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Abstract

Bringing the lofty concepts of corporate citizenship, or corporate social responsibility, into the sphere of operations is a challenge for organizations. Many communications practitioners do not have the time or scope of practice to reflect on the role of the corporate citizen, with the effect that activity relies too heavily on philanthropy or publicity campaigns, despite the existence of broader implications. How does one translate the responsibilities of corporations to the societies in which they work, into day-to-day activity that produces measurable results? This research begins that task by outlining a prospective management tool and proposing an underlying conceptual framework to give it shape and depth. The Environmental Scan in Corporate Citizenship is a starting point to the planning process. It provides a baseline for those creating a business or communications plan, allowing for better planning at the beginning of the process and better evaluation at the end.

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Introduction

If it is true that corporate citizenship should be a strong part of an organization's culture, how is that seen in day-to-day operations? How can an organization make conscious choices that fulfill civic responsibilities and still stay competitive?

Apparently, this is not an easy question to answer. In reviewing the literature on corporate citizenship, several authors have commented on the lack of a generally accepted definition, a clear starting point for such a task. This could also reflect the corresponding lack of a generally accepted frame of thought. Wood (1991) comments "the basic idea of corporate social responsibility [CSR] is that business and society are interwoven rather than distinct entities: therefore, society has certain expectations for appropriate business behaviour and outcomes" (695). This comment is very general, but typical of the literature. Even as late as 2008, Williams and Aguilera say "CSR research has been hampered by the lack of a consistent definition of the construct of CSR, as well as its operationalization and measurement" (452).

This is unfortunate for the average practitioner who, not having time to read and reflect on the literature, nevertheless requires just such a definition, as well as a theoretical framework, on which they can hang their operations, as well as measure and validate citizenship choices. This research begins to address this issue. It does not propose the comprehensive definition that Williams and Aguilera (2008) raise. It simply proposes an operational tool that follows a basic theoretical framework that practitioners can use to anchor their work. The framework is deliberately set within accepted norms in society, a kind of third party validation for choices made using the proposed management tool: The Environmental Scan in Corporate Citizenship (TESICC).

Part of the job of the professional communicator tasked with bringing corporate citizenship into operations, is to take what may seem to be nebulous concepts, distill them into a coherent strategy, and build tactical activity into the culture and the operations of the organization. It is no longer good enough to brag about recycling the office paper or picking something to do in the community that is the boss' personal passion. Practitioners need to understand why the corporate citizenship activities were chosen – such as a governance practice, donations policy or the latest green strategy – and how they contribute to the success of the organization, financial and otherwise, as well as to the society in which they live and work.

To make these kinds of decisions about citizenship activity a planning process, backed by a theoretical framework, is an invaluable resource. Planning allows the practitioner to articulate and refine a vision, to consider strategies and to assign tactics. It allows practitioners to consider departmental or organizational activity as a whole, instead of in incremental chunks that may not leverage resources appropriately, and it inevitably raises unforeseen questions that demand answers before the plan is complete.

The Environmental Scan in Corporate Citizenship sets a starting point for this planning process, providing a common set of assumptions and a common language upon which a communications or business plan can rest. Knowing where a plan starts is as important to the process as setting the goals and objectives.

Most business students will remember learning in class about a traditional environmental scan called PEST (Political, Economic, Social, Technological), or one of its many variants. The scan proposed in this research is specifically oriented toward an understanding of corporate citizenship or corporate social responsibility, but it also moves further than a traditional scan. Having identified specific citizenship choices, the practitioner can also consider potential outcomes as well as a basket of additional information that may have relevance to their situation and strategic thought later in the planning process.

A final word about definitions should alert the reader to their use in this research. The terms corporate citizenship and corporate social responsibility are interchangeable, primarily because that is how they are used in mainstream thought. This is noted by Neron and Norman (2008) “[...] many, if not most, academic writers now use the term ‘corporate citizenship’ in a way that is much broader, and is in fact synonymous with ‘corporate social responsibility’ (CSR)” (3). It is also noted that the two terms have been defined as separate concepts by other authors (Hopkins, 2004). “Society”, a much-used term in this research, and a word with weighty connotation elsewhere, is defined simply by the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* as “a social mode of life, the customs and organization of a civilized nation” (Fowler, 1976: 1087). Finally, the concepts outlined in this article, can apply to any cooperative venture between two or more people. However, for purposes of clarity, the terms corporation and organization are interchangeable and refer to any organization in Canada that falls under the Canada Business Corporations Act or similar provincial statutes.

The Research Problem and Questions

Practitioners will say that corporate citizenship must integrate into every part of the company, and should be an intrinsic part of the culture. This may be true. What does it mean? Reading about corporate citizenship initiatives in the popular press, one sometimes senses activity that seems pulled from thin air, subject only to the whims of popular culture.

Corporate citizenship is not a program, separate from other activities such as internal communications, talent recruitment or board governance. It is a lens through which one sees the whole organization and, a surprise to some – it can be profitable. Despite this, practitioners have few tools to help them bring this important concept firmly into the sphere of operations, making it part of the culture and measuring the results.

This research attempts to tackle this problem through the business or communications planning process. TESICC proposes a tool for those practitioners bringing corporate citizenship’s lofty concepts into practice by asking the practitioner to identify pressure points between the organization and society (triggers and goals), to assign possible outcomes and then, optionally, supplement with other key information as the situation demands. This gives the practitioner a baseline of information unique to their organization that they can work with during the planning process when designing future strategies and tactics.

One arrives at a management tool for corporate citizenship via a conceptual framework that underpins the construct. It gives the tool intellectual depth and can help answer unforeseen questions as the practitioner starts to work with TESICC. The seven questions below in Figure 1 form both the conceptual framework and the management tool developed to help practitioners bring corporate citizenship into the sphere of operations.

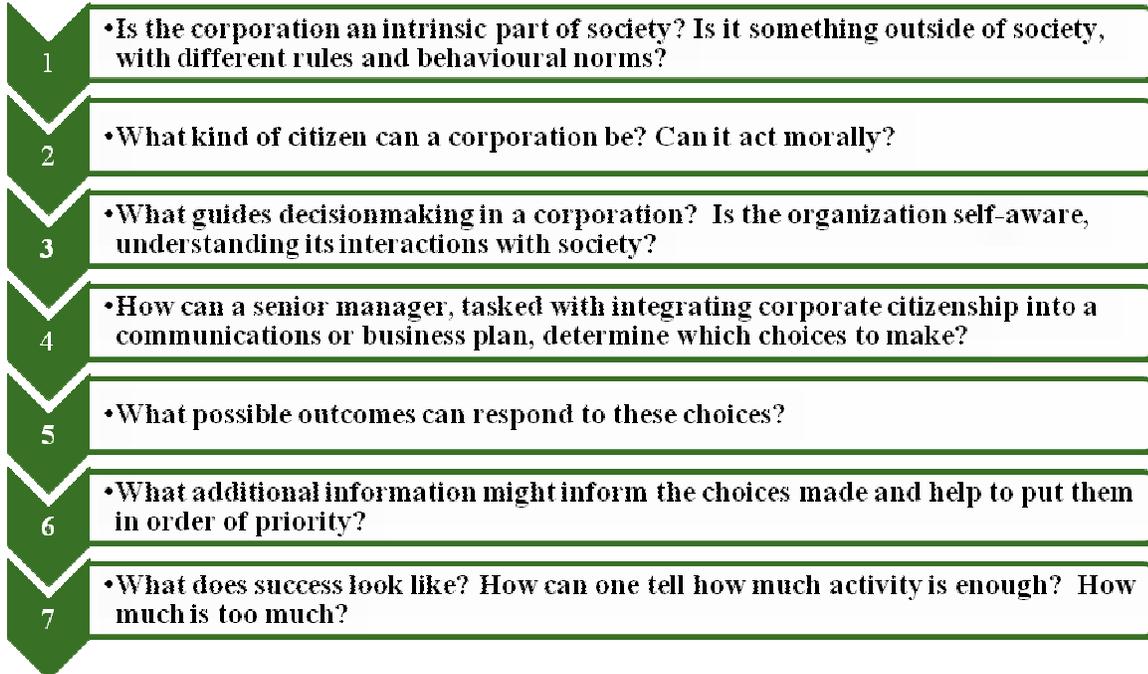


Fig. 1. Questions to Bring Corporate Citizenship into Operations

Underpinnings to This Research

Several areas of academic thought formed the bed upon which the design for an environmental scan in corporate citizenship rests. The starting point revolves around the idea of the corporation as a natural person, as seen in Canadian law and some other legal systems around the world. This creates a fictional person who is an intrinsic part of society, and not some foreign entity that is somehow different. Further investigation can flesh out this “natural person” using legal and academic writing in corporate law, organizational design, citizenship, stakeholder theory and, of course, corporate citizenship.

This becomes the underpinning to TESICC. This conceptual framework provides potential solutions to unforeseen questions arising during execution, answered within the logic of the construct, potentially enhancing the power and utility of the tool itself.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Citizenship

As noted earlier, Williams and Aguilera (2008) argue “the field of CSR research generally has been hampered by the lack of a consistent definition of the construct of CSR, as well as its operationalization and measurement” (452). They finish that sentence by referencing other scholars who similarly lament “as recently pointed out by McWilliams, Siegal and Wright (2006) and Rodriguez, Siegal, Hillman and Eden (2006)” (Williams & Aguilera, 2008: 452).

It is the consistency of definition that is the problem here, not the number of definitions from which to choose. Michael Hopkins (2004) of the University of Middlesex proposed a glossary of terms commonly used as well as definitions for each (29). Quoting the definition of corporate citizenship from Saul Zadek et al (2001):

Corporate citizenship implies a strategy that moves from a focus on short-term transactions to longer term, values-based relationships with these stakeholders. Loyalty will be based on a company's ability to build a series of shared values and mission with key stakeholders (qtd. in Hopkins, 2004: 29).

Zadek's (2001) definition recommends itself to this research with its emphasis on long-term transactions and values-based relationships with a variety of stakeholders. It implies a consciousness in the conduct of corporate citizenship, which is not always the case in every organization.

This research assumes that citizenship practice of some kind is already intrinsic in every corporate culture through the values and interactions it uses with stakeholders. The purpose of this paper is to identify the passive, latent, conscious and unconscious interactions that an organization has with society and examine them so that strategic, more self-aware choices are made for the future. This research provides a vehicle for discovering that part of the corporate interaction, as seen through the lens of citizenship.

Despite the value of prior work, there remains an absence of general academic consensus, so one turns, unwillingly, to the bane of all professors to undergraduate teachers, Wikipedia, in search of something approaching a general definition. The definition it provides has been edited and re-edited and, ironically, may provide the closest thing to a consensus. References to many of the authors quoted here are cited, and it is further edited for the purposes of this paper.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR), also known as corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, responsible business, sustainable responsible business (SRB), or corporate social performance, is a form of corporate self-regulation integrated into a business model. Ideally, CSR policy would function as a built-in, self-regulating mechanism whereby business would monitor and ensure its adherence to law, ethical standards, and international norms. Essentially, CSR is the deliberate inclusion of public interest into corporate decision-making, and the honoring of a triple bottom line: People, Planet, and Profit (Wikipedia, para.1).

The utility of this definition lies in its reference to the business model, the implication that corporate citizenship integrates into all aspects of the business and is a lens through which an organization sees the world. The concept of a built-in, self-regulating mechanism establishes links to the regulating power of stakeholder groups, something discussed later in this research. Further, its "deliberate inclusion of public interest into corporate decision making" (Wikipedia, para. 1) links to Zadek's (2001) definition of corporate citizenship's "need to build a series of shared values and mission with key stakeholders" (qtd. in Hopkins, 2008: 29).

Finally, the nod to the "honoring of a triple bottom-line" (Wikipedia, para. 1) is simply a thumbnail sketch of the three success factors that make an organization profitable. The only caveat is that people and planet influence profit, but without the financial success that comes with profit, an organization likely does not exist.

The Corporation as a Natural Person

According to the Canada Business Corporations Act, "a corporation has the capacity and, subject to this Act, the rights, powers and privileges of a natural person" (R.S., 1985, c. C-44, part 3, s. 15.1).

Simply proposing an environmental scan in corporate citizenship is not sufficient. A management tool without a framework is akin to a doctor treating a symptom, without understanding the underlying cause of the patient's condition. Thinking of the corporation as a metaphorical person is the starting point to the framework chosen for TESICC. Nesting it within this centuries-old legal concept answers many of the questions regarding latitude and applicability and begins to frame the

corporation as an entity that exists securely within the society in which we live, as well as providing us with precedents relating to its rights and obligations.

A landmark case in Canada is one such example. *Canadian Dredge and Dock Co. v. The Queen* charts a middle ground in a line of legal thought regarding corporate liability.

What is interesting, so far as this research is concerned, is the applicability of the fictional, corporate “natural” person to concepts of corporate citizenship, especially where it concerns “the directing mind” of the corporation. Canadian Supreme Court Justice Willard Estey, who wrote the decision, said “the identity of the directing mind and the identity of the company coincide...Therefore...if the court finds the officer or managerial level employee to be a vital organ of the company and virtually its directing mind...the company can be held criminally liable” (*Canadian Dredge*, 1985: 3). He said that the directing mind of a corporation must act “within the scope of his authority, that is, his actions must be performed within the sector of the corporate operation assigned to him” (*Canadian Dredge*, 1985: 3).

Justice Estey’s opinion literally fleshes out the concept of the corporation as a natural person. He refers to organs and the directing mind of a corporation as the ego. From the vantage point of corporate citizenship, it is one way that the law gives substance and relevance, albeit metaphorical, to the corporate person. Practitioners can easily extrapolate from that concept, seeing the corporation as a group of individuals combining to form one metaphorical person pursuing a particular goal or set of goals. Under those circumstances, the behaviour mechanisms and the organization’s relationship to society are more familiar. The practitioner is better able to develop a series of parameters relating to corporate behaviour, based on their own knowledge of human behaviour.

Katsuhito Iwai (1999) of the University of Tokyo writes a compelling article about the “corporate personality controversy” (585), as he calls it and provides an interesting interpretation of the corporation/person concept: “For many centuries, philosophers, political scientists, sociologists, economists and above all jurists and judges have debated heatedly as to what constitutes the ‘essence’ of this soulless and bodiless person” (583).

This historical perspective provides context and understanding for much of the academic writing regarding corporations-as-persons that succeeds it. Iwai (1999) continues:

The corporate realists believe that the corporation is a full-fledged organizational entity whose legal personality is no more than an external expression of its real personality in the society. The corporate nominalists, in opposition, assert that the corporation is a contractual association of individual shareholders whose legal personality is no more than an abbreviated way of writing their names together for legal transactions (584).

Iwai (1999) asserts that the debate was essentially declared dead in the 1920s with the rise of professional managers. Their careers depended on the existence of a corporation as an entity, which meant that corporate realism won the day. Despite this, the debate did not die down among academics. Rather, he says, “that ‘person’ signifies what the law makes it signify” (Iwai, 1999: 585). This nod to the power of precedent (at least in a common law setting) allows Iwai (1999) to posit a dual role for the corporation, which he details quite carefully: “The corporation plays a dual role – of “person” and “thing” – in the legal system, and it is this person/thing duality that is, I believe, responsible for the endlessness of the corporate personality controversy” (585).

Iwai’s (1999) view that both the nominal and realistic theories are correct deserves some greater explanation. This brief sketch comes in two parts. The first part looks at the distinction in business between people and things: “Persons are subjects of property rights and things are objects of property right. Persons own things and things are owned by persons” (Iwai, 1999: 587). By way of

contrast, if persons own persons then that is slavery – so persons can only own things and things cannot own persons (presumably because of the lack of sentience inherent in a thing).

The second part relates to the rise of commerce and the contractual arrangements that make commerce flow. The conduct of business is a team sport – entrepreneur, employees, financiers, etc. – and in elemental terms, requires a certain number of partners, each providing some needed part of the equation and taking varying degrees of risk in the venture – finance, labour, leadership etc. This is the basis for stakeholder theory, discussed later. However, Iwai (1999) refers to one key stakeholder, the shareholder: “As the size of the partnership gets larger and larger and the entering and leaving expected to be much more frequent, it would soon become impossible to prepare for all contingencies in advance [...]” (589). Future execution of both revised contracts and the business would be costly and uncertain: “Outside parties would be discouraged from entering into contractual relations with the partnership firm” (Iwai, 1999: 598). Essentially, the whole affair would simply become too unwieldy after a certain point of growth.

Therefore, as far back as Roman times, the corporation as person is the legal solution to this problem. By functioning in law as a *persona*, it is possible to have an ever-changing round of component parts that do not factor profoundly on the “*persona*’s” ability to make contracts or conduct business.

Thus, a modern corporation encompasses the following duality: a shareholder can own a piece of the corporation (the thing) but the corporation (the person) owns the corporate assets. They are opposed, but also complementary – and, according to Iwai (1999), that tension frames the debate over the latitude given to this fictional corporate person.

The Corporate Citizen

Originally, the legal system may simply have been trying to deal with the chaos generated by a round robin of shareholders, represented at any given time within a commercial venture. The solution was to create a fictional person who could represent the interests of a revolving door of shareholders, knowing that would also satisfy other stakeholders like employees and suppliers. It is not, then, a large leap to borrow from this versatile concept and attribute to that corporate person some form of citizenship responsibility, especially since the corporation draws upon a societal infrastructure that, arguably, supports an organization’s success.

Generally, academic work on the rights and obligations of citizenship focus on a citizen’s relationship to the political system and a society’s chosen mode of governance. Jeremy Moon, Andrew Crane and Dirk Matten (2005), critical theorists in the study of corporate citizenship, investigate whether, theoretically, corporations can be citizens. They move away from concepts grounded in voluntarism, as well as rights and duties in the community and propose a framework based on contemporary political theory. The crucial issue as they see it, is to expand on “a range of forms and norms of participation that can inform notions of citizenship [...]”. This makes it possible to flesh out a greater range of potential citizenship roles and values for corporations” (Moon, Crane & Matten, 2005: 431). Borrowing from Geoffrey Stokes (2002), they propose four concepts of citizenship each with varying levels of participation by citizens in the political process. The idea was to reflect the richness of the current debate about citizenship for corporations. According to Moon, Crane and Matten (2005), “[...] our view is that citizenship thinking can most certainly be utilized to develop important new theoretical insights into corporate participation in society” (432).

Despite this, Pierre Yves Neron and Wayne Norman (2008) succinctly expressed the concerns of other authors with respect to the idea of a corporation as a citizen:

One cannot help but notice that the corporate citizen satisfies relatively few of the criteria and connotations of a robust concept of citizenship. It is not a full and equal member of a political community; it does not necessarily share an identity with a nation state; we do not expect it to show special solidarity with such a national community as such; and we are wary, to say the least, of its getting involved in politics – always the hallmark of virtuous citizenship. On the other hand, as we have seen, corporations are real members of some kind of our communities, with the power to contribute to or to diminish the common good and the right to influence political processes (16).

With this in mind, the term "active citizenship" seems particularly apt when looking at the rights and obligations of citizenship. "Active citizenship" is the philosophy that citizens should work towards the betterment of their community through economic participation, public service, volunteer work and other such efforts to improve life for all citizens.

"Active citizenship is the (learning of) participation in and taking responsibility for the public sphere" (Stichting Actief Burgerschap, 2010, para. 4). This is a broader definition than a purely political one, acknowledging the diversity and variability of civic life, and perhaps more applicable to the role of the corporation.

Neron and Norman's (2008) look at the kinds of citizenship obligations expected of corporations reveal some key insights. They differentiate between the terms corporate citizenship and corporate social responsibility, calling one a minimalist interpretation and the other expansionist:

At one end of the continuum, a firm is considered virtuous if it performs a small number of specific virtuous acts (especially of a charitable nature): and at the other end, judgments of good corporate citizenship take into account virtually every ethically positive act or omission a corporation can make. (Neron & Norman, 2008: 3)

They argue that the idea of citizenship for corporations is a powerful one but that it should not be seen as a panacea of virtues that are difficult, if not impossible, to attain:

On the one hand, good citizenship will be thought to require more virtue and activity than obeying the law and offering a bit of painless charity; but on the other, it is clearly misleading to treat all virtues and all ways of improving the common good – or just being good – as being part of citizenship obligations (Neron & Norman, 2008: 17).

They further suggest that "corporate citizenship should not be an all encompassing moral category for evaluating corporate behavior, but should, instead, concentrate on certain realms of corporate activities" (Neron & Norman, 2008: 12).

The idea that a corporation cannot function as a panacea catering to the well-being of society is an important one for any planning process in corporate citizenship. In any process, viable boundaries must be set and success defined. The difficulty for corporations is in knowing how much is too much, and how much is too little. This is where a consciously articulated conceptual framework helps to validate citizenship choices made during the planning process.

The Moral Citizen

Having come this far in placing the organization within the purview of personhood and having reviewed the rights and obligations relating to citizenship, questions of morality arise, just as they do for individual citizens. Actions, whether by individuals or organizations, are not inherently moral or in the best interests of the society. Given the limitations of personhood for a corporation, mentioned earlier, the question of morality in action and in thought is a significant one. Peter French

(1979) wrote a seminal article on the corporation as a moral person. He sees morality in terms of responsibilities – the responsibility being the important part and not the content of the morality. He feels that “for someone to legitimately hold someone else responsible for some event there must exist or have existed a responsibility relationship between them such that, in regard to the event in question, the latter was answerable to the former”. (French, 1979: 211).

In order to see a corporation or other organization as moral, or immoral, it has to act with intention, with respect to its responsibilities. French (1979) argues that, “a Corporation’s Internal Decision Structure is the requisite redescription device that licenses the predication of corporate intentionality” (211). Responsibility relationships are created through contracts, appointments or other types of agreements used regularly by organizations. Arguably then, an organization has a responsibility relationship with the society in which it lives and works. It is responsible to act morally if it is to fulfill that responsibility. If it does not act morally, then it is not fulfilling the original agreement, and censure will occur.

This concept of a moral corporate “person” intentionally undertaking and fulfilling agreed-upon responsibilities is particularly important in knitting together ideas of a corporation’s responsibilities toward society. French’s (1979) idea does not focus on the content of the moral act, i.e. what the person did or did not do. He does not judge. Simply, if a person takes responsibility, they must also care about the outcome. They have “skin in the game” and so they will regulate their actions in the way they feel will provide the best outcome, not just for others, but for themselves as well. The beauty of French’s (1979) idea is that it leaves a person, as well as a corporate person, to judge a situation independently. He does not prescribe outcomes, only processes.

If an organization working within the laws of the jurisdiction in which it is situated is an active citizen, taking its share of responsibility for the public sphere, then according to French (1979), its actions must be moral because that is the only way in which those responsibilities may be fulfilled.

The next question, dealt with later in this research, is how those responsibilities are determined and what success at fulfilling those responsibilities looks like. While a corporation clearly has more responsibility to society than to make a profit at all costs, as Neron and Norman (2008) point out, “there is no reason to think that to be a good corporate citizen, a firm must be good or virtuous in every way” (18).

Citizenship and the Business Model

If corporate citizenship is the deliberate inclusion of public interest into corporate decision-making then something must have triggered it. A business does not just engage in something that might well become a cost-centre, just because it feels good. Activities must be measurable and, directly or indirectly, they must contribute to profitability and competitiveness in the marketplace. Luckily, corporate citizenship can work well with those goals and be strategic, according to Michael Porter (2006). “By the turn of the 20th century, business practice was beginning to change at least in part because “governments, activists, and the media have become adept at holding companies to account for the social consequences of their activities” (Porter, 2006:78).

The diffuse power of individual citizens began to coalesce and organize, leaving corporate power with a potential impediment. The response to that gave rise to concepts of corporate citizenship. Once again, Porter (2006) weighs in by connecting corporate citizenship to competitive advantage:

Heightened corporate attention to CSR has not been entirely voluntary. Many companies awoke to it only after being surprised by public responses to issues they had not previously thought were part of their business responsibilities. Nike, for example, faced an extensive consumer boycott after the New York Times and other media outlets reported abusive labor practices at some of its Indonesian

suppliers in the early 1990s. Shell Oil's decision to sink the Brent Spar, an obsolete oil rig, in the North Sea led to Greenpeace protests in 1995 and to international headlines. Pharmaceutical companies discovered they were expected to respond to the AIDS pandemic in Africa, even though it was far removed from their product lines and markets. Fast food and packaged good companies are now being held responsible for obesity and poor nutrition (80).

The expansion of the term "success" from one metric, financial success, to three metrics is perhaps the greatest and simplest contribution from the literature. The triple bottom line, "people, planet and profits", demands a change in the business model to encompass these new outcomes.

Success measurements now run on intertwining tracks and all the reporting measures, from London Benchmarking to the UN Global Reporting Initiative, aim at tracking success along these more complex and less easily quantified indicators.

As an underpinning to this research, the concept of the corporation as a natural person, a citizen capable of moral actions that can still allow for a profitable business is a powerful archetype. The success of the corporate citizen's external relationships are, in large part, dependent on the human dynamics within the organization. Truly understanding a framework for corporate citizenship, one through which a planning tool like TESICC can be developed, must include elements of organizational design – what happens inside the organization that leads to actions that show the organization's face to the world.

Organizational Design

The interactions an organization has with society depend, in large part, on the choices that are made internally. Since an organization is composed of more than one person, often tens or hundreds or thousands of people, a corporation develops systems that allow decision-making to occur. To understand the internal choices that form an organization's interaction with society, one turns to the field of organizational design where, for this research, the focus is on two key areas; the values that inform decision-making and the leadership that, as we understand from *Canadian Dredge & Dock Co. v. The Queen*, forms the directing mind of the organization (*Canadian Dredge*, 1985: 20).

The Self-aware Organization

Metaphorically, corporations are macrocosms of individuals, so it is not surprising that the law treats them so. Continuing the metaphor to make the point, a corporation has leadership values (a head) that guide decision-making along with the systems and processes (nervous system) that communicate those decisions. Employees are like the limbs that execute action and thought, and are the interface with the outside world sending sensory information back up the line. The objective, or more often the aspiration, is to align those systems and processes internally so that, just as with the individual, the corporation acts internally in concert and externally with one voice.

The organization consists of many people, focused on a few goals relative to their numbers. When decision-making aligns, it means the organization can exert a power out of all proportion to that of the individuals who compose it. When it does not, it is similar to a person trying to walk forward, while the head looks backward. It is possible to do but one bumps into things along the way. Leadership and strong, values-based decision-making contribute to an organization that aligns thought and action, consciously determining a path trodden in fulfillment of citizenship responsibilities.

Leadership, Management and Culture

Much is written about leadership and its importance to an organization, but the salient parts for this research are the influence of leadership decisions and goal setting in an organization. There are two parts to this, a formal process and an informal process.

An example of the formal process might be a strategic plan, a board policy or a memorandum. In a hierarchical setting, decisions made at the leadership or managerial level tend to be broad and strategic, with each goal parsed out to become a series of actions executed at the lower levels.

The informal process is known as corporate culture, and here too, the leadership sets the tone. A good leader will incorporate the values of those lower in the hierarchy as part of that process, so there is a top-down/bottom-up continuum at work: “More specifically, it (culture) can be conceived of as the values, beliefs and norms that shape, the way we do things” (Hultman & Gellerman, 2002: 70). Hultman and Gellerman (2002) note “two levels of culture: the surface level represented by behaviour patterns or styles employees are encouraged to adopt, and the deeper level, represented by shared values that persist over time” (70).

A positive corporate culture is not just about good management, although that is an important factor. John Kotter (1999) speaks to the difference between management and leadership in a way that seems to support Hultman and Gellerman (2002):

Management is about dealing with complexity [...]. Without good management, complex enterprises tend to become chaotic in ways that threaten their very existence. Leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change. Part of the reason it has become so important in recent years is that the business world has become more competitive and more volatile (52-53).

If *leadership* is about managing continuous change and *management* is about managing complexity, then culture, represented in both formal and informal systems, is about the deeper values that form the glue of the organization. Culture and shared values guide the ability of organizational leadership to engage employees in the attainment of corporate goals, to keep everyone rowing in the same direction.

Hultman and Gellerman (2002) talk about good leadership as the act of, “establishing a vision and creating conditions whereby people can move toward that vision in healthy and positive ways” (109). Elsewhere, they cite Schein (1992): “Leaders can quickly get across their own priorities, values and assumptions by consistently linking rewards and punishments to the behaviour they are concerned with.” (qtd. in Hultman & Gellerman, 2002: 109).

Essentially, it is about “walking the walk and talking the talk”. In public relations terms, good leadership is authentic leadership. For those in organizational design, the behaviour type is known as “congruent”. Quoting Dyer (1976) on leadership, “nothing undermines trust more rapidly or thoroughly than an awareness that someone is not what he pretends to be – that his behaviour is not congruent with what he thinks and feels” (Hultman & Gellerman, 2002: 109).

For purposes of corporate citizenship, good leadership is a key factor in the establishment of a positive culture that, in turn, informs the decision-making and actions of the people within the organization, including their interactions with society at large.

The Importance of Values and Culture

Rokeach (1973) described a value as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (qtd. in Hultman & Gellerman, 2002: 4). Given that values are held deeply, it is easy to see that opposing values, perhaps a personal value versus an organizational value, could cause inconsistent decision-making on the part of the employee at its least, and some form of organizational chaos at most.

What kind of cultural values do most people prefer? Abbot, White and Charles (2005) studied and confirmed the work of Schwartz and Bardi (2001). They found that, “benevolence (preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent contact), self-direction, (independent thought and action, choosing own goals), and universalism (understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of all people), were consistently rated across cultures as being more powerful than other types of values” (Abbot, White & Charles, 2005: 531).

This is not surprising since these pan-cultural value preferences also roughly coincide with many religious and societal norms. An organization where the corporate values ran in opposition to these pan-cultural value preferences might find disconnected or disjointed decision-making, as employees tried to rationalize conflicting world views. In corporate life, the interplay of personal and organizational value systems is a key factor when assessing the authenticity (congruence) with which the leadership, the employees and ultimately, the organization itself interact with society.

Jeanne M. Liedtka (2005) says congruence between the value systems of the individual and the organization becomes an issue only in its absence: “Given such a lack of congruence, the strongest self-image should prevail” (806). If a weak corporate culture lacks shared meanings, beliefs and values, then one is generally dealing with the varying belief systems of individuals. According to Liedtka (2005), “this would point to two potential sources of conflict around values that managers face – internal conflict, within the self, and external conflict, between the self and the outside environment” (807).

The objective is not to override individual beliefs or supplant them with corporate values, but to align the values of the individual and organization so that employee decision-making and actions at all levels can proceed from an authentic place. Finding that alignment through good leadership and a strong congruent system of values makes it easier for an organization to be self-aware when making choices about the kind of citizen it will be.

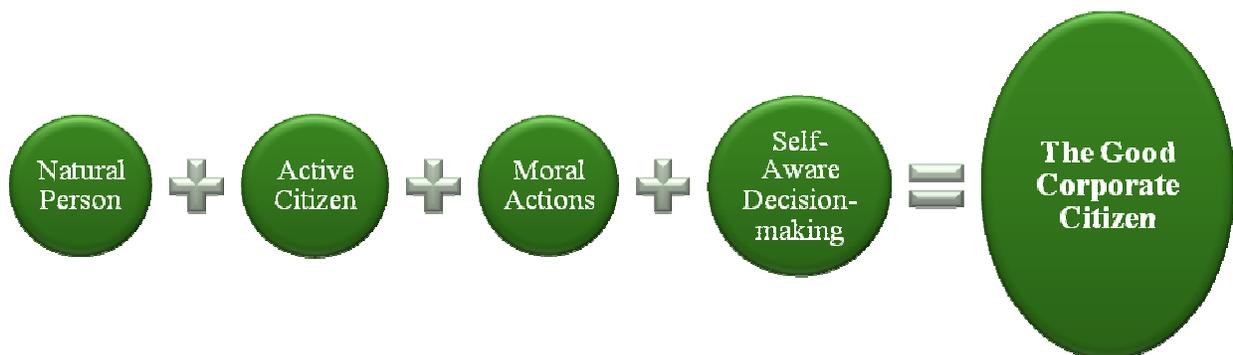


Fig. 2. The Good Corporate Citizen

Stakeholder Theory

A word about stakeholder theory, one of the most influential theories for communications practitioners and simply assumed in much of the theory on corporate citizenship. R. Edward Freeman's (1994) stakeholder approach to the corporation is a simple yet elegant movement away from the concept of the corporate shareholder as the only "stakeholder", that is, the only one assuming a degree of risk regarding the success of the corporation. "My thesis is that I can revitalize the concept of managerial capitalism by replacing the notion that managers have a duty to stockholders with the concept that managers bear a fiduciary relationship to stakeholders" (39).

For Freeman (1994), stakeholders are those groups with a stake or claim on the firm, specifically, suppliers, customers, employees, stockholders and the local community. Though practitioners today often include a wide variety of groups in their lists of stakeholders, implied in Freeman's claim is an element of risk that stakeholder groups have assume in the success of the enterprise. In stakeholder theory, everyone has some significant reason for contributing to the success of an organization. For each, something is always "at stake":

- Owners have a financial stake in the organization and expect a return. Their risk is a loss of their investment in time and money.
- Shareholders have invested in the organization with the expectation of a return (ROI) on use of the money. Like owners, they risk the loss of their investment if the enterprise is not profitable.
- Employees' livelihood is at risk if the enterprise is not successful, with possibly profound personal implications. At the same time, employees are increasingly concerned about issues in the greater society like concern for the environment so organizations that ignore those concerns risk dissonance between corporate values and personal values with corresponding dissonance in internal actions.
- Suppliers provide the raw materials that determine product quality and success. Their livelihoods also depend on the success of the operation.
- Customers exchange resources for the product in anticipation of its benefits. Their risk lies in believing company claims that it will satisfy their need. Increasingly, customers are holding corporations accountable for societal needs by asking for products that speak to those concerns – buying recycled paper, not buying plastic bottles or bags etc.

Local communities benefit from the tax base as well as the economic and social contributions that spring from business. The prosperity of the community as a whole often depends on the success of the enterprise.

Other groups often included as stakeholders, such as media, activist groups or regulatory agencies, are important and demand significant corporate resources but they are not stakeholders, as they do not share in the risk that the enterprise might fail. This research does not exclude these "influential groups". It simply recognizes those who have "a stake" in the organization and suggests that stakeholders are the primary vehicles through which organizations affect and are affected by the world.

Shareholder risk remains critically important simply because those willing and able to invest capital in ventures are scarce, while the impact on the growth and success of the organization is

potentially great. However, all stakeholders take a risk in the enterprise of some sort or another and must be acknowledged and often included in corporate decision-making.

Concepts of citizenship and societal interaction become more concrete when aligned with the needs and contributions of stakeholder groups. Esben Rahbek Pedersen (2006) says “the stakeholder model has become one that best reflects the modern understanding of companies as integrated in, rather than separated from, the rest of society” (139).

This is one of the key points of this research, that a corporation is not the behemoth lying ominously outside of society needing to be tamed. Rather, it is part of “us”, a myriad of individuals working individually or in combination, in pursuit of goals. A corporation is the macro of individual endeavour, but is a micro of the greater society. Corporate citizenship looks at the role the entire corporate entity should take within society as a whole.

Pedersen (2006) also points out one of the pitfalls of the stakeholder approach, one that TESICC will attempt to address:

CSR addresses the relationship between business and society—a relationship that compels companies to communicate with different stakeholder groups. However, to engage in a dialogue with all relevant stakeholders is beyond the capacity of any company. In order to make the complexity of the environment manageable, the company must transform it into a model that will always contain less information than the phenomenon it tries to describe (151).

Stakeholder theory aids us in understanding the roles and risks stakeholder groups take in contributing to the success of the corporate enterprise but it also provides a portal to help answer questions about the nature and extent of corporate citizenship obligations.

Pedersen (2006) sees corporate engagement with stakeholders as a key to the literature on corporate social responsibility: “Without relationships with the internal and external constituents, companies will find it difficult to grasp the fluctuating nature of the values, attitudes and behaviour of their stakeholders and respond accordingly” (140). In a separate paper, Pedersen (2009) expands on the interactive nature of stakeholder dialogue, highlighting a “give and take” requirement for discussion:

It is difficult to take into account the voices of stakeholders if you do not listen to what they have to say. However, stakeholder interaction is not only a one sided affair where the firm passively adapts to various stakeholder expectations and claims. On the contrary, a stakeholder approach to CSR also means that stakeholders are someone the firm is negotiating with and otherwise try to influence in order to attain corporate goals (4).

In a world where the shareholders are not the only group taking on risk in the enterprise, the company must incorporate the views of its other stakeholders in some way in its decision-making processes. This integration into society is the idea that lies at the heart of corporate citizenship.

The Interface between an Organization and Society

The lack of consensus on defining corporate citizenship and corresponding conceptual frameworks makes it difficult for the average practitioner, whose concerns are day-to-day, to bring this area of study into the field of operations.

For that reason, this research began by nesting the proposed management tool within a conceptual framework that places the corporation squarely within society, a part of its fabric. A corporation is seen as a metaphorical “natural person” capable of moral actions and active

citizenship. A key point in this framework is the need for “self-aware” decision-making, a result of good leadership guided by strong values, both personal and corporate.

This research points out that regardless, a corporation functions as a citizen in its interactions with society everyday, though it may be unaware and its actions not purposeful. When those interactions are seen through the lens of corporate citizenship they can be identified, assessed and, through the completed planning process, considered strategically.

The proposed environmental scan (TESICC) provides a starting point from which an organization can develop plans that allow it to influence its impact on society consciously, whilst remaining conscious of society’s impact on it. The scan starts by identifying:

- proactive activity (goals) and
- reactive activity (triggers), choices already made and in progress that are currently affecting the organization.

These can be choices made by the organization itself or they may be choices that others have made that affect the organization.

Just as individuals make choices about their participation in society, so must organizations. Each person makes choices, conscious or not, about what kind of citizen they wish to be, and organizations do the same. Corporate citizenship is really just about making those choices consciously and with good reason. Like an individual, every organization interacts with the society in which it operates. That means there are pressure points – both proactive and reactive.

Each organization connects to the world in two ways:

- In the ways the outside world connects with an organization.
- In the ways the organization wants to connect with the outside world.

Figure 3 below provides examples of these proactive and reactive pressure points.

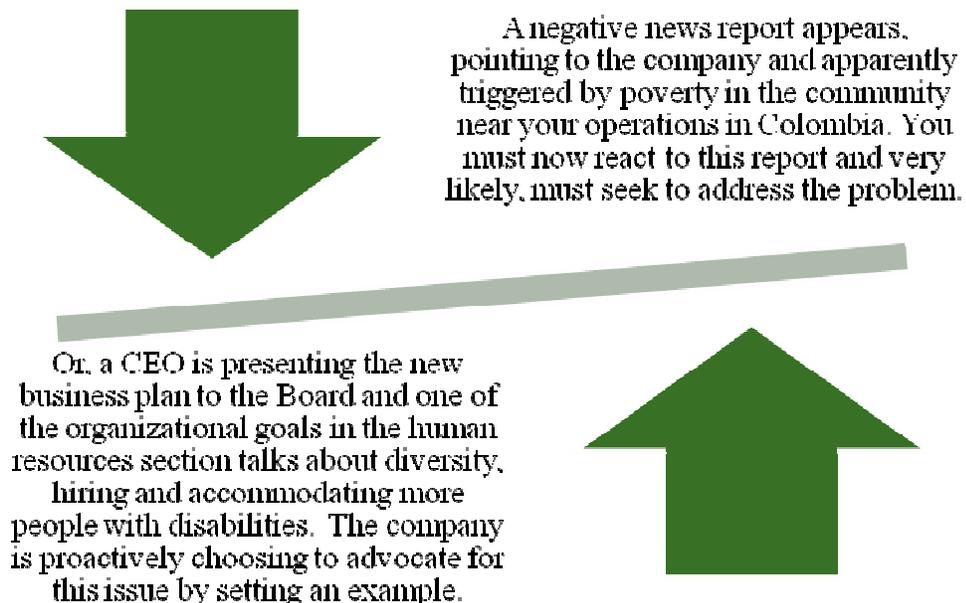


Fig. 3. Reactive and Proactive Pressure Points

What are Proactive Choices?

A review of organizational goals captured by an organization's leadership is generally the best vehicle for understanding what it is the organization wants to accomplish, and how that will impact on stakeholders and society in general.

Every organization has a way of understanding goals. Most have multi-year strategic plans that break out by functional department. Once those goals are understood, then the practitioner can begin to understand some key information like:

- What stakeholders are affected by this goal?
- What is the status of this goal (is it achieving its milestones?)
- How important is this goal relative to other goals the organization has set?

A quick survey of the news on any given day will show how organizations promote a corporate agenda. For example, February 12, 2010 was Food Freedom Day according to the Ontario Federation of Agriculture (2010), the day when the average Ontarian will have earned enough to pay for food for the entire year (para. 1).

This is a way of promoting a corporate agenda of "highest food safety and environmental standards [...] yet one of the most affordable food supplies in the world" (OFA, 2010: para. 1). In achieving this corporate goal, a large number of stakeholders are involved including farmers, retailers, of course, customers. Good corporate citizenship practices would take that stated corporate goal and develop ways of measuring cost, ensuring quality and environmental standards and reporting on them. If the organization had set a different goal, then the systems and processes that ensure achievement would be different. From a communications standpoint, each stakeholder aligned to that goal would be identified and strategies built to ensure ongoing communications and strong relationships will promote and perpetuate that corporate goal. This is just one of the ways that the Ontario Federation of Agriculture is fulfilling its responsibilities as a citizen.

What are Reactive Choices?

The concept of triggers for an organization borrows from the work of Don Grayson and Adrian Hodges (2004): "Triggers can be political, economic, social, technological and environmental 'global forces for change' and result in changed stakeholder expectations about corporate behaviour" (19). Triggers indicate what in the external environment is affecting, or affected by, an organization.

Once again, a quick scan of the news also shows organizations reacting to triggers as well as executing organizational goals. The same day, February 12, 2010, shows that Fraser Papers, Brookfield Asset Management and the Government of New Brunswick agreed to meet with the Communication, Energy and Paperworkers Union of Canada (CEPUC). The union wrote the news release and they say the meeting follows an aggressive, public campaign to pressure both Fraser and Brookfield to negotiate what they call "a fair settlement for 1,000 pensioners from paper mills in three provinces" (CEPUC, 2010: para. 2).

In this case, a stakeholder group is agitating for change and the ways in which the organizations involved deal with this, as well as the union for that matter, will form part of the citizenship choices each one makes. It may be business as usual, but the decisions made will affect many stakeholders, and could affect the ability of the companies to do business in the region in the future and perhaps affect other areas of the business.

This does not assume that management will, or should, give in to all demands made by the union, or indeed, on the union side, to give in to all demands made by management. The point is to see the

whole chessboard – to recognize, as both sides in this case likely do, that the choices made here will reflect on their reputation and their roles as citizens.

Once the practitioner decides which goals and triggers to include, they will begin to see the net citizenship activity for an organization, a unique combination of corporate influence (goals) and outside pressures (triggers) that display a organization's impact on society.

Some other examples of triggers:

1. Chiquita Bananas takes steps to improve its performance on environmental and social concerns, reacting to “damaging media coverage” and a “change in values and beliefs of top management” (Werre,1999: 6).
2. Nike received much bad media and drops in sales regarding their practice of making shoes in sweatshops. (Zadek, 2004)
3. TD Bank Financial group internal research found that its employees wanted the company to align its social values with theirs. That trigger from an internal stakeholder became organizational goals of workplace diversity and care for the environment (Clark, 2003: 2).

That well-known metaphor “fabric of the nation”, is applicable here. Separate threads made up of individuals and organizations compose the warp and woof of society. Each thread depends on the other and serves to keep the cloth whole. Operationalizing corporate citizenship is as much about relieving the stress points on the fabric and creating colour and texture, as it is about stitching up the holes and tears.

Methodology and Participants

Qualitative research practices for this research included an extensive review of existing literature in a broad range of disciplines such as public relations, especially corporate social responsibility, Canadian common law, organizational design, citizenship theory and stakeholder theory. The author herself is a senior communications practitioner with a strong background in this area.

In addition, primary qualitative research identified 8 to 10 possible senior communications practitioners, currently working in corporations in Canada, who would have had exposure to the area of corporate citizenship, likely through the workplace. Respondents were recruited from a sample identified through the internet and from the business and non-profit community using personal networks.

Of those possible respondents, five participated in a survey, which asked them to comment on a proposed environmental scan in corporate citizenship. The respondents occupy the following positions:

1. Senior Vice President, Canadian Operation, Public Affairs Consultancy;
2. Senior Vice President, Communications & Community Affairs, Canadian based multi-national;
3. Principal, Communications and Non-Profit Management Consultancy, Toronto based;
4. Senior Director, Canadian Distribution and Sales Organization;
5. Senior Vice President, Investor Relations and Communications, Canadian-based multi-national holding company.

Key Findings

Early on, it became clear that the kind of planning processes where an environmental scan proves useful would not necessarily be “in-house”, in all organizations. Typically, an organization might outsource a planning process to a consulting firm, on the basis that it engages more often in this kind of exercise and develops in-house tools for the job. In the case of consulting firms, where billable hours are the key to success, and especially in recessionary times, internal planning often is set aside in favour of billable time spent with clients.

Despite this, it was also clear that as communications integrates more closely with management functions like human resources and finance, for example, the need for more senior, strategic communications and business planning becomes more important. One respondent said, “corporate social responsibility has not been a priority as the company was expanding rapidly.” Yet, this organization is taking significant steps. According to the respondent, “we are looking seriously at participating (becoming a signatory) in the UNPRI – United Nations Principles for Responsible Investing, which we understand is the gold standard in reporting on environmental, social and corporate governance (ESG) issues. We also respond each year to the Carbon Disclosure Project, which requires reporting on environmental progress”.

Another respondent stated that issues of corporate citizenship were now being mandated by customers and that there was pressure in her organization to take a closer look at these issues. For these organizations, anchoring authentic choices in a philosophical framework can provide the basis for good reporting as well as bringing the area further into the scope of operations. She commented that “[an] environmental scan is useful as a strong research foundation, and can be done internally if the support is there.”

The need for management support was echoed by others to varying degrees.

- Some respondents are “planning” to conduct more planning
- Planning not done or done ad hoc for organization itself, is often done for clients using tools developed in-house
- Not enough resources allocated to conduct planning
- Basket of additional information could be expanded

One respondent was skeptical that most organizations were willing to “walk the walk and talk the talk”:

In my experience, fewer and fewer organizations have the bandwidth to conduct such a thorough environmental scan themselves and would be challenged to use a new and potentially complex planning tool – most [...] simply put the basics in place, do not resource it properly and spend most of their time telling people about their corporate citizenship activities rather than properly planning and implementing them. Jantzi Research and the Canadian Business for Social Responsibility have also shown this in their studies – what companies SAY they are doing year to year is increasing, what they actually DO is not.

Possible reasons for this could be:

1. An inability to build corporate citizenship into the revenue model, leaving the result diffuse, and not recorded or measured.
2. The highly tactical, response-oriented nature of mainstream communications practice often finds it difficult to communicate vision and planning priorities – it is often reactive.
3. Corporate citizenship is seen as a cost centre that engages in a basket of diverse activities that do not often produce direct results – often derogatorily referred to as “soft”.

4. Planning documents typically sit on a shelf and gather dust. Systems that allow planning to “live” must be built into the beginning of the process.

Based on the responses, changes made to the scan included:

1. Scaling down the key questions to make it easy for practitioners without time or support to use it.
2. The addition of a basket of other questions and factors that can be considered based on the unique needs of the organization as well as the time and support constraints of the practitioners.
3. The addition of several factors to the basket of additional considerations such as key success factors, internal champions and competitive factors.

Discussion and Results

The corporate communications office is usually handed responsibility for corporate citizenship activities. One hopes this is because of the communications function’s strategic focus on stakeholder management and because of its broad ranging responsibilities and integration with so many other parts of the business – e.g. investor relations, internal communications, governance, etc. Whatever the reason, making management decisions, consciously, with a view to active citizenship would ideally bring peace with all stakeholders, but, if not, at least one can better manage the battles that do occur, and not be blindsided by newly opened fronts.

Through the Lens of Corporate Citizenship

Earlier, it was suggested that the obligations of citizenship were encompassed in “active citizenship”, the philosophy that citizens should work towards the betterment of their community through economic participation, public service, volunteer work, and other such efforts to improve life for all. This definition deliberately cuts a wide swath because it is important that organizations choose the ways in which they fulfill their citizenship obligations, just as individuals make their own choices.

Organizations around the country regularly carry out activities that improve life for other citizens. The charge is usually that they could do more and perhaps that is true, but so often the line seems very subjective and a moving target. Understanding the goals and triggers that are unique to an organization, and recognizing stakeholders as the primary groups through which an organization interfaces with society, puts parameters around such questions as “How much is too much? When are we not doing enough?” and most importantly, “What does success look like?”

As one respondent remarked, many could do more to walk the walk. In response, this research posits that corporate citizenship is a way for organizations to better understand their impact on the world in which they work and live. It may be passive, as with customers who vote with their feet, which leads to a downturn in sales. It could be suppliers or shareholders asking for greater transparency in the release of timely information, over and above that mandated by law. It could be community groups demanding greater public consultation on a new initiative, perhaps a new factory or outlet, so that the result is more in line with local needs. It could be a union negotiation. It does not mean that every stakeholder gets everything they want. What it does is to help companies know where to look, know what boundaries to set, and know how to define this very nebulous term “corporate citizenship” uniquely, for their operation.

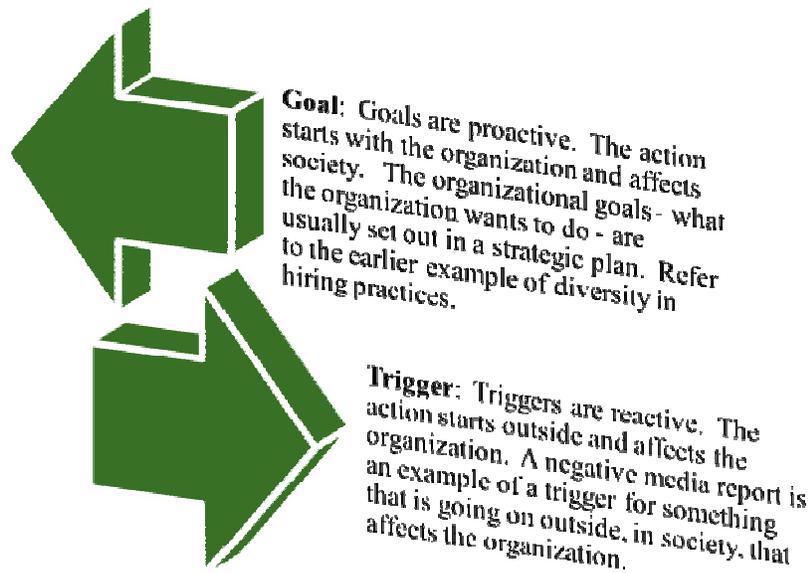


Fig. 4. Goals and Triggers

There are three parts to TESICC. Given that planning does not always receive the support it needs internally, it is important that any management tool allow for a fast, uncomplicated assessment of a situation. The first part only identifies goals and triggers for an organization so if the practitioner wants to move ahead in the communications or business plan at this point that is perfectly acceptable. However, some practitioners wish a deeper level of analysis. They may wish to consider possible outcomes for goals and triggers in isolation from the overall strategy. They may find the number of goals and triggers overwhelming and may need to find a way of prioritizing them. In each case, TESICC allows the practitioner to consider more information, as needed. In this way, the management tool scales to the level of complexity appropriate to the resources allocated for planning.

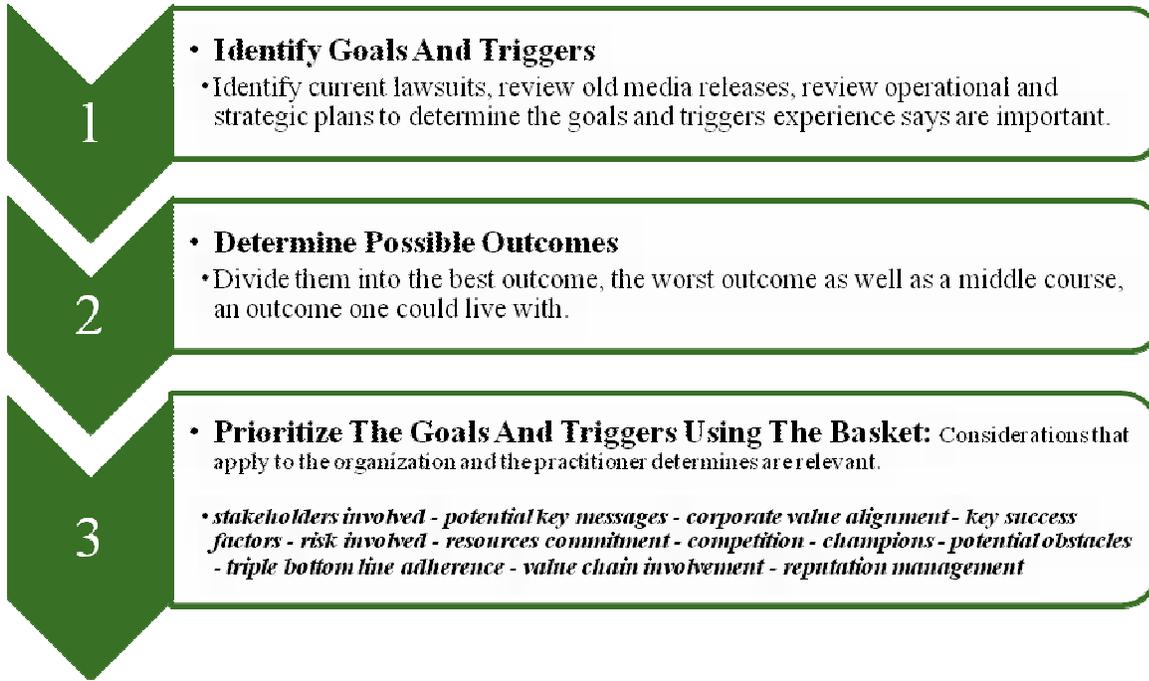


Fig. 5. TESICC’s Three Parts

Having assessed goals and triggers it is possible to move to a consideration of strategy in the development of a business or communications plan. However, if resources allow, the consideration of further information (Part 2) will raise questions and answers that can inform the strategies and tactics that will be developed in the plan.

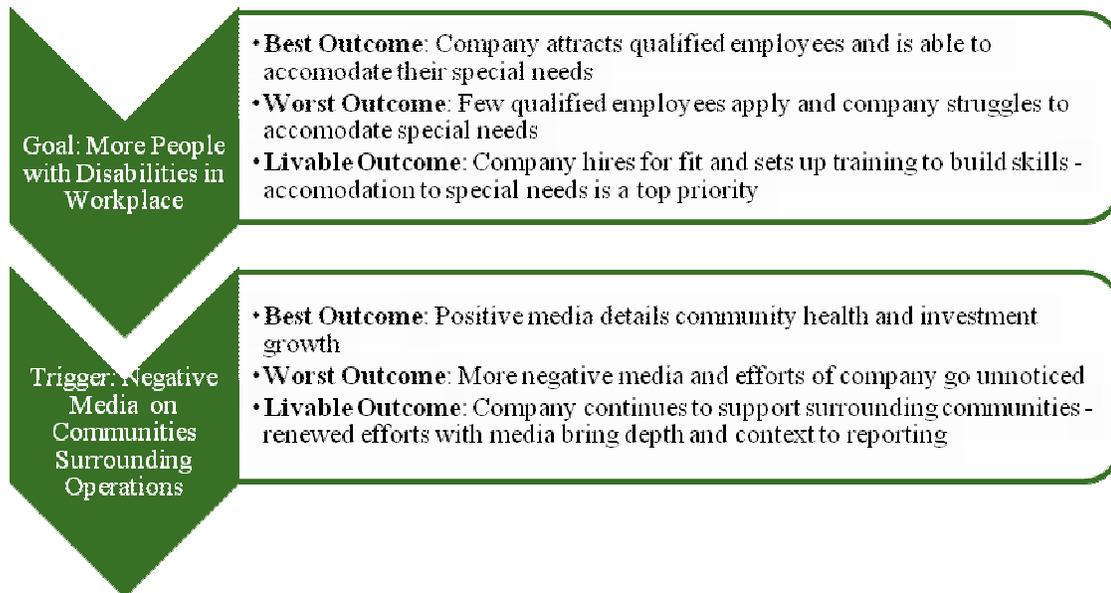


Fig. 6. Add an Additional Layer of Complexity by Identifying Outcomes

Part 2 of TESICC allows the practitioner to consider outcomes in isolation from other goals and triggers. Later, the strategy section of the planning process will look at all goals and triggers holistically. For now, a simple understanding of possible outcomes will help the practitioner to sort what could be an abundance of information presented and clarify preferences.

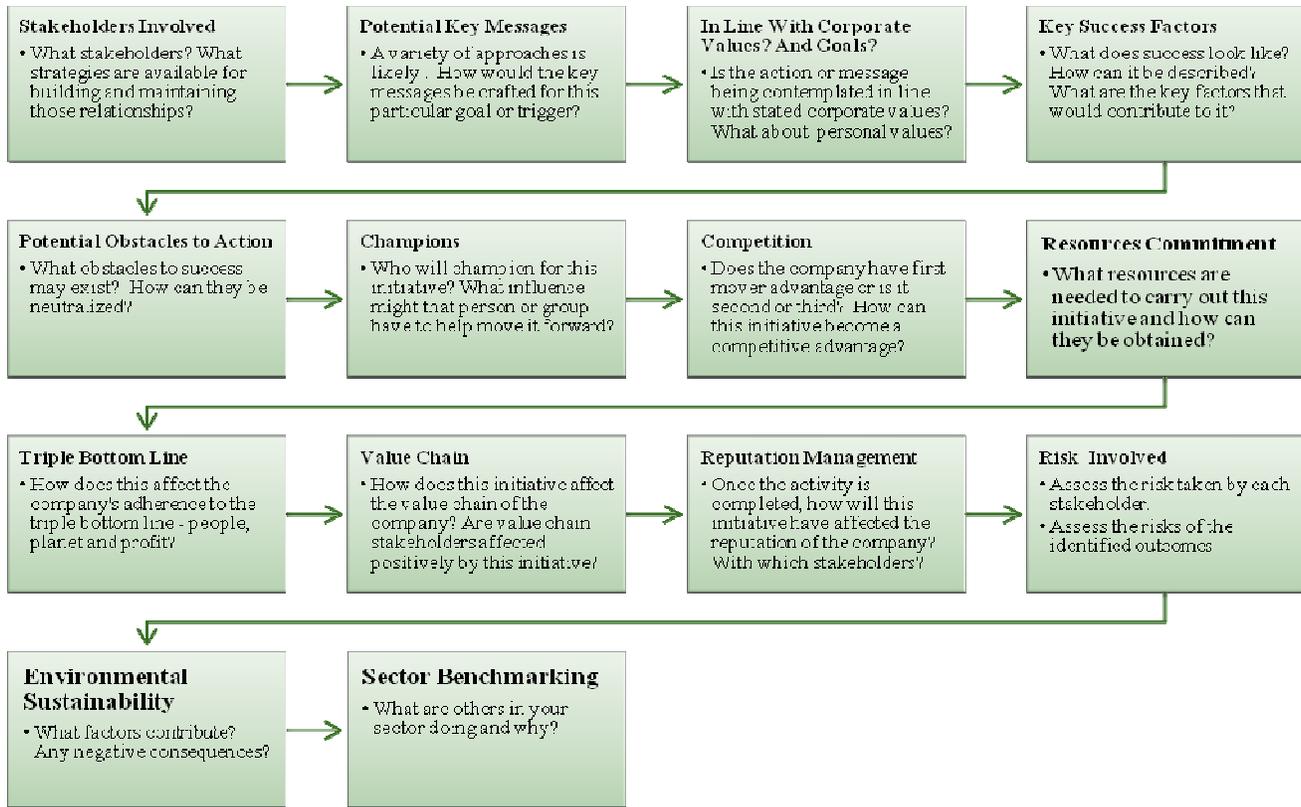


Fig. 7. Determine Priorities by Choosing Them from a Random Basket of Factors

In assessing possible outcomes, practitioners may wish for more information to determine priorities or there may be certain factors unique to the organization the practitioner wishes to include. Part 3 of TESICC provides a basket of possible factors that can be considered. During that assessment process, it will become apparent that some factors are more important when making a determination about which goals and triggers are important. Choosing them will depend on the needs of the organization, the experience of the practitioner and the perspectives of those who will review and help validate the plan. Each will be unique.

There is no right or wrong number of goals or triggers to use in the planning document. Likewise, there is no right or wrong way to use the environmental scan. TESICC simply provides an outline and a conceptual framework through which the practitioner can work. It will depend on individual needs and the practitioner's ability to create a succinct and timely document that staff can use internally, informing execution until the next plan succeeds it.

Limitations

This research does have some limitations, noted below:

1. There were only five practitioners surveyed. This is a small sample and further research will likely increase the sample. This was mitigated somewhat by the author's significant personal experience in conducting planning processes within organizations.
2. Planning of this kind is not commonly conducted in the communications industry. As noted, this is generally due to resources and to the tactical nature of some parts of the industry itself.
3. The scan is theoretical at this point and testing it in an actual organization will refine and temper it.
4. There is a bias in the sample selection process. The sample, from which the subjects were recruited, was composed of people identified through the internet and from the business and non-profit community using the author's personal networks.

Conclusion

Despite the lack of a consensus in academia regarding definitions and the operationalization of corporate citizenship, business has moved this area forward as it tries to grapple with the problem. There are management tools in use now, and some of these are very helpful. The purpose of this research is to attempt to marry theory and practice in a way in which both worlds can agree.

The gap between theory and practice appears most resonant in the expectations that those representing each world has of the other. Academics are mostly in the business of ideas and in working through their ideas of corporate citizenship propose a confusing array of prescriptives.

Business, must provide financial success for stakeholders as well as satisfying what must seem an often confusing array of other concerns like the welfare of people and the environment. It is a big and complex job just to allocate resources to achieve a profit and when the livelihoods of people one knows and works with depend on that type of success, it has a way of focusing the mind. Balancing this with that confusing array loosely defined as "people and planet" and finding a way to deal effectively with it can be difficult for many organizations.

That is why seeing one's organization through the lens of corporate citizenship can be helpful here. It broadens the view of success to include people and the environment, but also recognizes the importance of financial success. Potentially, it can give managers permission to look at the whole chessboard and, without censure, allocate resources differently as part of an accepted role as citizens.

The first step in broadening the look of success is to determine the baseline, where one is at today. The primary goal of *The Environmental Scan in Corporate Citizenship* is to provide that baseline, nested in theory but scalable, practical and usable day-to-day.

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