizations doing business abroad.

For financial communicators and activists alike, the tensions between nations, companies, and publics can be explained by the public relations theory known as cross-national conflict shifting (Molleda, Connolly-Ahern, & Quinn, 2005). It explains how transnational organizations headquartered in one country but with operations in another are susceptible to public conflicts and disputes that can take on a global orientation. In other words, companies misbehaving abroad are vulnerable to garnering negative publicity both abroad and at home. Social movement actors might take advantage of this vulnerability by garnering media attention outside their own nation. Even within a single country, this perspective can have important implications for communicators,
however. It assumes that activists can generate protest where they live but also deploy activism in the jurisdictions of their adversaries (conversely, companies are susceptible to such activism both where they are headquartered and where they operate).

A unique example comes from Canada, which lays claim to over 1,500 mining companies, themselves comprising 50% of the world’s publicly traded mining companies. Prospecting for and producing a multitude of base and precious metals, including gold, silver, copper, diamonds, and uranium, these companies operate across the Americas as well as Africa and Asia. In Latin America alone, Canadian firms comprise over 60% of all mining investment. Even while government agencies and mining companies have promoted the benefits of their activities—including economic development and investment in local infrastructure—a concern of these same operations has also arisen, focused on environmental and health impacts as well as the displacement of local residents where mining operations are conducted (Hill, 2013). Transnational discourses emanating from such concerns require companies both to ensure the viability of their social responsibility efforts and to be mindful of their corporate reputations at home and abroad.

At the same time, debates over how Canadian mining companies might be harming environmental or social conditions abroad are a concern for the Canadian government. The disreputable actions of companies abroad can be particularly harmful for a nation whose brand is considered one of the globe’s top five (according to the 2014/15 FutureBrand Index). To this end, in 2014 the country launched “Canada’s Enhanced Corporate Social Responsibility Strategy to Strengthen Canada’s Extractive Sector Abroad.” At the heart of the document is an objective of aligning mining company practices of Canadian companies abroad with CSR guidelines issued by the Canadian government. It also establishes a national CSR officer to mediate disputes between local communities and Canadian firms, and calls for the promotion of CSR by Canada’s network of diplomatic missions abroad. National and international media have cast suspicions on the program. Canada’s weekly news magazine referred to it as a “move toward protecting Canada’s ‘brand’ in foreign mining operations” (Cheadle, 2014). An international affairs publication dubbed it a case of “reputation management: the government promises to keep promoting miners’ and energy firms’ interests abroad if they behave themselves” (“Reputation Management,” 2014).

Despite such criticism, government intervention in CSR at the international level highlights the conflation of a nation’s business practices abroad and its reputation both globally and domestically. It is also concurrent with the view that countries should identify the CSR potential and strategies of particular business sectors, such as mining, especially if this means reducing the potential for the violation of CSR standards abroad (Laudal, 2010).

Critiques of CSR

CSR is not without its critics. In the environmental realm, some observers have challenged the idea that the growth of industrial output—even when accompanied by greener standards—can mitigate contemporary and future ecological problems. Foster (2000) refers to this as ecological modernism, which describes how technological advances attempt to grow the economy in the name of environmental sustainability. A similar argument maintains that CSR preempts democratic pressures for environmental regulation and therefore fosters further ecological degradation (Enoch, 2007). From a marketing perspective, concerns about so-called greenwashing—where messages or advertisements overplay the environmental benefits of consumer goods or services—emphasize a potential breach of consumer trust (Sheehan & Atkinson, 2012). This confluence of retail activity and societal/environmental impact is also seen in the concept of “pinkwashing,” which describes companies or charities claiming to care about women’s health issues, such as breast cancer, even when the products they create or sell might be linked to the health problem itself (McVeigh, 2012). For example, cobranded campaigns involving the charitable foundation
Susan G. Komen for the Cure and retail food brands including KFC and Yoplait were criticized for so-called pink promotion being taken too far, on the grounds that the food products were associated with risk factors linked with breast cancer (McVeigh, 2012). KFC’s pink buckets, designed to mark the fast food vendor’s charitable engagement with Komen, became one of several flashpoints for the foundation, underscoring the delicate balance between companies and charities in launching coventures such as the “Buckets for the Cure” campaign.

Implications for Communication and Reputation Management

In the long run, CSR can help companies with corporate image-building and stakeholder relationships. This comes on top of companies building favorable stakeholder attitudes and support behaviors such as purchase intention or investment in the short term (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010). By engaging in CSR activities, companies can not only generate favorable stakeholder attitudes and better support behaviors (e.g., purchase, seeking employment with the company, investing in the company) but also, over the long run, build corporate image, strengthen stakeholder–company relationships, and enhance stakeholders’ advocacy behaviors. The flipside of this, of course, is that low awareness or negative impressions of CSR activities on the part of stakeholders can present a serious impediment for companies trying to gain business benefits from CSR. In other words, companies need to foster effective communication with stakeholders about their CSR efforts (Du et al., 2010).

Case Studies

Global Responsibility Leadership Initiative

When a gathering of 35 individuals representing global companies and management schools convened in Brussels in 2004, the aim was not to further traditional aims of business such as growth or profitability. Rather, the group was focused on global responsibility. The one-year project culminated in the establishment of the Globally Responsible Leadership Initiative (GRLI). With the founding support of the United Nations Global Compact, the GRLI has emerged as a formal partnership of 50 organizations—companies, university business schools, and CSR organizations—along with a number of organizations involved informally in communities of responsible action. These include globally oriented corporations such as Anglo American, Daimler AG, GSK, Petrobras, and Teck. The group is also affiliated with business-school accreditation bodies such as the European Foundation for Management Development, which encourage schools to work alongside companies in developing new dialogues and solutions connected to social and environmental issues. The inspiration for the establishment of the GRLI came from the United Nations Global Compact of 1999, which provided new perspectives on the role of business in society and on the impact of business education (Thissen-Smits, 2013). The same UN Compact, with the support of the European Foundation for Management Development, would also establish Principles for Responsible Management Education, which similarly focuses on education, research, and thought leadership based on stakeholder responsibility.

The GRLI’s mission includes several components: to lead discourse on globally responsible leadership beyond current mainstream understandings; to foster communities engaged in hands-on projects and the production of visible and effective CSR activities; and to bring together organizations and individuals focused on implementing sustainable business practices and making appropriate changes at a systemic level. At the heart of the GRLI is a reconsideration of the value created by business and business schools. Management education has come under considerable criticism for an overt focus on customers and the bottom line, often at the expense of a
commitment to the common good (Dyllick, 2015). There is a need to counterbalance the self-interested behavior that has come to define many companies and businesses with the integration of societal and environmental responsibility into existing economic models (Thissen-Smits, 2013). This view juxtaposes responsible business leadership with traditional business leadership, in the latter of which profit maximization is prioritized alongside the “CEO-as-hero” model, giving way to the rise of CEO celebrities such as Jack Welch and Rupert Murdoch (Mirvis, Googins, DeJongh, Quinn, & Van Velsor, 2010, p. 17).

More contemporarily, leaders are widening this scope to incur responsibilities to more stakeholders. Stakeholder relationships are grounded in furthering both economic and societal progress. A holistic conception of responsible leadership, then, allows for a more inclusive form of capital encompassing social and environmental outcomes (Mirvis et al., 2010). This is the philosophy that drives the GRLI’s global network of companies and learning institutions, which are focused on developing a new generation of globally responsible leaders. Through GRLI participation, organizations are able to explore and implement management development initiatives and research activities. For academic institutions such as business schools, this also translates into new research activities and curriculum changes. From the perspective of CSR, it provides a useful, internationalized vehicle with which organizations can learn from others in addressing the key challenges and future demands of responsible business leadership.

**Patagonia and the Blurring of CSR and Activism**

Ventura, California-based Patagonia, a sporting equipment and apparel company especially popular in rock climbing, fly fishing, and skiing communities, has garnered a strong track record for social accountability and responsibility since its inception in 1973. For example, it established the Tools for Grassroots Activists Conference in 1994 to help environmental groups supported by the company to acquire the same organizing and communication skills as seasoned activists. At the same time, the firm has become more deliberatively outspoken about environmental issues and corporate responsibility over time (Horn, 2014). Patagonia has sought to discourage the kind of unbridled consumerism that occurs annually on so-called Black Friday—the Friday following US Thanksgiving holiday. It regularly funds advertisements imploaring consumers “don’t buy our products” (Sacks, 2015). This is in great part an outcome of the role of founder and owner Yvon Chouinard, a visible and passionate CEO who has injected his company’s CSR with an activist spirit. This has helped to foster a communication culture at Patagonia of “compelling stories” aiming “to inspire people to not only buy its products, but also buy into its philosophy and take action” (Beer, 2015).

The documentary film *DamNation*—executive produced by Chouinard and funded and distributed by Patagonia—is the latest example of Patagonia’s unique conflation of CSR and grassroots activism. The production focuses on the environmental harms of dammed rivers and other waterways and calls for their removal. Launched in 2014 at the South by Southwest Festival, screenings of *DamNation* across North America were notable for the involvement of producer Patagonia along with local grassroots organizations. A regional film premiere in Eugene, Oregon, for example, included both Save Our Wild Salmon and the Western Environmental Law Center as organizers, as well as sponsorship from a sustainable seafood small business. Patagonia also screened the documentary at its own retail stores. (The documentary has now found a more permanent home on Patagonia’s website as well as on digital video-streaming services such as Netflix.) The documentary has made a difference in its engagement of would-be activists and involved policy-makers. University students at Whitman College in Washington State, for example, established a student advocacy organization called Rethink Dams in a bid to remove dams along the Snake River. Such immediate results have raised the question of whether Patagonia’s actions are merely fulfilling CSR or whether the broader societal impacts of its documentary—and the challenges it presents to the status quo—are more akin to environmental activism.
Patagonia’s role as a financier, producer, and distributor certainly integrated many characteristics that define activism. The company used its economic resources, its communication expertise, its network of retail stores, and its base of loyal customers to broadcast a larger message about the ecological consequences of dam building in the United States. Notable is that Patagonia did not just focus on one localized environmental situation. Its stance against dams more broadly made the documentary production more akin to a movement, certainly positioning the company in the role of advocate. Dodd and Supa’s (2014) earlier noted observation—that corporate social advocacy can be contentious in light of its potential for appeasing or alienating stakeholder groups and the public—holds true here. Patagonia’s CEO Rose Marcanio admitted that such alienation was a risk the company was willing to take, regardless of the financial fallout: “Any fight worth fighting is the sort of attitude that we take” (Sacks, 2015). Patagonia indeed went so far as to show certain acts of civil disobedience, including property trespassing at government dam sites and even vandalism. While this may be a polarizing approach, Patagonia’s business model and its environmental advocacy mission both hinge upon an ecological philosophy mindful of human impact and wilderness conservation. The company’s advocacy may or may not bolster its bottom line, but it certainly positions Patagonia as a leader in this CSR sphere and an advocate for the environments where its stakeholders live and play.

Shareholder Activists and the Fossil Fuel Divestment Movement

In recent years, divestment has emerged as a key external force in integrating institutional and individual investment considerations into the CSR arena. Notably, divestment protesters—who argue against the holding of equities from certain industries on ethical, social, or environmental grounds—have been a felt presence at university campuses across the United States. While such campaigns have existed for many years on college campuses, their impacts have become more pronounced. Student activists have deployed media campaigns, marches, demonstrations, sit-ins, and other attention-getting activities to amplify the divestment message. Their end-goal is to force university endowments, pension funds, and other investment vehicles not to own contentious equities. This includes the fossil fuels divestment movement, which (like previous divestment campaigns) started in the United States and focused on US-based investors (Ansar, Caldecott, & Tilbury, 2013).

Contemporary divestment movements aimed at institutional investors are rooted in similar protests against companies doing business in South Africa during the 1960s and 1970s (Voorhes, 1999). Over 150 highly endowed institutions of higher learning were targeted by the movement, which peaked in the mid-1980s in response to South Africa’s imposition of a state of emergency. With added pressure from US state and regional governments and politicians, institutions began to develop divestment policies for their holdings, including 40 of the largest campus endowments in the country (Voorhes, 1999).

Three waves exist in the evolution of divestment campaigns (Ansar et al., 2013). A first wave starts with a group of investors deliberately divesting from a targeted industry or issue (such as tobacco, or apartheid in South Africa). This first wave, while not financially large in scope, does offer a means to create public awareness about the topic. A second wave, which might take years to materialize after years of campaigning, typically sees divestment campaigns arrive at prominent universities and public institutions. Lastly, a third wave sees the divestment movement go mainstream. Campaigns become more internationalized, and specialized investment products, such as social responsibility investment or sustainability funds, are established to meet the newfound demand on the part of institutional and individual investors for investments that are free of certain sectors campaigns (Ansar et al., 2013).

Climate change concerns among activists and the public have intensified a second (and potentially third) wave of divestment campaigning against fossil fuel companies—those engaged in hydrocarbon production, most notably oil and gas firms but also coal mining and other energy
This fossil fuel divestment movement has been referred to as “young, fast, and fast-evolving” (Bullard, 2014, p. 2) and as “one of the fastest moving debates ... seen in my 30 years in markets” by a London-based equities analyst (P. Clark, 2014). The movement has been buoyed in part by organizations such as Fossil Free, a project by climate change author and activist Bill McKibben and his organization 350.org. The relative success of Fossil Free has given way to like-minded organizations requiring institutions to divest themselves of hydrocarbon equities (Bullard, 2014). Divestment sums have moved from thousands to millions, with media headlines following this trajectory. A high-profile case comes from Stanford University, which in 2014 agreed to divest coal stocks from its $22 billion endowment. Pressure from the group Fossil Free Stanford was not insignificant. The student organization issued reports, newspaper op-eds, and press releases along with social media messaging. The organization garnered media coverage from local and national media outlets, including The Guardian and USA Today. It also involved Stanford alumni in a collective effort to withhold donations from the university. Today, the group continues to be focused on fossil fuel divestment, specifically those investments from the oil and gas space. A different example comes from the University of British Columbia in Vancouver, Canada. There, a student and faculty proposal called for the university to stop future investments in fossil fuel companies and to divest from existing holdings within a five-year timeframe. The university argued that the proposal “would not be consistent with the board’s fiduciary obligation to endowment donors” (Sherlock, 2016). Instead, the university’s board of governors approved the launch of a “Sustainable Future Fund” to coexist with its existing endowment.

Outside the campus environment, another pushback against the divestment movement came from Bill McNabb, the CEO of Vanguard, one of the world’s largest asset management firms. In 2016, he argued that, if divestment proponents were successful in driving down oil share prices, inevitably firms would privatize, creating a new generation of private oil barons (Foley, 2016). These are debates that increasingly arise at annual shareholder meetings of public companies. It is not enough for outside activists to pressure institutional investors. Shareholder groups with specific green or social interests regularly propose and vote on CSR topics on the grounds of responsible shareholder ownership and thus bring environmental and social issues into the shareholders’ domain (O’Rourke, 2003).

Conclusion

CSR remains one of the most important business developments of the past half-century. It has emerged as a driving philosophy of social and environmental change that emphasizes the needs and interests not only of shareholders and customers but also of employees, of community members, and of much broader citizenries. CSR has become increasingly important because of outside pressures from various facets of society. Concern over climate change and pollution, for example, has prompted customers of many companies to advocate for more environmentally sound products, operations, and even supply chains. Companies and governments have been implicated in ecological crises in the past, from toxic dumping and the polluting of waterways to unsafe product sourcing and wasteful consumer packaging. It stands to reason, then, that companies should respond to pressures from activists, government agencies, and indeed other companies to take a lead in fostering sound environmental practices. This philosophy was once reserved for companies whose business dealt directly with the environment—resource extraction firms, for example, or retailers of gear and clothing designed for outdoor recreation. Today, however, the environmental focus woven into CSR is emphasized by organizations from disparate industries: technology, financial, transportation, resource, and media sectors all increasingly pay attention to their green commitments and standards.

Others have called on companies to provide more equality and transparency in their hiring practices, while improving working conditions and community impacts. The changing nature of
community engagement—with the private sector increasingly expected to provide what was once delivered by government—has provided firms with an opportunity to step up and support civic life, from arts and culture to urban amenities such as parks and playgrounds. In this sense, CSR has not only emerged as a function of the company but also become the means through which a company interfaces with larger society.

Increasingly, corporate communicators must be responsive not only to social responsibility topics that speak to community engagement or social benefit but also to those with a direct bearing on the bottom line. Forums such as the GRLI and company actions such as Patagonia’s documentary *Dam Nation* highlight the opportunities in navigating this complex terrain. The importance of responding to stakeholders is further articulated in the rise of fossil-fuel-targeting divestment movements at university campuses across North America. Such campaigns are a testament to the commitment of the environmental movement but also to the staying power of divestment strategies as a means to pressure institutions.

The ability of firms to carry out their business practices in new jurisdictions or countries may indeed hinge upon a promise to carry out CSR practices. Canada’s CSR strategy for its multitude of global mining companies doing business abroad is notable for providing uniform national guidance on CSR standards in different locations. For individual companies, this provides a framework and incentivization for optimal corporate behavior, as subscribing firms garner diplomatic support for their CSR efforts abroad. For countries such as Canada, which depend heavily on both global trade and the development of natural resources, the embrace of CSR speaks to the importance of supporting responsible business practices abroad that reflect labor, social, and environmental standards at home. It also speaks to the continued prominence of global reputation management, with firms doing business abroad ultimately serving as ambassadors for their home countries.

References


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