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TRANSNATIONALISM: OFFSHORE
PRODUCTION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

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Sustainable capitalism or ethical transnationalism: Offshore production and economic development[☆]

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Abstract

Multinational firms are increasingly facing pressures from consumer groups and activists to become more socially responsible. These pressures include calls for more environmentally safe production, improved labor conditions, and fair trade among transnational subsidiaries. While some describe the effects of globalization and the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) movement as ratcheting up transnational social standards, others claim that these efforts merely serve as a legitimizing mechanism of global capitalism, which sustains unequal distributional effects under the rhetoric of human rights.

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1. Introduction

In this article, I argue that the duality between the two rival ideas of social responsibility and global mobility is largely false. For example, in the field of labor and employment regulation, the debate about the effects of globalization of labor standards must be approached with a more complex lens. While some contexts of globalization have undermined national industrial relations systems and eroded labor protections causing a global race to the bottom, other developments have had positive effects on the mobility and opportunities of labor. These latter forces have created competitive pressures to ratchet up production processes and work conditions and have pushed forward skills, training and economic development. Importantly, the mere

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debate about globalization – is it good or bad? – is largely archaic. Scholars of trade and the international and transnational political economy must recognize that the train of globalization has already left the station. Similarly, the idea that we can choose between forms of activism and regulation, between public legal regimes and voluntary private initiatives, or between domestic and international norms, is misleading. Most legal regimes are composed of public and private norms. The task then, for students of globalization and human rights, is to produce more nuanced analysis of mechanisms, incentives, and strategies for promoting social standards.

In the following sections, I offer some observations from my studies of labor standards and multinational corporations (MNCs), as well as my studies of employment law and work regulation in various legal systems. I argue that these often-false ideological left/right dichotomies in the controversies surrounding globalization and human rights impede our abilities to find common grounds and apply lessons about socially responsible global production. A primary example for this is the choice between hard and soft strategies for regulation. There is a range of different frameworks and mechanisms with which the question of global standards can be approached. These include conventional domestic law, through court litigation or administrative regulatory enforcement, international law, human rights non-governmental activism, and transnational labor networks. Supplementing conventional legal protections, an emerging school of thought within the legal academy argues that distinct from the approach of formal domestic and international laws in attempting to prevent a race to the bottom, there can be an effective framework for promoting labor practices that seeks to promote a “race to the top,” through privatized, softer approaches to work standards (Lobel, 2004; Sabel, Fung, & O’Rourke, 2001). This framework favors the adoption of “best practices” that will raise labor standards and create a positive spill over from multinational corporations to domestic firms.

The Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) movement demands that corporations, because of their dominance as global institutions, address social and environmental problems around the world. Increasingly, as a response to public pressure from consumers, investors, unions, and NGOs, corporate codes of conduct are voluntarily adopted by MNCs. The main criticism, however, of these approaches is ineffective implementation, the absence of monitoring, and lack of incentives to comply. Yet, as law and society scholars have shown in various contexts, legal strategies must be understood as part of a dynamic and complex set of strategies, from both the public and private sectors, which bring about social change. In the following sections, I will demonstrate these complexities by looking at two paradigmatic examples for the push for Corporate Social Responsibility: the apparel industry during the 1990s and the mass-retail industry at the beginning of the 21st century.

Both contexts teach us that the past decades have seen significant changes in the types of demands the human rights community can make on the business community. By comparing the 1990s with 21st century activism, I will offer observations on the transformations in the scope of legitimate practices in the global arena and describe the frontiers of transnational social justice. In particular, I will demonstrate these developments through two paradigmatic corporations that have been the target of human rights investigation, media attention, litigation, grassroots consumer action: Nike and Wal-Mart.

2. From intentional ignorance to reactive declarations

While during the 1980s firms routinely responded to challenges by human rights activists with dismissal, using legal constructs to defer responsibility, recent years have seen a change in attitude and a broadening of legitimate claims over corporation. In the first stage, throughout the

75
76 1990s, it is useful to observe the struggles surrounding the Nike Corporation as a paradigmatic
77 player in the apparel industry. Today, unlike only several decades ago, the large majority of
78 apparel manufacturing is global. The change in production patterns has been dramatic. As late as
79 the 1960s, only 4% of the clothes sold in the United States were imported. Since the turn of the
80 century, imports account for over 60% of distributed products. In some areas, such as the apparel
81 industry, imports are over 90% of the total products. As a result, workplaces across the globe are
82 increasingly intensely connected by contractual and subsidiary ownership links.

83 A key development has been a shift in the responses of companies to reports linking them with
84 abusive practices around the world. As late as the early 1990s, it was still a common practice and
85 was considered legitimate for a multinational to respond to critiques about labor standards by its
86 subsidiaries by explaining that the multinational did not own the manufacturing companies. A
87 CEO felt comfortable to simply state “we have no knowledge or responsibility of their
88 practices.” Indeed, the incentive was to *know less* rather than more about subsidiaries. Surveys of
89 chief executives of multinationals indicated that they pervasively did not know who and how
90 many subsidiaries are involved in manufacturing their products. By the late 1990s, this was no
91 longer considered a valid strategy. As a result of the combination of pressures from consumers,
92 NGOs, governments and the media, global and visible firms in the apparel industry moved to
93 declarations about efforts to improve their practices and monitor their subsidiaries. Therefore,
94 when Nike was sued in California by an activist named Kasky for false advertisement under
95 California consumer protection laws, the action was already enabled by Nike’s response to
96 grassroots activism through a Corporate Social Responsibility public relations campaign (Kasky,
97 2002).

98 Viewed in this light, a central critique of using litigation strategies in such cases is that the
99 effects are counter productive. The concern is that litigation halts the positive cooperation
100 between civil society-business and the move to increased transparency by the MNCs. For
101 example, in reaction to the law suit against Nike in the Californian courts, the Nike Corporation
102 reacted by removing manufacturing information from its website, so as not to be open to
103 increased challenges by consumers. In the long run, despite this valid concern about counter
104 productive effects, it is the market effects and in particular, consumer and investor consciousness
105 on human rights issues that are likely to have the greatest impact. There is no doubt that there
106 have been critical achievements in this direction. Empirical studies indicate that a majority of
107 consumers are willing to pay for fair labor standards and environmental responsibility (New
108 Marymount University Survey, 1999). Yet, such willingness is limited in its depth and breadth,
109 namely, it will only be significant when the product includes a brand name and when consumers
110 are able to process the information about corporate processes. Consumer movements, therefore,
111 can only complement, rather than replace, the actions of investors, labor unions, governments,
112 and international organizations. A key issue for researching the connections between social
113 activism and Corporate Social Responsibility is thus the divisions of labor among these
114 transnational actors and the relative strength of each.

115 A second key aspect of the struggles of private consumer activism is the push for more
116 nuanced campaigns. Rather than demanding from corporations to pull out of countries that abuse
117 human rights, there is increasingly a demand for engaging in improvements within a problematic
118 region. In the beginning of the 1990s, companies would simply cut off their connections with
119 subsidiaries and entire countries because of findings of abusive practices. Today, there is more of
120 a demand for staying in the developing country and building the needed infrastructure for
121 responsible production. For example, the Nike Corporation, in collaboration with local NGOs
122 has been developing initiatives to redirect the children from child labor to educational programs

122 funded by the corporation. A broader-based initiative is that launched by the World Federation of
123 the Sporting Goods Industry (WFSGI), an international association of sports apparel industry,
124 founded in 1978, which includes such corporations as Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, and
125 Puma. Since the mid 1990s, the WFSGI has been increasingly involved in questions of fair trade
126 and ethical production. In 1995, WFSGI established a Committee on Ethics and Fair Trade
127 (CEFT). The committee has commissioned independent monitoring and reports on the problem
128 of child labor.

129 In this context, the problem of ethical conduct is complicated by massive subcontracting. Yet,
130 the practice of shutting down production or pulling out from countries known to employ children
131 in manufacturing has been that the bottom line result is an adverse effect on these countries. For
132 example, children who are eliminated from production processes in the apparel industry were
133 found to be pushed into more risky and exploitative industries. Following this lesson, the WFSGI
134 reacted by an increased commitment to the provision of educational settings for these children. In
135 1997, the industry's central MNCs, in cooperation with the International Labor Organization
136 (ILO), agreed to participate in an educational program for eliminating child labor in Pakistan.
137 The program includes a mechanism for independent monitoring, including surprise inspections,
138 as well as transitional schooling for displaced children and micro-credit loan plans for families.
139 The program has had recognized achievements, including a robust participation by local
140 manufacturers in Pakistan. As a result, WFSGI reports that 95% of Pakistani export production in
141 the sports goods industry is regularly monitored and certified as free of child labor (Gorgemans,
142 2005).

143 The WFSGI–CEFT has been recently renamed the Corporate Social Responsibility
144 Committee, and in early 2005 has held an international meeting in Shanghai, China to discuss
145 extending its approach to child labor elimination to other human rights issues in global
146 production. The lessons of this initiative are that economic development is unlikely to be
147 achieved through single sided boycotts, but rather through an ongoing commitment to
148 improvement and cooperation.

149 3. Retailing under pressure

150 In the 1990s had Nike as the symbol of corporate misconduct in offshore production, at the
151 beginning of the 21st century it is the Wal-Mart Corporation that is the new nemesis of
152 transnational labor activists. Wal-Mart has made aggressive approaches to cost reduction on all
153 fronts its trademark business technique. It therefore uses similar tactics in its relations with its
154 employees domestically here in the US as with its suppliers abroad. In fact, Wal-Mart – the
155 world's largest retailer and American service employer – should also be understood as one of the
156 world's largest manufacturers. In other words, it is more accurate to understand Wal-Mart as a
157 maker of goods as well as a retailer, which employs tens of thousands of workers around the
158 world through subcontracting to manufacture the goods in a specified low cost. The common
159 practice of the corporation is to pressure its suppliers to continuously lower their prices. These
160 aggressive strategies are inevitably also an export of management practices. Wal-Mart exerts
161 pressures on manufacturers around the world dictating outsourcing, lowering labor and
162 environmental standards, eliminating jobs, avoiding unionization, increasing work hours, and
163 decreasing pay and benefits (Cleeland et al., 2003). In addition to purchasing products from other
164 brand manufacturers, Wal-Mart produces private-label apparel in about 50 countries around the
165 world. As journalist Charles Fishman describes, Wal-Mart's suppliers must “turn themselves into
166 shadow versions of Wal-Mart itself.” Viewed in this light, Wal-Mart operates very similarly to
167

167 apparel brands but on a larger scale and with more aggressive tactics. For example, when in 2003,
168 the jeans and clothing manufacturer Levi Strauss entered into an agreement with Wal-Mart to
169 become a supplier, it needed to develop a new less expensive line. Levi Strauss's sales and profits
170 increased but it also closed its last two remaining US factories, laying off 2500 workers (21% of
171 its workforce) (Fishman, 2003). The case of Levis is a particularly telling case because Levis was
172 known for many years as a uniquely socially responsible corporation in the clothing industry.

173 Globally, Wal-Mart has recently moved its purchasing headquarters to China, demanding
174 strong anti-union tactics from its suppliers. An irony for human rights activists is that even though
175 Chinese labor unions are often deemed a sham by Western commentators, because of their
176 relative subversion to government and corporations, Wal-Mart is demanding their elimination.
177 Wal-Mart insists on union free environments despite the relatively slim power attributed to
178 Chinese unions. In 2005, the Chinese Government and the All China Federation of Trade Unions
179 (ACFTU) threatened to bring legal action against Wal-Mart for its practices of harassing and
180 firing workers trying to organize and for violations of wage and overtime laws. To understand the
181 magnitude of the effects of Wal-Mart management policies on the Chinese labor market, it is
182 helpful to point out that in the past decade, Wal-Mart has had purchasing power in China that has
183 exceeded all but seven countries. In other words, if Wal-Mart was a country, it would be China's
184 eighth largest trading partner (Jingjing, 2004).

185 Activists contemplating ways in which to struggle for more responsible practices by Wal-Mart
186 have cited antitrust principles to make claims against the corporation. In particular, the theory of
187 predatory pricing – the practice of pricing goods below cost and incurring a loss in order to reduce
188 or eliminate competition – can help frame the pressures Wal-Mart exerts on its suppliers. In the
189 United States, similar to many other legal regimes, predatory pricing is an illegal anti-
190 competitive practice (Brooke Group v. Brown & Williamson Tobacco, 1993; Crane, 2005).
191 However, the legal prohibition has been rarely used and is unlikely to gain much legal teeth in the
192 context of global retail. More likely, the economic theory of predatory pricing can be used as a
193 conceptual tool for situating the degree of control Wal-Mart can have over subcontractors, as well
194 as a way of showing that pricing must be formulated in a way that takes into account production
195 costs. If a retailer is demanding continuous reduction of supply costs, there is a tipping point in
196 which suppliers can no longer produce in compliance with labor and environmental regulations.
197 For example, if a subcontractor manufacturing jeans in Vietnam faces a demand to further reduce
198 costs when it is already paying no more than minimum wage to its manufacturer, further cuts are
199 most likely to come at the price of violating minimum wage laws. Using the framework of
200 economics for the service of human rights activists is a useful development in an area where
201 economists are traditionally aligned with businesses. Corporate Social Responsibility
202 movements are increasingly recognizing that demonstrating their claims through calculations
203 and hard numbers is a powerful mechanism to make their point. Another example is that of the
204 growing focus on statistically-based arguments in the debate on how Wal-Mart's labor practices
205 are taking a toll on public welfare programs. A congressional report from last year shows that
206 Wal-Mart salaries are on average below the American federal poverty line. As a result, workers
207 must rely on public welfare and health provision, allowing Wal-Mart to shift social costs to the
208 taxpayers (Miller Report, 2004). Economic studies now describe the “Wal-Mart effect” of
209 *community-wide* poverty rates, finding that counties with more Wal-Mart stores experienced
210 greater increases in family poverty rates during the 1990s. One explanation the researchers have
211 offered is that “Wal-Mart stores destroy civic capacity in the communities in which they locate
212 by driving out local entrepreneurs and community leaders” (Goetz & Swaminathan, 2004).
213 Another economic study compares Wal-Mart's business practices with those of its competitor,
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215 Costco. In 2004, *Business Week* reported that because of the fact Costco pays its workers much
216 higher wages than Wal-Mart, Wall Street financial analysts predict lower gains for Costco. The
217 report indicates that such analysis may be severely flawed. “Surprisingly, however, Costco’s
218 high-wage approach actually beats Wal-Mart at its own game on many measures. *Business Week*
219 ran through the numbers from each company to compare Costco and Sam’s Club, the Wal-Mart
220 warehouse unit that competes directly with Costco. We found that by compensating employees
221 generously to motivate and retain good workers, one-fifth of whom are unionized, Costco gets
222 lower turnover and higher productivity. Costco actually keeps its labor costs lower than Wal-
223 Mart’s as a percentage of sales. Put another way, the 102,000 Sam’s employees in the US
224 generated some \$35 billion in sales last year, while Costco did \$34 billion with one-third fewer
225 employees” (Greenhouse, 2005; Holmes & Zellner, 2004).

226 Most importantly, the business world has moved a long way in the past several decades. The
227 case of Wal-Mart again indicates that the times when a corporation could respond to claims about
228 human rights abuses by distancing its central organization from other parts in the production
229 chain, whether outsourced or decentralized, have passed. No longer do corporations view a
230 legitimate response to be “this practice is not our problem, it is our manufacturer/supplier/
231 subcontractor that you should go after; and we lost (or never had) their address.” Even Wal-
232 Mart’s has recently launched an expensive public relations campaign to signal its willingness to
233 improve and to contribute social responsibility in the regions where it operates. Campaigns that
234 demand consumers’ and investors’ “Right to Know” have increased economic transparency and
235 have instituted non-governmental organizations that monitor and compare MNCs. In turn,
236 multinationals increasingly make demands for regulatory compliance from their suppliers.

237 4. Lessons and caveats

238 While CSR campaigns that have focused on paradigmatic MNCs – Nike in the 1990s and Wal-
239 Mart in the 2000s – have had positive effects, there are disadvantages of using iconic corporate
240 symbols to attain larger goals. Activists risk reducing the message of human rights to the single
241 context of a specific firm. Anti-sweatshop and social responsibility campaign should beware of
242 making the icon into the singled out exceptional target. As such, Nike in the 1990s often became
243 the sole focus of consumers, losing site of the greater goal of economic development and social
244 responsibility. While Nike products were often produced under exploitative conditions, other
245 corporations, remaining below consumers’ radar, were also pervasively involved in such
246 conditions. Similarly, the choice of abusive practices against which to struggle has proven a
247 continuous challenge. For example, the focus on child labor risks obscuring the difficult work
248 conditions all workers face in certain manufacturing plants. Finally, an important lesson that
249 grows from a bird’s eye exploration of recent decades of transnational production is the linkages
250 between North and South countries. In the past, the human rights movement has been understood
251 to universalize social consciousness, yet much of the critique against a unified movement has
252 been the conceptual and economic gaps between Northern and Southern regions. Often, activists
253 from developed countries feared they would be understood as protectionist if they demanded
254 higher production standards for developing countries.

255 The context of Wal-Mart illuminates how a North/South divide is too simplified in several
256 ways. First, the intense competition for development today occurs in effect among developing
257 countries themselves. Wal-Mart’s demand for lowered production costs in fact pits factories in
258 developing countries in Asia against each other, primarily India against China and both these two
259 larger countries against smaller nations such as Vietnam, Bangladesh, and Taiwan. Second, even

when jobs are not outsourced, the constant threat of the possibility of outsourcing creates downward pressures around the globe. The ability to move around the world means, for example, that anti-union tactics are quite easily employed. Once successful union efforts are identified in one worksite, a company can quickly move to shut down the plant and relocate. This means that workers are less likely to attempt organization in the first place. A third way in which North/South divides are challenged by today's realities is the growing existence of underground economies in developed countries. Globalization has meant not only capital flow from developed to developing countries, but also rapid migration flows from the developing countries to developed countries. As a result, global metropolitans experience informal sectors that are often described as “the third world within the first,” where exploitative employment practices are common.

These realities of globalization and transnational networks present however not only challenges but also opportunities. The social responsibility campaigns, which have linked between low prices and unfair social practices allow consumers, investors, workers, and community organizers to find common ground for broad-based alliances. Moreover, the Internet offers a new frontier for social responsibility, both by allowing greater transparency and by reducing barriers of access and entry into social activism. The greatest challenge is to ensure that cooperative initiatives have long-term effectiveness and staying power in a global setting. The expanding commitment to the concept of a ‘Triple Bottom Line’ – financial, social, and environmental performance – promises to engage governments, industries, and civil societies in finding the fine balance between financial profitability and key social and environmental goals.

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