



Toward an integrated framework of corporate social responsibility, responsiveness, and citizenship in sport

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ABSTRACT

This article examined the concepts of corporate social responsibility, corporate social responsiveness, and corporate citizenship (CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC, respectively) in relation to the activities reported by organizations in the sport industry. We expand on the idea that social involvement differs amongst sport organizations based on type, scope, direction, and target audiences. Therefore, in contrast to the majority of positivist models of social responsibility, we propose an integrated model of social involvement which notably includes the spatial (i.e., geographical) orientation of social involvement in sport. To begin distinguishing between the various forms of social involvement, we content analyzed the websites of nearly 100 sport entities to provide both typicality and a systematic variety of teams, leagues, and organizations to reveal general social involvement practices in the industry. We conclude that social involvement varies considerably in the sport industry and this variation can be partially explained by geographical reach, stakeholder influences, and business operations of the organizations. For example, multinational organizations are more likely to adopt CC activities than those operating in more localized context and the magnitude and scope of the social involvement tends to reflect the profile and size of the organization.

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1. Introduction

In 2006, the National Basketball Association (NBA), with the support of the Player's Association (NBAPA), launched the \$100 million NBA Cares initiative. League Commissioner David Stern remarked that the NBA should care about the needs of the wider world, "... because we can and because we must" (Pollick, 2006, p. 29). In a subsequent interview, the Commissioner again went on record stating that the NBA has just two missions, "... the most immediate is to be a successful league, but the other is to use our strength for social responsibility" (Genzale, 2006, p. 34). While sport organizations such as the NBA have traditionally worked to enhance their reputations through localized charitable efforts, they have more recently adopted the corporate approach of large-scale giving. This is just one of the many ways in which the sport industry is addressing corporate social responsibility (CSR).

CSR implies that businesses are responsible for assessing their wider impact on society (cf. Lockett, Moon, & Visser, 2006; Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001; Quazi, 2003) and regardless of specific labeling, the concept has been applied to how managers

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should handle public policy and other social issues (Windsor, 2006). Accordingly, Waddock (2004, p. 10) opined that “. . . CSR is the subset of corporate responsibilities that deals with a company’s discretionary relationships with its societal and community stakeholders”. These demands on businesses to address and respond to social concerns have become an instrumental aspect of the majority of modern business models (cf. Carroll, 1999; Davis, 1973; Mohr et al., 2001; Wood, 1991). Two additional orientations of social involvement² have been posited in the literature however, suggesting a multi-level social framework in terms of less altruistic, more strategic (i.e., instrumental) notions of corporate social policy formation. They include corporate social responsiveness, regarded as the strategic and processual aspect of social responsibility (cf. Matten & Crane, 2005; Wartick & Cochran, 1985) and corporate citizenship, which Matten and Crane (2005) described as administering citizenship rights for individuals through compliance with ethical governance, endorsing global standards, and promoting strong philanthropic and volunteer activities.

Frederick (1994; see also Sethi, 1975), in his discussion of the social role of business, presented what he termed “logics” in support of this multi-level idea by classifying social involvement into three distinct categories. He first identified CSR₁ (responsibility) as philanthropy and stewardship obligations to community members (cf. Bowen, 1953; Chamberlain, 1973; Heald, 1970). CSR₁ is viewed as a subset of corporate obligations dealing with a company’s voluntary and discretionary relationships with its societal and community stakeholders to “. . . minimize or eliminate harmful effects and maximize long-run benefits to society” (Mohr et al., 2001, p. 47). Second, CSR₂ (responsiveness) was presented as a way to manage and respond to societal and stakeholder demands (cf. Ackerman & Bauer, 1976; Carroll, 1979; Crampton & Patten, 2008; Matten, Crane, & Chapple, 2003; Sethi, 1979). Responsiveness means that companies should take explicit and forward looking action to respond to and deal with stakeholders and public policy issues (Waddock, 2004) bringing them up to a level consistent with prevailing social norms. Lastly, Frederick (1986, 1994) described CSR₃ (rectitude) as the ability “. . . to refer policies and plans to a culture of ethics that embraces the most fundamental moral principles of humankind” (p. 136), essentially, social involvement guided by a normative or ethical component (Wood, 1991). According to Waddock (2004), this third iteration of CSR was never widely adopted. CSR₃ reflected the growth of interest in business ethics in the mid 1980s, and according to Frederick, emphasized social values derived from the sociopolitical environment. Unfortunately, the idea of business ethics has had little effect on actual business practice (cf. Forsyth, 1992; Waddock, 2004). Thus, primary guidance for CSR₃ originated from the spate of irresponsible corporate activities witnessed in the 1980s into the 1990s. The idea of corporate citizenship (in lieu of the “rectitude” tag) was constructed to incorporate the rights and duties of companies and opportunities and challenges of operating in the global business environment.

In order to focus on the relationship *between* sport businesses and society, as well as the system of these businesses *within* society, we adopted Frederick’s labels but supplanted corporate citizenship (CC) in place of rectitude (i.e., CSR₃) due to its increased proliferation in the management literature (cf. Maignan, Ferrell, & Holt, 1999; Matten & Crane, 2005; Zadek, 2001), its focus on the enlarged social implications of business activities (cf. Gardberg & Fombrum, 2006; Matten et al., 2003), and its importance to corporate performance with respect to specific stakeholders groups (Waddock, 2004). While some definitional ambiguity of these terminologies remain (see Edward & Willmott, 2008; Matten & Crane, 2005; McWilliams, Seigel, & Wright, 2006; Moon, Crane, & Matten, 2005; Scherer, Palazzo, & Bauman, 2006; Waddock, 2004; Windsor, 2001), there nevertheless is a growing push to include them in the management of organizations in varying fields, notably professional sport (Walker & Kent, 2009). Thus, examining such phenomena (i.e., social involvement strategies and foci) within the sport context could provide sport scholars with additional advantages not found in the mainstream business research (Wolfe et al., 2005).

2. Study purpose

Social involvement research in sport management is in its infancy (cf. Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Brietbarth & Harriss, 2008; Misener & Mason, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walker & Kent, 2009; Walker, Kent, & Rudd, 2007) and much remains to be understood regarding the social activities of, and benefits for, sport organizations. Correspondingly, the definitional confusion surrounding social involvement (and its associated types) may be a significant problem for sport management scholars. If competing definitions have diverging biases, academics will speak differently about social involvement thereby preventing productive dialogue (Dahlsrud, 2008). Regardless of the confusion however, the broader management literature has, for some time now, differentiated between the concepts of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC, as “messy” as they may still be. However, there have been no attempts to apply these social involvement concepts to an industry specific model to illustrate actual similarities and differences. Thus, there is a need to properly align the theoretical constructs with the existing (management) literature to distinguish between the layers of social involvement and also examine any interrelationships that may exist. Therefore, the purpose of this article was to distinguish amongst and integrate the concepts of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC into a larger framework appropriate for application to the sport industry.

To accomplish this task, we content analyzed a number of sport organizations with regard to the activities they self-reported on their websites as social involvement. To integrate the social involvement concepts into our overall framework, three coding strategies were used: (1) identify the types of social involvement undertaken by the sample (i.e., existence of

² CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC refer to interactions of the sport firms with society, and the phrase “social initiatives” is used as a collective representation of the business–society relationship. In subsequent sections of the article, we conceptually and operationally distinguish between CSR₁, CSR₂ and CC.

social involvement), (2) classify the social involvement according to one of three orientations (i.e., CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC), and (3) apply the appropriate involvement level to the social initiatives (i.e., individual-level, organizational-level, country-level, or transnational-level). Although prior work has implicitly discussed and described the orientations of social involvement, these concepts have not been explicitly examined. Thus, we draw on theory and research to present a preliminary framework for social involvement in the sport industry according the orientations of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC.

The following section offers a general overview of social involvement in sport, followed by the definitional discussions of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC. Next, we present our methods, followed by the analysis and results, highlighting fundamental aspects of social involvement in terms of the progression of sport business practice. Finally, we offer the boundary conditions, spatial orientations, and empirical distinctions of social involvement in sport based on our results and the extant literature. We conclude with study limitations and suggestions for future inquiries.

3. Social involvement in sport

Babiak and Wolfe (2006) noted that, as recently as 15 years ago, socially responsible involvement did not play a significant role in sport organization governance and operations. Today however, an examination of any sport organization's website reveals most participate and embrace some form of societal and community outreach. Whether in the forms of community improvements, volunteerism, philanthropy, environmental initiatives, or educational and health programs, most sport organizations identify the need to support some form of social involvement (Walker & Kent, 2009).

The sport industry in general has created a global phenomenon in its own right worth billions in broadcasting, merchandising, and sponsoring. As a whole, the sport industry comprises a cooperative activity relying on financial, human, and social capital (Morrow, 2003). At one level, professional sport teams unite to produce a product that provides entertainment for spectators (cf. Mason, 1999; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). At another level, athlete "star power" has prompted television and other media companies to purchase exclusive rights to televise games. At yet another level, municipalities and local governments have engaged in new facility construction to foster the connections perpetuated through tradition, history, and other social ties teams utilize to reinforce their "community" affiliations (cf. Heere & James, 2007; Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000). Consequently, many corporations have increased their support of leagues and teams to capitalize on revenues through sponsorships or other symbiotic associations (Mason, 1999). Additionally, the trend towards the reporting of social involvement represents an important opportunity to capitalize on a marriage between sport, the economic might of the corporate sector (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007), and the positive associations the extant literature, has shown can be reaped from such engagement (e.g., Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2007; Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006; Klein & Dawar, 2004; Menon & Kahn, 2003).

There exist various non-profit organizations (e.g., Right to Play, YMCA, Boys and Girls Clubs, Police Athletic League, etc.) who, by their nature, already offer services to the community and go beyond simple economic value creation. However, for-profit sport organizations are currently facing unique challenges, as the public, championed by relentless media and activist attention, demand more transparency and accountability. As well, production oriented organizations (e.g., adidas Group, Nike, Billabong Int., Callaway Golf, etc.) have also adopted various social initiatives including codes of conduct, human rights initiatives, fair labor practices, and environmental programs (Lim & Phillips, 2008), which partially explain the importance of partnerships between suppliers, contractors, and consumers. The production of sport-related goods is a complex process involving numerous stakeholders (Thibault, 2009), and socially oriented organizations have the power to make a difference by improving work conditions, limiting environmental impacts, and diversifying the workplace.

Social involvement has also emerged as a new way for sport organizations to garner "secondary value" attainment beyond the scope of their core product (i.e., the game, event, etc.). For example, the PGA TOUR has given in excess of \$1 billion to charity through their various charitable initiatives using the phrase "Giving Back... At the Heart of the PGA TOUR" to show that giving is part of the TOUR's culture but also to show the successful growth of the sport and organization (Golf Today, 2005). A growing majority of private-sector sport organizations have since adopted a strategic approach to social involvement through supply chain codes of conduct and policies relating to, most notably, public transparency (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). As well, many teams now use social involvement to leverage new facility construction or stadium expansion to local residents and city officials (Horrow, 2008). Given that many social initiatives are grounded in the obligatory domain, participation by sport organizations in CSR broadens the legitimacy of sport in that, private-sector organizations have at least real interests, if not real obligations, in creating and sustaining a higher quality of life (Godfrey, 2009). Thus, there exists a variety of activities, intents, orientations, and targets within the sport industry; this is not surprising as this variation and the increase of social involvement also exist in other industries around the world (see Matten & Moon, 2008; Pirsch, Gupta, & Grau, 2007; Sasse & Trahan, 2007).

The popularity of social involvement in the academic literature (and in general) has pushed researchers to try to understand the related concepts of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC, highlighting differences in the implicit and explicit nature of the concepts depending on whether one is in the United States or in Europe (Matten & Moon, 2008), and differences in programs based on customer responses (Pirsch et al., 2007). Both of these approaches have merit in explaining part of the differences, thus it would be logical to combine them into a larger framework in order to better understand the nature of social involvement in sport. This would result in a classification framework centered on responsibility, responsiveness, and citizenship, but with the explicit acknowledgement of stakeholders (e.g., customers, targets); the increasing need for strategic stakeholder management in order to gain and/or sustain advantages held in the marketplace (cf. Harrison &

Freeman, 1999; Sasse & Trahan, 2007; Savage, Nix, Whitehead, & Blair, 1991); and the interactions with corporations and NGOs which were formerly to be considered “outside the game” who now influence social involvement (cf. Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Jenkins, 2005; Spar & La Mure, 2003).

4. Social responsibility, responsiveness, and corporate citizenship

The following section provides an overview of our key concepts, corporate social responsibility (CSR₁), corporate social responsiveness (CSR₂), and corporate citizenship.

4.1. Corporate social responsibility

Organizational managers increasingly encounter demands from multiple stakeholder groups to devote resources to what has been termed CSR₁. Being socially responsible means that an organization is responsible to adhere not only to economic, but also moral, ethical, and social standards, which are partially determined by stakeholder demands (cf. Carroll, 1979; David, Kline, & Dai, 2005; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001). CSR₁ is typically undertaken with the intent to improve an aspect of society or relationships with communities and/or nongovernmental organizations (NGOs; Waddock, 2004). To serve their many stakeholders, organizations often implement CSR₁ activities ranging from community enrichment and development programs to environmental initiatives (among a myriad of others).

Given the extensive literature on the role of CSR₁, it goes without saying that the concept is clearly a dynamic phenomenon (see Carroll, 1999); irrespective of its ambiguous nature and definitional inconsistencies (Lockett et al., 2006). Broadly conceptualized, CSR₁ is regarded as an organization's activities and status related to its perceived societal or stakeholder obligations (cf. Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). However, as Moon et al. (2005, pp. 433–434) argued, CSR₁ is a “... contested ... internally complex” concept having relatively open rules of application. As well, CSR₁ carries with it the moniker of being an “umbrella term” overlapping and being synonymous with other business-society concepts (Matten & Crane, 2005). According to Porter and Kramer (2006), proponents of CSR₁ have used four arguments to justify socially responsible activities: (1) moral obligation, (2) sustainability, (3) license to operate, and (4) reputation. These justifications have advanced CSR₁ thinking; however, none offers sufficient guidance for the difficult choices corporate leaders must make. Thus, the precise manifestation and direction of organizational responsibilities lie at the discretion of the corporation (Matten & Moon, 2008). Again, the term CSR₁ is defined by each group from its own perspective in order to meet its own aims (Kitchin, 2003). For example, public relations directors might characterize CSR₁ as reputation protection mechanism to mitigate scrutiny from activists seeking to discredit the organization; NGOs may view it as a way to preserve resources, foster humanitarianism, and create social/community capital; for governments, it is about sharing the burdens of economic, cultural, and social sustainability (Kitchin, 2003); for sport managers it means “greening” a sport facility or event, leveraging to win public favor for new construction projects, or fostering increased fan support (Walker & Kent, 2009). Thus, a lack of a common context for CSR is part of the debate about the convergence and divergence of organizational practices (Child, 2000), particularly in the sport industry.

4.2. Corporate social responsiveness

According to Arlow and Gannon (1982), the era of CSR₂ began in 1974, and was marked by corporations reacting to fundamental concerns about their role in society. Sethi (1975) regarded CSR₂ as the adaptation of corporate involvement to social needs considered to be anticipatory and preventive (see also Ackerman, 1973; Ackerman & Bauer, 1976). Murphy (1978) indicated that responsiveness was a more accurate term than CSR₁ as corporations had already recognized their responsibility (i.e., obligation) to society and began reacting to stakeholder demands in diverse ways. In contrast to the philosophical discourse of CSR₁, responsiveness is regarded as a managerial approach which shuns philosophy in favor of an organization's capacity to respond to social pressure (Frederick, 1994). Carroll (1979) followed by Wartick and Cochran (1985) advocated for responsive corporate motives to be broadly classified as reactive, defensive, accommodative, or proactive. Later, Wood (1991) re-conceptualized CSR₂ to include activities ranging from environmental assessments, to stakeholder management, issues management, and public relations management. CSR₂ is about the process and implementation of these activities, as Logsdon (2004) noted, as well as developing capabilities institutionalized across the organization related to boundary spanning functions (see Preston & Post, 1975), such as open dialogue, ethical business involvement, stakeholder relations and communication, public affairs, and issues management (Waddock, 2004).

According to Frederick (1994), CSR₂ is more pragmatically oriented than CSR₁ had been. As such, we deviate from the moral undertones of CSR₁ to a more proactive and accommodating position. CSR₂ activities have been described as being necessary strategic tools for gaining and sustaining a competitive advantage, as well as facilitating CSR₁ (Friedman, Parent, & Mason, 2004), and thus may be used in an instrumental (i.e., performance-focused, “methods”) or normative manner (i.e., manager willingness to accommodate social involvement, “the greater good”). Waddock (2004) maintained that CSR₂ was drawn from the experience of companies rather than from calls for more responsibility from scholars and activists. As a result, two sub-streams in the CSR₂ discussion have emerged: (1) the micro-organizational stream, which emphasized structural changes within the company to enable it to be more responsive to external issues (i.e., external affairs strategy; Miles, 1987); and (2) the macro-organizational stream, which focused on public policy spawning the shareholder revolution

(i.e., external affairs design; Miles, 1987) under the rhetoric of “shareholder first” advocated by the late Milton Friedman (1962, 1996). From this view, social responsiveness is intended to shift the emphasis away from social obligations towards social response processes. As such, CSR₂ is targeted at both the social contract and the moral agency of business.

4.3. Corporate citizenship

What makes the labels of “corporate social responsibility” and “corporate social responsiveness” different from “corporate citizenship”? Epistemologically, these terms seem correlated; pragmatically however, the underlying inference of the terms “responsiveness” and “responsibility” convey a sense of reminding business of something additional they *should* or even *must* do (cf. Matten et al., 2003; van Luijk, 2001). CC on the other hand, is said to highlight what the organization recaptures from society, solidifying its place next to other citizens, with whom the organization forms a community (cf. Logsdon & Wood, 2002; Windsor, 2001; Wood & Logsdon, 2001) and can therefore be regarded as the inter-linkage and mutual dependence of the organization and members of the community (Matten et al., 2003).

In a detailed review of CC, Matten and Crane (2005) argued that the term “citizenship” should move beyond being described as (1) a discretionary activity meant to build social and reputational capital, and (2) only comprising four aspects (i.e., economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic; cf. Carroll, 2000; Waddock, 2004; Windsor, 2001; Wood & Logsdon, 2001). Instead, the authors suggest that corporations should choose to set their own agenda based around being a “good corporate citizen” rather than blindly accepting the exhortations of academics and critics to become more “socially responsible” (Matten et al., 2003). Defined as “. . . the role of the corporation in administering citizenship [social, civil, and political] rights for individuals through provision, enabling, and channeling roles” (p. 173), it is clear that CC is very much driven by practitioners. While seemingly appropriate, this practitioner focus has precipitated some operational inconsistencies and debates about the nature and scope of CC.

At present, two sides have emerged in this debate—the *limited view* and the *equivalent view* (Matten & Crane, 2005). The limited view purports that CC is simply an extension of a lineage of work in the management literature conceptualizing the role of business in society (Carroll, 1999) and can be used interchangeably with CSR₁. Conversely, the equivalent view suggests that the business itself is part of the public culture and can expand its impact wherever business operations exist. Thus, CSR₁ is seen more as an external orientation and a moral obligation (Matten & Crane, 2005) while CC can be regarded as a cultural, legal, global, and embedded dimension of social involvement (Maignan et al., 1999). From this view, CC is an extension of CSR₁ & 2 as Carroll (1999) suggested; but when considering the nature of the businesses undertaking this type of social involvement, it seems clear that CC is a nationalistic and global framework rather than a localized and popular orientation—such as Nike undertaking human rights initiatives in the countries (e.g., Indonesia) where they conduct their manufacturing operations.

5. Methods

In order to begin distinguishing between and integrating the concepts of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC into a larger sport industry framework, we adopted a qualitative content analysis approach (see Berger, 2000; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) which is a systematic, non-obtrusive, and replicable technique for examining communication methods (Berger, 2000). Qualitative content analysis is appropriate when existing theory or research literature on a phenomenon is limited (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Hence, from this initial inquiry it should be possible to describe and draw theoretical inferences (i.e., analytical not statistical generalizability; see Yin, 2003) about sport organizations’ social involvement based on the posited indicators. Evidenced by previous research (e.g., Esrock & Leichty, 1998; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Pollach, 2005), content analyses dealing with social reporting have focused mainly on the types and content of messages directed to various publics. However, there is a lack of scholarship examining the content of what firms outside of *Fortune’s 500*, *Fortune’s Most Admired Companies*, and *Forbes’ Top 100* lists are actually saying and doing. In light of the interest in social involvement resulting from the recent wave of corporate malfeasance, along with the rise of large-scale social reporting, this research advances the social involvement literature in general, and the sport literature in this area, in particular.

5.1. Data collection and sampling

An essential stage in any content analysis study is deciding which documents are to be analyzed (Krippendorff, 1980). The proliferation of print media, television, and websites dedicated to sport makes it nearly impossible to closely follow an organization’s social discourse at all levels. Websites however, conveniently communicate the organizations’ understanding and recognition of social reporting and how it is applied to their associated activities (Brietbarth & Harriss, 2008). Websites also have several features as a specific mode for organizational self-presentations (Coupland, 2005). They are purposefully designed to present distinct characteristics to specific and diverse stakeholders (e.g., Insch, 2008; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; McWilliams, Siegel, & Teoh, 1999; Pollach, 2005) and over printed materials, they are superior in terms of costs, space, and availability (Pollach, 2005). Therefore, websites tend to serve active information seeking audiences rather than more passive publics who are reached via traditional mass media providing the organization an opportunity to “set the agenda” on public policy and other social issues (Esrock & Leichty, 1998). Finally, for a comparative analysis such as this, organizational websites offer one clear advantage—the remote study of organizations locally, nationally, and transnationally. Therefore,

Table 1
Coding for “Type” of social involvement.

Content areas	Operational definitions	
(CI)	Community involvement	Local community investments in areas needing improvement/betterment not classified as developmental, health or educational, or philanthropic
(CD)	Community development	Community construction projects to benefit the local area (e.g., parks, playgrounds, athletic fields, etc.)
(FB)	Fair business practices	Ethical practices which provide satisfaction to consumers and other stakeholders
(Co)	Conduct codes	Accepted behaviors to promote high standards of practice and establish a framework for professional behavior and responsibility
(WS)	Worker safety	Provide workplaces free from serious recognized hazards and fulfill compliance obligations with occupational safety and health standards
(CD)	Cultural diversity	Treating women and racioethnic minorities (i.e., racial/ethnic) equal to the white/Anglo majority of white males
(E)	The environment	Ensure limited environmental impacts from production, cleaning problem areas, recycling efforts, etc.
(P)	Philanthropy	A discretionary responsibility involving allocating slack resources to charitable or social service activities not business related (e.g., foundations, charities, etc.)
(YE)	Youth education	Programs directed at educating children (e.g., reading, teaching, mentoring, etc.)
(YH)	Youth health	Programs directed at child health and disease (e.g., obesity, drug prevention, healthy living, etc.)
(V)	Volunteerism	Practice of altruistically working on behalf of others without being motivated by financial or material gain

organizational websites were singled out as the unit of analysis in this research. Accordingly, this study investigated the types, orientation, and scope of social involvement activities in sport. Although the layout and style of websites vary considerably (with the exception of team websites which are fairly uniform), they represent an official presentation of companies' policies and practices as opposed to representing the interpretations of any one company official (Chapple & Moon, 2005).

The selection of organizations for a study of social involvement in the sport industry was a key methodological decision. In order to combine the representativeness and characteristics of the sport industry with the manageability of data gathering and analysis we used only large, recognizable organizations. The inclusion of nearly 100 organizations is something of an achievement far exceeding comparable studies in the general management literature (see Chapple & Moon, 2005). The website data was collected from a cross-section of teams, all six major sport leagues (and “league-like” entities) in the US (i.e., both individual and team), and various sport organizations (i.e., production-oriented, service-oriented, governing bodies, etc.) which were selected by operating revenue (according to Forbes' top 500 list), innovativeness (according to Fast Company, 2008), and by their international prominence in November 2008³. Census sampling was performed for the league data (as all leagues were analyzed; $n = 6$) while a simple random selection was performed from an exhaustive list of all teams residing in the respective leagues ($n = 61$) and selected organizations across many levels of the sport industry (total $N = 30$; nonprofit organizations, $n = 9$; product manufacturing organizations, $n = 16$; service organizations, $n = 5$).

5.2. Data analysis

Coding of social involvement was accomplished in three ways: (1) building on the typology provided by Walker and Kent (2009), each website was coded for the presence or absence of social involvement and each program was classified into one of 12 content areas (i.e., community involvement, community development, fair business practices, conduct codes, worker health and safety, cultural diversity, the environment, philanthropy, youth education, youth health, and volunteerism), other social issues were grouped into a general “other” category (see Table 1); (2) based on the presence of the social involvement activities in step one, the coders classified the general orientation of the activities using the definitions from three main literature streams (i.e., CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC see Table 2); and (3) the coders used scope indicators adopted from the work of Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, and Ganapathi (2007) to determine the reach of social involvement at the Micro (individual), Meso (organizational), Macro (country), or Supra (transnational) levels (see Table 3). In total, 97 websites were analyzed and all were found to clearly communicate many similar and distinct social initiatives. Many of the visited websites had links to outside subsidiary and partnering organizations (e.g., Surfrider Foundation, Make-A-Wish, United Way, etc.). However for the purposes of this study, only those links that had the same base URL as the organizational website were included in the analysis.

To reduce researcher bias, two independent coders were trained on the coding scheme and the operational definitions to acquaint themselves with the coding task. The two coders first determined whether all websites contained some form of social involvement. Holsti's (1969) formula was used to determine the reliability of the coding using 10% of the sample. In the coding pretest, reliability scores for individual occurrences ranged from 0.9 to 1.0. Any coding ambiguities were thoroughly

³ The data were collected prior to the financial crisis witnessed in the US in 2009. Thus, some of the charities, social initiatives/programs, etc., may or may not exist anymore or be as active as they were during the time data collection.

Table 2
CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC distinctions for coding social involvement.

CSR ₁	CSR ₂	CC
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moral motivation • Obligatory • Voluntary • Normative • Prescriptive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsive focus • Preventative and anticipatory • External affairs strategy • Manager directed • Proscriptive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community linkage • Cultural, legal, embedded • Individual citizenship rights • Social, civil, & political rights typically granted by government

Note. (CSR₁) Voluntary/discretionary relationships with its societal and community stakeholders.

(CSR₂) Explicit and forward looking action to deal with external constituencies and social/public policy issues.

(CC) Business rights/duties, stakeholder relationships, opportunities and challenges that accompany the global economy.

Table 3
Scope analysis for coding social involvement.

Individual level -micro-	Organizational level -meso-	National level -macro-	Transnational level -supra-
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values • Responsibility • Meaningful existence • Differentiation • Need for control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stakeholder interests • Values • Stewardship • Collective identity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social cohesion • Collective responsibility • Competitiveness • Interest alignment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social cohesion • Collective responsibility • Competitiveness • Power (scarce resources)

discussed and resolved, with the primary researcher being the final arbiter for reliability of the coding scheme. Agreement on the presence of social involvement reached 100% after the initial discussions, and 96% for categorizing the type of involvement prior to coding the full data set. Given the coding scheme's objective measures, the high level of inter-coder reliability and sample size, the coders divided the sample and coded each half separately.

As each of the two coders visited the assigned organizational website, the specific text section(s) detailing the organizations social involvement was archived in a spreadsheet. Next, the coder examined the orientation and level of the social reporting of each sport organization. Finally, the coders noted the number of reported activities and evaluated each in accordance with the coding scheme's measures (see Table 4). For the final analysis, inter-coder agreement for the presence of social involvement was 100%, and 96% for categorizing the type of initiative performed.

6. Results

While 97 organizational websites were used for the coding, the total number of nested webpages visited by the coders was 378 (nearly all of the websites have many subpages to describe the layers of their social involvement). Within these pages, the total number of initiatives documented was substantial ($N = 827$), with the individual organizational initiatives ranging from 2 to 17, with 89% of the sample presenting two or more social initiatives (see Table 5). In this section, we detail the results of the content analysis which emerged as a key differentiating trend between CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC.

6.1. Teams: a CSR₁ (responsibility) focus

The results of the analysis suggested that team-level social involvement included geographically focused initiatives in the forms of: athlete volunteerism, youth initiatives (e.g., health and education programs, shopping days for kids, back-to-school drives, toy drives, etc.), charitable donations (e.g., team, organization, individual/athlete, and foundation), community economic development (e.g., park construction, field refurbishing, house building—"Habijax", etc.), community initiatives (e.g., feed the hungry, "shirt off our backs" promotions, speaking engagements), fan appreciation (e.g., ethnic heritage days, kid's day or senior's day, fan appreciation day, autograph signings for terminally ill children, free parties, movie nights, and any event where the fan had to pay but the proceeds went to a charity or community organization), community-based environmental programs (e.g., Eagles "Go Green" initiative, "Packers Green Team", etc.), team-affiliate partner programs (e.g., Blue Cross Blue Shield "Champions Award"; Campbell's "Tackle Hunger", etc.), and free or sport-related initiatives for disadvantaged youth (e.g., training camps, free clinics, skills challenges, etc.). Other types of CSR₁ included: events for illnesses or diseases, clothing drives, recognizing players and coaches in the community, or recognizing athletes, coaches, or student-athletes that give back to the community and excel in sports and the classroom.

For the most part, teams give back to their communities in a number of non-monetary ways; however, charitable initiatives pervaded nearly all as well. A majority of the teams ($n = 56$) promoted their brand of social involvement through some type of team-based foundation (e.g., the Minnesota Vikings "Children's Fund", Detroit's "Redwings Foundation", and the Boston Celtics "Shamrock Foundation"), aimed at providing assistance to populations within their respective (local) communities. Two teams sampled (i.e., Colorado Rockies and Chicago Cubs) each have two team charities and the nearly all of the teams established their foundations in the team's name (e.g., [Anaheim] "Angel's baseball Foundation"). The emerging

Table 4
Examples of social involvement strategies in sport.

Sport organizations	Core mission(s)	Social orientations	Major initiatives
<i>Leagues</i>			
National Football League	P/CI/V/E	CSR ₂	United Way; NFL Charities (\$10 million annually)–Boy's and Girl's Clubs; NFL Youth Football Fund (\$150 million); NFL Tuesday's (players day off for volunteering in all NFL markets)
Major League Baseball	P/CI/V	CSR ₂	Boys and Girls Clubs (\$16 million since 1997); Baseball Assistance Team (BAT; support needy in all MLB markets); Baseball Tomorrow Fund (\$12 million since 1999)
National Hockey League	P/V/CI/E	CSR ₂	Hockey Fights Cancer (\$9 million since 1998); Hockey's All-Star Kids (1999; 30 NHL markets); Go Green
National Basketball Association	P/CD/CI/E	CSR ₂	NBA Cares (global community outreach–education, youth & family development, health-related causes); Basketball Without Borders; NBA Green
NASCAR	CI/CD/P/YH	CSR ₂	NASCAR Foundation (serving communities; supports 32 individual foundations); volunteer network; Drive for Diversity; NASCAR charities
Professional Golf Association Tour	CI/P/YH/YE	CSR ₁ /CSR ₂	Drive for a Billion (1938–2005; over 2000 individual charities); \$1 Billion more in the next 10 years (benefits all communities visited); "Giving Back" brand
<i>Teams</i>			
Philadelphia Eagles (NFL)	YH/YE/E/CI	CSR ₁ /CSR ₂	Eagles Youth Partnership" (1995; serves 50,000 low income families–health & educational opportunities in PA); "Go Green" campaign (environmental community initiative)
The Atlanta Falcons (NFL)	CI/YE/YH	CSR ₁ /CSR ₂	Atlanta Falcons Youth Foundation (1985 the largest team-funded foundation in the NFL; \$10 million in grants to nonprofit organizations across Georgia)
Arizona Diamondbacks (MLB)	CI/P/YH	CSR ₁	Arizona Diamondbacks Foundation (\$1.1 in 2006; homelessness, healthcare, and children's programs)
San Diego Padres (MLB)	P/YE/CD	CSR ₁	Padres Foundation (youth oriented philanthropy); Education–Padres Scholars; Recreation–Little Padres Parks
Tampa Bay Lightning (NHL)	CI/YE/YH	CSR ₁	Lightning Foundation (advance amateur hockey, educational enrichment for children, medical research, and treatment for those in need in the Bay area)
Toronto Maple Leafs (NHL)	CI/YE/YE	CSR ₁	Community Relations (Leafs @ School–enhance education through hockey; children's charity donations)
Boston Celtics (NBA)	P/YE/CI	CSR ₁	Shamrock Foundation (education and support for children); Red Auerbach Youth Foundation (enrichment of children through sport in the Boston area)
Toronto Raptors (NBA)	P/YE/YH/CI	CSR ₁	Raptors Foundation (at-risk children and youth–\$14 million since 1995 in Toronto); Community Relations Program educational and basketball development
Hendrick Motor Sports (NASCAR)	YH/P	CSR ₁	Hendrick Marrow Program (marrow donors); Hendrick Foundation for Children (funds charitable & educational organizations)
<i>Organizations</i>			
Nike	CD/P/E/FB/Co	CC/CSR ₂	Nike Foundation (reduce poverty and increase gender equality); \$315 million through 2011; \$5 million to Oregon charities in 2004; pays for employee volunteer service, and donates proceeds to area programs
Speedo	FB/WS/CI	CC	Focus on ethical sourcing, the environment, and supporting the community; committed to reducing the impacts on the natural environment.
Adidas Group	FB/Co/E/P	CC	Adi Dassler Fund (global financial and product contributions, employee volunteerism, sponsored-athlete support, and marketing assistance); environmental protection; Sustainability Performance Review
Aramark	CI/WS/E/CD	CSR ₂ /CC	Employee advocacy; environmental stewardship; health and wellness programs; basic human services, workforce readiness
Fortune Brands (Acushnet)	CD/CD/P	CC/CSR ₂	Corporate responsibility (Habitat for Humanity, volunteering in inner-city schools, funding programs to combat underage alcohol consumption, creating internship opportunities in partnership with the United Negro College Fund)
ESPN–ABC Sports	CI/P/CD	CSR ₂ /CC	A Better Community (Pro-social public service projects focused on compassion, volunteerism, learning and environmentalism)
AEG	P/CI/E	CSR ₂ /CC	Promotes foundations that focus on public service initiatives, community outreach, and volunteerism in the areas of learning, the arts, and the environment
Billabong International	E/Co/FB/CI	CC/CSR ₂	Committed to social accountability 8000–SA8000), environmental (carbon footprint), and ethical business practices (social governance, conduct codes)
International Olympic Committee	CD/FB/CI	CSR ₂	Olympic Movement (sustainable sport; contribute to building a peaceful and better world); human rights; environmental; integrity; participation
FIFA	CI/CD/YH	CC	Has moved from a <i>charitable giving</i> approach to a meaningful socially responsible, involved, and committed one; football for hope; win in Africa with Africa; developing the game

Note. (CI) Community involvement, (CD) Community development, (FB) Fair business practices, (Co) Conduct codes, (WS) Worker safety, (CD) Cultural diversity, (E) The environment, (P) Philanthropy, (YE) Youth education, (YH) Youth health, (V) Volunteerism.

Table 5
Frequency of reported social involvement.

Content areas	Total (%)	CSR ₁	CSR ₂	CC
Community involvement	75	64	21	15
Philanthropy	73	34	29	27
Youth education	68	68	28	3
Volunteerism	62	55	19	26
Youth health	61	61	29	14
Community development	42	29	12	59
Cultural diversity	36	23	37	40
Fair business practices	20	1	5	94
The environment	19	2	11	82
Worker health and safety	12	1	3	90
Conduct codes	10	0	8	86
Other ^a	6	67	3	12

Note. The total percentages are skewed because the majority of the organizations analyzed were teams which focus their social involvement towards the local/community level. Thus, this table is presented for analytical purposes only.

^a License plates, player's wives, military involvement, sustainability, disaster relief, disabled, blood drives, grow the game, humanitarianism, various other non-classifiable promotions, etc.

finding was that CSR₁ activities seemed to demonstrate an obligation to work for local community betterment. Following Marquis, Glynn, and Davis' (2007) community isomorphic model for social involvement, we define the sport firm's local community as the metropolitan statistical area (MSA) in which it was located, including the inner city and adjacent communities that have a high degree of economic and social integration (cf. Marquis, 2003; Stuart & Sorenson, 2003). On the basis of prior work and the results of the current study, we can assume a relatively high degree of interdependence among local community actors and the sport team's presence in the MSA (Marquis et al., 2007) as the immediate local community might be more salient than broader ones when implementing CSR₁ activities (Margolis & Walsh, 2003). To support this focus, a large majority of the teams referred to four main stakeholder groups: (1) community residents, (2) children, (3) fans, and (4) disadvantaged populations and among the reported initiatives, 76% mentioned the community, 68% mentioned the city, and 17% mentioned the county as the target areas for social involvement. This confirms our expectation that team initiatives are largely directed towards local stakeholders. As such, our findings buttress those of Walker and Kent (2009) who identified four conceptually distinct areas around which NFL teams centered their social involvement (i.e., community involvement, local philanthropy, and youth educational and health initiatives). However, inferences of the institutional mechanisms, costs incurred versus benefits accrued and moral undertones by which the activities were enacted cannot be drawn from this initial analysis.

In sum, the results suggested that teams implement different activities based on the core mission of their giving programs (which are largely focused in the area of CSR₁). Results from the analysis revealed that teams are likely to direct their activities locally (i.e., micro and meso-individual and organizational; Aguilera et al., 2007) and focus largely on CSR₁ with the exception of the Dallas Cowboy's who use the "process" of stakeholder engagement to elicit a more national presence (notably by way of their Thanksgiving day half-time support of the Salvation Army). Whether in the form of community involvement or philanthropic donations, it seems that teams targeted their giving and outreach toward the populations in and around their respective communities. By and large, the CSR₁ practices introduced by businesses were much narrower in scope than the processes of CSR₂ responsiveness conceptualized by Wood (1991).

6.2. Sport leagues: a CSR₂ (responsiveness) focus

Sport leagues (and league-like sport organizations) directed their social involvement activities by promoting their initiatives through affiliated charitable organizations (e.g., Boys and Girls Clubs of America and the United Way) and league-driven charitable initiatives (e.g., "Baseball Tomorrow Fund", "Hockey is for Everyone", "Read to Achieve"). The leagues also enacted programs in team communities and in the case of the NFL, legacy programs in Super Bowl host cities (e.g., "Youth Education Town's" and "Super Bowl Outreach"). For the NBA (who now posts a 38 page "NBA Cares" report on their website), nationwide community interactions were seen via their "Green" program, which entails working with local governments and non-profit green organizations to host creative programs geared to encourage environmentally friendly behaviors. Internationally, the NBA's global basketball development and community outreach program (i.e., "Basketball without Borders" in Africa, India, and Turkey) uses basketball to influence positive social change. They deviated from the micro-organizational orientation (cf. Ackerman & Bauer, 1976; Aguilera et al., 2007) of teams whose focus is on how a single entity may achieve significant levels of social impact through CSR₁. Leagues have taken a macro-organizational orientation activating CSR₂ to respond to the mounting concerns of their societal stakeholders (e.g., the NHL's "Hockey Fight's Cancer" and national "Green Partnership" initiatives). Perhaps the most telling example of a responsive stance is related to NASCAR's diversity issues. For years, scholars have noted the gendered and racialized practices that exist in the NASCAR environment, perpetuating a lack of diversity on the track, in the pits, in the front offices, and in the stands (cf. Cunningham, 2008; Derbyshire, 2003; Newman & Giardina, 2008). Despite billing themselves as "America's sport", NASCAR drivers, owners, and

crew members fail to mirror the demographics of the American population. Recognizing this dichotomy, NASCAR implemented several diversity-related programs and marketing initiatives to reconstruct their identity. The most recent program, the “Drive for Diversity” initiative (which began in 2004), was implemented with the purpose of developing minority drivers and crew members for NASCAR competition. Thus, responding to this social concern has engaged a greater number of stakeholders in their operations (Waddock, 2004), while instrumentally enhancing the organizations image.

Leagues, it appears, have taken into account the more practical aspects of making themselves and their member organizations more socially responsive to tangible forces in the surrounding environment (cf. Arlow & Gannon, 1982; Frederick, 1994). The leagues also mandate certain initiatives that each team must advance, examples of which include: the NFL’s “Hometown Huddle” (i.e., a service day all teams participate in every Tuesday during the season), the “NBA Cares” program (i.e., an umbrella program where the NBA, its teams, and players have committed to donating \$100 million to charity), and MLB’s “RBI” program (i.e., “Reviving Baseball in Inner Cities” youth outreach program). Additionally, the leagues oversee a wide range of charities, for example the NASCAR foundation which supports the charities created by members of the NASCAR family that benefit a wide variety of people and causes (e.g., “Dale Earnhardt Foundation”, “Speedway Children’s Charities”, “Victory Junction Camp”, etc.). Similarly, the PGA TOUR provides direct support to over 2000 individual charities around the country (e.g., “The First Tee”, “Teach for America”, “Make-A-Wish”, etc.). Based on these findings, we argue that for organizations who promote activities classified as CSR₂, network ties that facilitate inter-member social interactions could provide channels for the exchange of meaningful social involvement. Since the boundaries between network members are geographically porous (i.e., one team per city for a given league), the transfer of social involvement processes between members should take place more readily. As such, the leagues act to decentralize their brand of social involvement to promote stability, channels for knowledge exchange, action, and articulation of social goals to the member teams.

6.3. Companies, organizations, and governing bodies: a CC (citizenship) focus

For the most part, sport organization (i.e., companies and governing bodies) social involvement seems to cluster around CC. To this end, it was not surprising to find organizations with an extensive national and global consumer base (e.g., Billabong, Nike, Acushnet, etc.) and organizations that govern an international contingent (e.g., IOC, FIFA, International Rugby Board, etc.) direct their social involvement in this manner. These CC investments were seen in terms of employee commitment (e.g., Aramark’s employee advocacy program), legacy programs (e.g., the IOC’s “Olympic Movement” and FIFA’s “Football for Hope”), international recognition (e.g., the Adi Dassler Fund), sound business practices (e.g., Nike’s commitment to the “Fair Labor Standards Act”), and sustainability (see Tables 4 and 5).

CC activities are relegated to sport organizations whose focus is on either selling products or services to large consumer populations. The CC activities are designed to both combat societal ills (e.g., obesity programs, labor rights, and infectious disease) and improve the organizations’ sustainability (e.g., cultural outreach, social sustainability, and environmental programs) through global reputation management and national image brokering (i.e., “macro”-national and “supra”-transnational levels; Aguilera et al., 2007). While similar arguments can be made for CSR₁ & 2, CC activities seek a larger audience for their intended impact. For example, some production-centered organizations perform CSR₂ that have a larger geographical focus as described by the CC paradigm. Hillerich and Bradsby (i.e., Louisville Slugger) in support of their “Operation Slugger” program, took on a responsive focus teaming up with USA Cares (i.e., a worldwide charitable organization serving the military service members) to provide sporting goods equipment to US troops in Afghanistan and Iraq. Here, we focus on the “spatial issue” and the broader audience. While Louisville Slugger’s operations are centered in Kentucky (also recently in Japan) they are responding to a need and at the same time attaching themselves to a global outreach organization in USA Cares—facilitating both CSR₂ and CC paradigms. Also, it seems that these organizations see CC as related to “universal” ills, not geographic or context-specific issues (such as the need for a hospital in Africa). CC seems broader, that is—giving money to researchers to fight cancer rather than local treatment facilities, which would benefit the world and not just one particular area (such as Nike’s *Fair Labor Act* and the NHL’s *Hockey Fights Cancer* initiative).

7. Discussion

The clearest trend observed in our findings was a geographical basis for the concepts of CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC. Fig. 1 presents the concepts’ integrated framework, with associated impacts and outcomes, following our findings and their comparison to the literature, as described below.

7.1. Responsibility—CSR₁

Based on our analysis, we use the inner ring (CSR₁) to illustrate the first level of engagement—a localized, community-based focus (of teams) regarding their social agenda which is focused heavily on local philanthropy and community stewardship. For our study, CSR₁ implies that the rights that sport organizations demanded in society come with the obligatory and voluntary agreement to behave responsibly to avoid problems that would otherwise emerge. In practical usage, Waddock (2004) explained that CSR₁ has come to mean the “social” or “do-good” things that organizations perform. For example, collaborations and partnerships with local firms aimed at bettering the community in some way (e.g.,

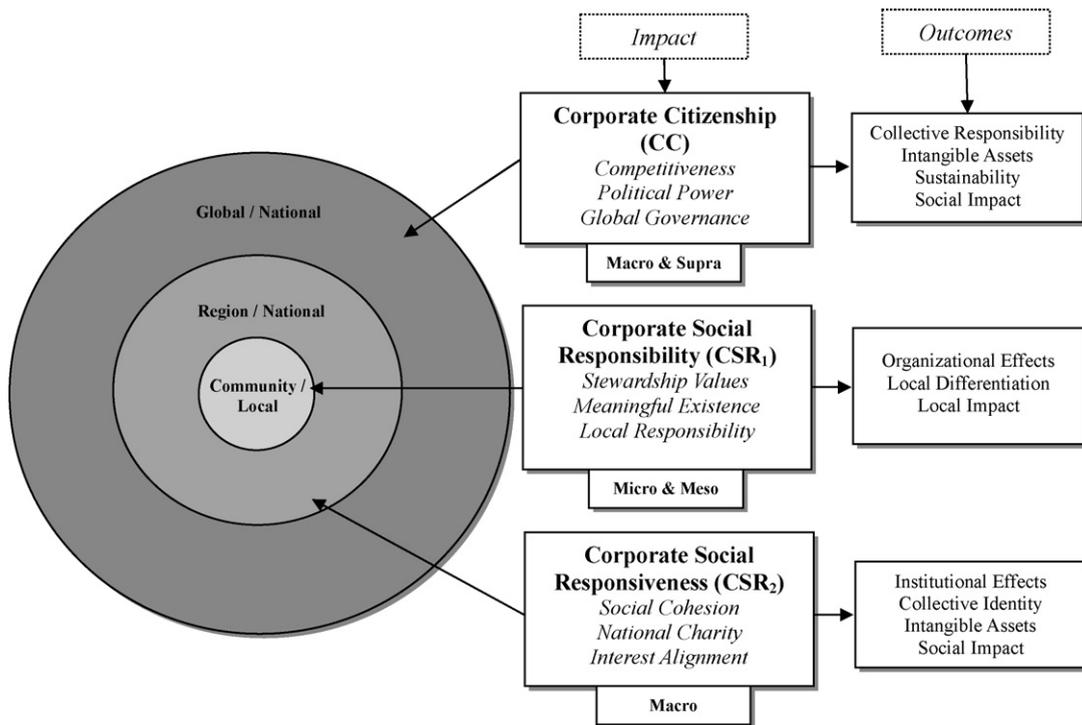


Fig. 1. Geographical focus of social involvement in sport.

community relations activities, philanthropic programs and strategies, and volunteer activities) can yield positive and immediate benefits. However, given the much-maligned local subsidization for professional sport (cf. Baade, 1988; Baade & Sanderson, 1997; Crompton, 2004; Noll & Zimbalist, 1997; Siegfried & Zimbalist, 2000), teams may feel pressured to offset some of the taxpayer expenditures for new stadiums, ballparks, and arenas with significant investments back to their respective communities. More pragmatically, research has also documented that CSR₁ activities are commonly oriented toward the locales in which a corporation's executives reside (see Galaskiewicz, 1997; McElroy & Siegfried, 1986). From this community isomorphic perspective, our findings support those of Walker and Kent (2009), who found that the majority of respondents felt that one of the sport teams' primary responsibilities was CSR₁, and also believed that teams needed to be concerned with additional responsibilities that benefit local community members. Based on current and previous findings, we argue that the teams' central place in the community and their associated visibility offer viable explanations for their engagement in localized and focused social involvement. Additionally, teams themselves are local businesses and CSR₁ provides a strategic way for them to increase visibility, attract new stakeholders, and build their reputations as Porter and Kramer (2002) suggested.

Based on our data, it appears that organizations engaging in CSR₁ activities focus on relationship building and meaning construction in the community. The local geographic community (i.e., MSA) as an immediate institutional environment thus serves both as a touchstone for legitimacy and as a target for social involvement, shaping both the nature and level of CSR₁ and influencing local understandings, norms, and rules (Marquis et al., 2007). Essentially, CSR₁ attempts to build and foster (through extended efforts) what Inkpen and Tsang (2005) referred to as *trust* but for the purpose of this discussion we will refer to as *relational capital*. Such relational capital can inform the choices made by teams to advance CSR initiatives. Essentially, embedded social ties based on trust and reciprocity are likely to promote and evoke social knowledge transfer and resources dedicated to community betterment (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005), which would help the sport organization differentiate itself from other organizations in the community, thereby leading to a competitive advantage.

7.2. Responsiveness—CSR₂

CSR₂ orientations were classified by Carroll (1979), philosophically, into four categories: reactive, defensive, accommodative, and proactive. While reactive organizations deny social involvement and do less than is required by society's standards, proactive businesses anticipate future responsibilities and act beyond minimal requirements (Maignan et al., 1999), which is what we seem to find within the data. Therefore, taking into account the mechanisms, procedures, arrangements, and behavioral patterns that, collectively, make the organization more capable of responding to social

pressures allows for a greater understanding of the “organizational processes” that Frederick (1994) and Wood (1991) articulated. It may be that organizational design, positioning, managerial competence (and influence), and other institutional influences all play an important role in how extensively and moreover, how well an organization responds to social demands and needs (cf. Frederick, 1994; Matten & Moon, 2008). Hence, CSR₂ refers to the capacity of sport leagues to respond to the social pressures placed on them by society to demonstrate their willingness to move into a much larger arena than the teams evaluated here. Thus, in the sport industry at least, capacity seems to dominate the CSR₂ definition thereby specifying the process and implementation perspective defined by Matten et al. (2003). It appears that by taking on a more systemic network-oriented perspective for social involvement (i.e., through collaboration and alliances) allows for the leagues to create new contexts, new values, and new ways of thinking about social involvement, some of which can today be seen emerging in practice (e.g., MLB’s partnerships with the Boys and Girls Clubs of America (BGCA), the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA), National Urban League, and the Jackie Robinson Foundation).

The middle ring presented in Fig. 1 represents the secondary level of social involvement as the organizations fostering this orientation can become change agents through their ability and capacity to respond to the societal demands in the institutional environment. Preston and Post (1975) referred to the ability to respond to such demands as boundary spanning mechanisms (i.e., bridge between corporate activities and external constituencies). These responsive practices give sport leagues the ability to shift the emphasis away from social obligations towards social response processes, therefore confirming the propositions offered in the literature (cf. Frederick, 1994; Waddock, 2004; Wood, 1991). The concern however, is whether CSR₂ is a valid replacement for CSR₁. If responsiveness replaces responsibility in management thinking, some of the most important questions of social involvement might be lost. First for instance, to replace CSR₁ with CSR₂ deemphasizes concerns of business ethics and social *irresponsibility*. CSR₂ tends to be largely influenced by social norms, thereby resulting in ethical problems and irresponsible actions without public outcry (Wartick & Cochran, 1985). Second, while CSR₁ requires continual evaluation of the relations between corporate objectives and societal objectives, CSR₂ does not. As a result, CSR₂ by itself is likely to lead to reaction rather than the proaction that many advocates of CSR₁ call for (Wartick & Cochran, 1985). This rationale could explain why the leagues also promote the CSR₁ activities of their member organizations. Essentially, the collective identification of the league is composed of teams’ CSR₁ activities and leagues’ additional CSR₂ activities/processes that reinforce the commitment of the league to their major league cities.

7.3. Citizenship–CC

As mentioned, CSR₂ could be located on a continuum ranging from proactivity to reactivity we argue however that the same can be said for CC. While the proactive form of CC is notable and may lead to increased levels of commitment, loyalty, and performance as Maignan et al. (1999) suggested, the more prevalent reactive form has been highlighted by organizations donating funds or constructing codes of conduct in the wake of scandal, disaster, insensitivity, or discrimination. For example, the 1990s saw upheaval in the labor standards of several apparel companies in and outside of the sport industry. Nike, together with Levi Strauss, became one of the earliest adopters of conduct codes on labor rights with suppliers (cf. CEP, 1998; Van Tulder & Kolk, 2001) after finding themselves in an uproar of controversy following allegations of sub-par working conditions and women’s and child labor issues. In these instances, CC seems to have been adopted as a recovery strategy to win back public favor, but has somehow translated into a proactive agenda that spans activities focused on the environment, international involvement, diversity, global conduct, and corporate financial reporting.

The outer ring presented in Fig. 1 represents the third level of social involvement as the organizations fostering this orientation can be seen as agents of change having the unique ability to promote national and global “social impact” (Porter & Kramer, 2006) through their agendas. Gardberg and Fombrun (2006) noted that large companies accrue enlarged responsibilities to their external stakeholders as they foster their role as global citizens, resulting in activities that lead to organizational sustainability through intangible asset creation. At the same time though, CSR₁ and CSR₂ may also lead to sustainability as the temporal nature of the activation increases (i.e., from short to long-term). Essentially, what Fig. 1 illustrates is that as an organization moves to the outer circles, a competitive advantage (i.e., patronage intentions, brand image, and reputation) can be gained. When they reach the highest level—a sustainable competitive advantage (i.e., financial gains + image and reputation, versus just a financial advantage) may accrue. However, their performance at this level is not a matter of exclusivity. Organizations performing CSR₂ are likely to also perform CSR₁ at a local level, and organizations performing CC are likely to also perform CSR₁ and CSR₂. For example, Nike has long been an industry leader in global initiatives (e.g., labor relations and the environment–CC), but also performs national initiatives (e.g., “Let me Play”–CSR₂), and localized efforts in Portland, Beaverton, and Hillsboro schools (e.g., “School Innovation Fund”–CSR₁).

Informing this idea is the third network of Inkpen and Tsang’s (2005) social capital framework—“cognitive”. We followed Tsai and Ghoshal (1998) using the term “shared vision”, which embodies the collective goals and aspirations of the organization. This shared vision provides similar perceptions of how the organization should interact with the community promoting mutual exchanges of ideas and resources (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Thus, a shared vision for social involvement can be viewed as a mechanism that helps to differentiate the organization from its counterparts and integrate social knowledge, awareness, and above all social impact as part of the overall mission.

8. Conclusions, future directions, and limitations

This study illustrates that sport teams, leagues, and organizations are very active in reporting their social involvement on the Internet. Larger organizations operating in an international context tend to focus on global workforce, human rights, and environmental (i.e., mainly production centered firms) issues, while teams and leagues appear to focus on more localized (i.e., community-directed) efforts. Given the active role historically played by sport teams and leagues in the communities in which they reside, it is quite logical that these organizations depict social involvement processes in terms of philanthropic programs and community outreach. Similarly, the social involvement programs most commonly discussed by teams and leagues were those linked to the community, quality of life, and education. From our data, several other interesting points have emerged. First, there appears to be a trend to imitate social involvement strategies among many of the organizations sampled (i.e., the institutionalization of social involvement strategies to promote organizational legitimacy, DiMaggio & Powel, 1983). For example, team foundations, league support of various national charities, and global organizations promoting “green” and sustainability initiatives are among the most notable. Second, due to the increased demand for business transparency and reporting (see Hooghiemstra, 2000), many firms now publish additional sustainability and social responsibility reports on their websites (e.g., NBA, Nike). Third, production-centered organizations initiate social involvement processes aimed at reducing the negative impacts of their activities on the environment (e.g., sustainability practices such as Billabong’s support of the Surfrider Foundation), worker rights (e.g., Nike’s support of the Fair Labor Standards Act), philanthropy, and conduct codes. Lastly, service-centered organizations tend to focus on diversity, philanthropy, and volunteerism initiatives (e.g., International Speedway Corp’s focus on employee citizenship).

We contribute to the literature by arguing that a missing link in the definitional and positioning debates is the failure to recognize the divergent practices and approaches to social involvement enacted by organizations operating at various levels. We illustrated that CSR₁ is concerned with more locally focused programs as an obligation to members of the community, while more instrumental and socially impactful activities (i.e., partially due to stakeholder considerations) can be regarded as CSR₂ and CC. Of course, CSR₁ activities can and are likely instrumental, but CSR₂ and CC activities have a higher degree of instrumentalist impact on a wider range of stakeholders. This reinforces our assertion that social orientations could be placed on a continuum – they are not mutually exclusive – given that organizations who undertake CC are likely to undertake CSR₂ and CSR₁, and organizations undertaking CSR₂ activities are likely to undertake CSR₁ activities. Fig. 2 illustrates this idea and integrates our previous theorizing related to CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC, the altruistic-instrumental debate, and the suggested outcomes. We notably found that balancing both altruistic and instrumental reasons for social involvement would lead to greater benefits in terms of gaining and sustaining a competitive advantage. We also follow Matten and Moon (2008) in acknowledging the impact of the institutional environment (or field) on social involvement activities and their outcomes. Fig. 2 illustrates that the localized nature of CSR₁ activities can assist an organization in gaining a competitive advantage; however, as the organization increases its reach using CSR₂ and CC activities, it can sustain that competitive advantage. This suggestion however, warrants further study to determine if and when the idea of a continuum actually applies.

In addition, we concur with the assertions by Matten and Moon (2008) who acknowledged the impact of the institutional environment (or field) on social involvement. Thus, in order for CSR₁, CSR₂, and CC to be practicable and actionable within a

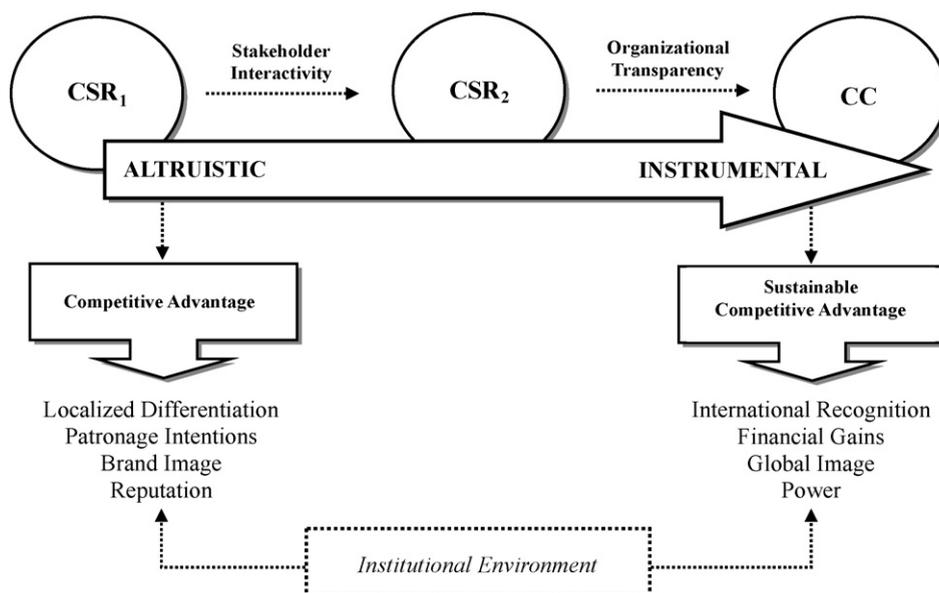


Fig. 2. A proposed continuum of civic involvement.

business agenda, they need to be identified in terms of their orientations, scope, and perhaps even their altruistic/normative and instrumental undertones. Otherwise, these concepts become muddled under the umbrella notion of “responsibility,” and scholars will continue to dwell in the realm of abstract theorizing without yielding beneficial and practicable outcomes (cf. Garriga & Mele, 2004; Matten & Crane, 2005). As such, our findings offer a new perspective on social involvement—one which is geographically contingent.

In light of our reported findings, we do recognize several limitations to the analysis procedures used in this study, we offer four in particular. First, we should note that we based our analysis on self-reporting of activities by organizations (i.e., auto-communication) and recognize the potential biasing of this information. For this query, we were interested only in establishing a framework for the type, orientation, and level of social reporting in the sport industry. In subsequent analyses, we will endeavor to compare what a company says it does versus what it actually does. Second, the social reporting of the organization may not actually reflect the social policies and practice of the organization. On one hand, organizations may exaggerate the performance or impact of the initiative. Thus, the reporting of these activities may serve as an organizational positioning tool related to marketing and reputational branding strategies (Chapple & Moon, 2005). Given the visibility of many sport organizations to public scrutiny, there may even be an added incentive for social reporting. Thus, future research should examine the actual impacts of sport organizations' social responsibility activities. Third, many of the organizations analyzed promoted a “portfolio” of social initiatives directed towards a varying range of stakeholders, for example, investors, actual and potential employees, NGOs, or business customers. Thus, the level of reporting might actually be based on the audience for which the initiative was intended to serve and therefore be displayed more prominently on the webpage. Fourth, while we offer analytical generalizability (i.e., back to theory, see Yin, 2003), our findings may be unrepresentative of local, national, and transnational business patterns because only small samples of the existing sport organizations are being analyzed. As well, only large organizations with extensive stakeholder ties were used in the analyses. Future work should transpose our model to local businesses with less extensive network ties to bolster support for the correlation between geographical orientation and the levels of social involvement. We therefore, suggest that future research test our proposed framework with a more extensive sample to determine statistical generalizability.

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