

Critical Accounting Theory and Corporate Social Responsibility: A Theoretical Exploration

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Abstract

This research explores the intersection of critical accounting theory (CAT) and corporate social responsibility (CSR). The study aims to deconstruct the dominant discourse surrounding CSR and accounting practices.

It is argued that CSR is not merely a voluntary initiative, but a strategic tool employed by corporations to maintain legitimacy and reproduce existing power relations. This paper examines how accounting systems and practices contribute to constructing and reinforcing these power dynamics. The research seeks to unveil the underlying assumptions and ideologies embedded within CSR reporting and disclosure through theoretical analysis.

Keywords: Critical accounting theory, corporate social responsibility, power relations, legitimacy theory, discourse analysis, accounting practices.

Background

The relationship between accounting and corporate social responsibility (CSR) has garnered increasing scholarly attention in recent decades (Deegan, 2002). While traditional accounting research has predominantly focused on financial performance and efficiency, a growing body of literature has recognized the broader societal implications of accounting practices (Gray, Owen, & Adams, 1996). This shift in focus has paved the way for critical accounting theory (CAT) to emerge as a powerful lens through which to examine the role of accounting in constructing and legitimizing corporate social and environmental responsibilities (Dodd & Richardson, 2004).

Critical accounting scholars argue that accounting systems are not neutral but rather actively shape economic and social relations (Cooper & Sherer, 1984). By scrutinizing the language, practices, and discourses within corporate reporting, CAT seeks to uncover how accounting contributes to the reproduction of dominant power structures and the marginalization of certain groups (Hopwood, 1983). In the context of CSR, CAT offers a valuable perspective on how corporations utilize accounting as a tool to manage their

social and environmental impacts while simultaneously shaping public perceptions (Deegan, 2002).

A deeper understanding of the relationship between CAT and CSR is crucial for several reasons. First, it allows for a critical evaluation of the extent to which CSR initiatives are genuine attempts to address social and environmental challenges or merely public relations exercises. Second, it enables researchers to identify how accounting practices can be leveraged to promote greater social and environmental accountability. Finally, by exposing the underlying power dynamics embedded in CSR reporting, CAT can inform the development of alternative accounting models prioritizing social and environmental well-being over profit maximization (Burritt, 2006).

Introduction

Brief overview of corporate social responsibility (CSR)

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is a business model in which companies incorporate social and environmental concerns in their operations and interactions with stakeholders. It encompasses various activities, including ethical business practices, sustainable ecological actions, community engagement, and improving labor conditions. CSR is increasingly viewed as integral to a company's long-term success, as it can enhance reputation, attract and retain talent, and foster customer loyalty (Carroll, 2016).

Historically, CSR has evolved from a focus on philanthropy and compliance to a more integrated approach where social responsibility is embedded into the core business strategy. This transition reflects a growing recognition that businesses have a role to play in addressing global challenges such as climate change, inequality, and social justice (Crane, Matten, & Spence, 2019).

Modern CSR practices often align with frameworks like the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the principles of the United Nations Global Compact. These initiatives guide companies in adopting responsible business practices that contribute to sustainable development (Rasche, Morsing, & Moon, 2017).

Limitations of traditional accounting perspectives on CSR

Traditional accounting perspectives on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) face several limitations when it comes to accurately capturing and reflecting the social and environmental impacts of business activities. Some of these limitations include:

1. **Narrow Focus on Financial Metrics:** Traditional accounting primarily focuses on financial performance indicators such as profit, revenue, and expenses. This financial-centric view often overlooks non-financial aspects of CSR, such as social equity, environmental sustainability, and community engagement (Gray, Adams, & Owen, 2014).
2. **Short-Term Orientation:** Traditional accounting practices tend to emphasize short-term financial performance and shareholder value. This can conflict with the long-term nature of many CSR initiatives, which may not produce immediate financial returns but are crucial for sustainable development (Eccles, Krzus, & Serafeim, 2011).
3. **Lack of Standardization:** There is no universally accepted framework for measuring and reporting CSR activities within traditional accounting. This lack of standardization makes it difficult to compare CSR performance across companies and industries (Adams & McNicholas, 2007).
4. **Intangible Assets:** Traditional accounting often struggles to value intangible assets such as brand reputation, employee satisfaction, and customer loyalty, all of which can be significantly influenced by CSR efforts. These intangible assets are crucial for long-term business success but are not typically captured in financial statements (Lev, 2001).
5. **Environmental and Social Costs:** Traditional accounting methods may fail to account for the environmental and social costs associated with business operations. For example, the costs of pollution, resource depletion, and negative social impacts are often externalized and not reflected in the financial accounts of a company (Bebbington, Unerman, & O'Dwyer, 2014).
6. **Stakeholder Perspective:** Traditional accounting primarily focuses on the needs and interests of shareholders, whereas CSR requires a broader stakeholder perspective, including employees, customers, suppliers, communities, and the environment (Freeman, 1984).

Introduction to Critical Accounting Theory (CAT)

Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) is an approach within the field of accounting that challenges traditional accounting practices and perspectives. It seeks to uncover the broader social, political, and economic implications of accounting and its role in society. CAT critiques conventional accounting for its focus on technical aspects and financial metrics while often neglecting the social and ethical dimensions of accounting practices.

Key Concepts of Critical Accounting Theory

1. **Social and Political Context:** CAT emphasizes that accounting practices are not neutral or objective. Instead, they are socially and politically constructed and reflect the interests and power dynamics of different stakeholders (Cooper & Sherer, 1984).
2. **Role of Power and Ideology:** CAT explores how accounting practices and standards can reinforce existing power structures and ideologies. It examines how these practices can perpetuate inequalities and serve the interests of dominant groups, such as large corporations and wealthy individuals, at the expense of marginalized communities (Tinker, Merino, & Neimark, 1982).
3. **Ethical and Moral Dimensions:** CAT highlights the ethical and moral implications of accounting decisions. It argues that accountants have a responsibility to consider the broader impact of their work on society and the environment, rather than focusing solely on financial outcomes (Lehman, 1992).
4. **Interdisciplinary Approach:** CAT often draws on insights from other disciplines, such as sociology, political science, and philosophy, to analyze accounting practices. This interdisciplinary approach helps to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the role and impact of accounting in society (Laughlin, 1999).
5. **Emancipatory Potential:** CAT advocates for accounting practices that promote social justice, transparency, and accountability. It seeks to empower marginalized groups by making accounting information more accessible and by challenging practices that contribute to social and environmental harm (Gallhofer & Haslam, 2003).

Historical Development

Critical Accounting Theory emerged in the 1970s and 1980s as scholars began to question the assumptions underlying traditional accounting practices. Influenced by critical social theory, these scholars sought to address issues of inequality, power, and ethics in accounting. Over the years, CAT has gained prominence as an important framework for analyzing and critiquing accounting practices (Cooper & Hopper, 1987).

Applications and Implications

CAT has been applied to a wide range of accounting issues, including financial reporting, auditing, corporate governance, and sustainability accounting. By highlighting the broader social and ethical dimensions of accounting, CAT encourages more responsible and inclusive practices. It also advocates for reforms that enhance transparency, accountability, and social justice in accounting.

Theoretical Framework

In-depth discussion of critical accounting theory

Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) delves into the deeper implications of accounting practices, questioning the underlying assumptions, ideologies, and power dynamics that traditional accounting tends to ignore. CAT is rooted in critical social theory, drawing on ideas from Marxism, feminism, postmodernism, and other critical perspectives to analyze and critique the role of accounting in society.

Foundations and Key Theorists

CAT emerged in the 1970s and 1980s, influenced by critical theorists such as Karl Marx, Jürgen Habermas, and Michel Foucault. These theorists provided the intellectual foundation for questioning the social and political roles of accounting. Key contributors to CAT include Tony Tinker, David Cooper, and Richard Laughlin, who have explored how accounting serves as a tool for maintaining and legitimizing power structures.

Core Principles

1. **Social Construction of Accounting:** CAT posits that accounting is not a neutral or objective practice but is socially constructed. Accounting standards, practices, and norms are shaped by social, political, and economic contexts. This perspective challenges the view that accounting merely reflects economic reality, instead arguing that it helps to construct and shape that reality (Hines, 1988).
2. **Power and Ideology:** CAT examines how accounting practices reinforce existing power

relations and ideologies. For example, accounting can perpetuate capitalist ideologies by prioritizing profit maximization and shareholder value over other social and environmental concerns. It also critiques how accounting can marginalize certain groups and interests, thereby maintaining the status quo (Tinker, 1985).

3. **Critical Examination of Financial Reporting:** CAT critically assesses financial reporting practices, questioning whose interests they serve and what information they prioritize. It argues that traditional financial reports often ignore or undervalue social and environmental impacts, leading to incomplete and potentially misleading representations of a company's performance and position (Gray, 1992).
4. **Ethical and Moral Dimensions:** CAT emphasizes the ethical and moral responsibilities of accountants. It calls for greater transparency, accountability, and consideration of the broader societal impacts of accounting decisions. This involves moving beyond a narrow focus on financial metrics to include social justice and environmental sustainability (Lehman, 1992).
5. **Emancipatory Potential:** CAT seeks to empower marginalized groups by promoting more inclusive and democratic accounting practices. It advocates for accounting that supports social justice, environmental sustainability, and the public interest. This includes developing alternative accounting practices that better capture social and environmental performance (Gallhofer & Haslam, 2003).

Critiques and Controversies

CAT has faced several critiques. Some argue that it is overly theoretical and lacks practical applicability. Critics also contend that CAT's emphasis on social and political issues can detract from the technical rigor and objectivity that are essential to effective accounting. Additionally, there is debate over the extent to which accounting can realistically address broader social and political problems, given its primary role in financial reporting and business decision-making (Arnold, 2009).

Applications of CAT

CAT has been applied to various areas within accounting, including:

- **Environmental Accounting:** Examining how traditional accounting practices fail to account for environmental impacts and advocating for more comprehensive environmental reporting (Gray & Milne, 2002).
- **Social Accounting:** Developing frameworks for measuring and reporting social performance, including issues such as labor practices, community engagement, and human rights (Mathews, 1997).
- **Corporate Governance:** Analyzing the role of accounting in corporate governance and questioning how accounting practices can contribute to more equitable and transparent governance structures (Puxty, 1993).
- **Auditing:** Critiquing traditional auditing practices and exploring how they can be reformed to better address issues of fraud, accountability, and transparency (Power, 1997).

Key concepts and assumptions of CAT

Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) is grounded in several key concepts and assumptions that distinguish it from traditional accounting perspectives. These concepts and assumptions reflect CAT's emphasis on the social, political, and ethical dimensions of accounting practices.

Key Concepts of CAT

1. **Social Construction of Accounting:** CAT posits that accounting is not a mere technical practice but is socially constructed. This means that accounting standards, practices, and norms are shaped by social, political, and economic contexts and reflect the interests and values of powerful groups within society (Hines, 1988).
2. **Power and Ideology:** CAT examines how accounting practices reinforce and perpetuate existing power structures and ideologies. It explores how accounting serves the interests of dominant groups, such as large corporations and wealthy individuals while marginalizing others. This critique includes an analysis of how accounting can support capitalist ideologies by emphasizing profit maximization and shareholder value (Tinker, 1985).
3. **Critical Examination of Financial Reporting:** CAT critically assesses traditional financial reporting practices, questioning whose interests they serve and what information they prioritize. It argues

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Assumptions of CAT

1. **Accounting as a Social Practice:** One of the fundamental assumptions of CAT is that accounting is a social practice influenced by the broader social, political, and economic environment. This contrasts with the traditional view of accounting as a neutral and objective technical practice (Hopwood, 1987).
2. **Interconnectedness of Accounting and Society:** CAT assumes that accounting and society are deeply interconnected. Changes in accounting practices can influence social and economic structures, just as social and economic changes can impact accounting practices. This bidirectional relationship underscores the importance of considering the societal implications of accounting (Burchell et al., 1980).
3. **Role of Power and Conflict:** CAT assumes that power and conflict are inherent in accounting practices. It views accounting as a tool that can be used to maintain and legitimize power structures, as well as a site of conflict where different interests and values compete. This perspective highlights the political nature of accounting decisions (Cooper & Sherer, 1984).

4. **Need for Ethical Reflection:** CAT assumes that ethical reflection is essential in accounting. It argues that accountants have a responsibility to consider the ethical and moral implications of their work and to strive for practices that promote social justice and environmental sustainability (Lehman, 1992).
5. **Potential for Change:** CAT is grounded in the assumption that accounting practices can and should be changed to better serve society. It advocates for reforms that enhance transparency, accountability, and inclusiveness in accounting, and it seeks to develop alternative practices that address social and environmental concerns (Gallhofer & Haslam, 2003).

The link between CAT and CSR

The link between Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is rooted in their shared emphasis on addressing the broader social, political, and ethical implications of business practices. CAT critiques traditional accounting for its narrow focus on financial metrics and its role in reinforcing power structures and ideologies that often marginalize social and environmental concerns (Tinker, 1985). Similarly, CSR challenges businesses to go beyond profit maximization and consider their impact on society and the environment. Both CAT and CSR advocate for greater transparency, accountability, and ethical considerations in business practices, emphasizing the need for companies to adopt more inclusive and responsible approaches that address the interests of all stakeholders, not just shareholders (Gray, 1992).

CAT and CSR intersect in their critique of how traditional accounting practices can obscure or undervalue the social and environmental impacts of business activities. CAT argues that conventional financial reporting often fails to capture the full spectrum of a company's performance, particularly in terms of social and environmental metrics (Hines, 1988). This critique aligns with CSR's call for comprehensive reporting frameworks that include non-financial indicators such as environmental sustainability, labor practices, and community engagement (Mathews, 1997). By integrating CAT's insights into CSR practices, businesses can develop more holistic reporting systems that provide a more accurate and ethical representation of their impact on society and the environment, thereby promoting greater accountability and fostering trust among stakeholders (Gallhofer & Haslam, 2003).

CSR as a Legitimacy-Seeking Strategy

CSR as a tool for managing organizational stakeholders

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has increasingly been recognized as a strategic tool for managing organizational stakeholders. CSR involves the integration of social, environmental, and economic considerations into business operations and interactions with stakeholders. By addressing the interests and concerns of various stakeholder groups—such as customers, employees, suppliers, communities, and investors—organizations can build trust, enhance their reputation, and foster long-term relationships (Freeman, 1984). Engaging in CSR activities helps companies demonstrate their commitment to ethical practices and social values, which can lead to increased stakeholder loyalty and support. This, in turn, can result in competitive advantages, such as customer retention, employee satisfaction, and access to new markets (Carroll & Shabana, 2010).

CSR can serve as a mechanism for addressing stakeholder conflicts and aligning diverse interests. By proactively engaging with stakeholders and incorporating their feedback into decision-making processes, organizations can mitigate potential disputes and enhance collaborative efforts (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). For instance, environmental sustainability initiatives can address the concerns of both local communities and regulatory bodies, while fair labor practices can improve employee relations and attract socially conscious consumers. Ultimately, CSR provides a framework for organizations to balance economic goals with social and environmental responsibilities, creating value for both the company and its stakeholders (Porter & Kramer, 2006). This holistic approach not only enhances organizational performance but also contributes to broader societal well-being.

The role of accounting in constructing and Maintaining legitimacy

Accounting plays a crucial role in constructing and maintaining organizational legitimacy by providing credible and transparent financial information that stakeholders use to assess the organization's performance and ethical standing. Legitimacy is the perception that an organization's actions are appropriate, proper, and desirable within a socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions (Suchman, 1995). Through the practice of financial reporting, auditing, and disclosure, accounting helps organizations demonstrate compliance with regulatory requirements and adherence to societal expectations. This transparency is vital for gaining and retaining the trust of stakeholders, including investors, customers, employees, and regulatory bodies (Deegan, 2002).

Accounting can be used strategically to manage legitimacy in response to social and environmental issues. For example,

sustainability accounting and reporting enable organizations to communicate their environmental and social performance, thus addressing stakeholder concerns about corporate responsibility and sustainability. By adopting and reporting on sustainability practices, organizations can align themselves with societal values and norms, thereby enhancing their legitimacy (Gray, Kouhy, & Lavers, 1995). This proactive approach not only mitigates potential reputational risks but also positions the organization as a leader in corporate responsibility, which can lead to competitive advantages and long-term success (Mathews, 1993). In essence, accounting functions as a bridge between the organization and its stakeholders, facilitating the maintenance of legitimacy through consistent, transparent, and responsible reporting practices.

Accounting practices and discursive strategies in CSR reporting

These practices and strategies not only influence stakeholders' perceptions but also reflect and construct the organizational identity and legitimacy in the public domain.

Accounting Practices in CSR Reporting

1. **Sustainability Accounting:** This involves the systematic recording and reporting of an organization's environmental and social impacts alongside its financial performance. By using sustainability accounting, companies can provide a comprehensive view of their operations, highlighting efforts in areas such as carbon footprint reduction, resource conservation, and community engagement (Gray, Adams, & Owen, 2014).
2. **Integrated Reporting:** Integrated reporting combines financial and non-financial information in a single document, offering a holistic view of an organization's performance. This approach aims to demonstrate how sustainability initiatives contribute to long-term value creation (Eccles & Krzus, 2010). The International Integrated Reporting Council (IIRC) has developed a framework to guide companies in this practice, emphasizing the connectivity between financial performance and sustainability.
3. **Triple Bottom Line (TBL) Reporting:** The TBL framework measures corporate success based on three dimensions: economic, social, and environmental performance (Elkington, 1997). This approach encourages organizations to go beyond traditional financial metrics and consider broader impacts on society and the planet.

Discursive Strategies in CSR Reporting

1. **Narrative Construction:** Organizations use narrative strategies to craft a coherent and compelling story about their CSR activities. These narratives often emphasize the company's commitment to ethical practices, highlight achievements, and outline future goals (Laine, 2009). By framing CSR activities in a positive light, companies aim to build a favorable image and strengthen stakeholder trust.
2. **Legitimacy and Accountability:** CSR reports often employ discursive strategies to address and manage legitimacy. This includes demonstrating compliance with international standards, such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), and aligning CSR activities with broader societal values and expectations (Tregidga, Milne, & Kearins, 2014). By doing so, organizations can enhance their accountability and transparency, which are critical for maintaining stakeholder trust.
3. **Symbolic Management:** Symbolic management involves the use of symbols, metaphors, and rhetoric to convey a message that resonates with stakeholders. This can include showcasing certifications, awards, and partnerships with reputable organizations to signal a commitment to CSR (Bebbington, Larrinaga, & Moneva, 2008). These symbolic actions help reinforce the company's dedication to responsible practices.
4. **Stakeholder Engagement:** Effective CSR reporting often includes strategies for engaging with stakeholders, such as surveys, feedback mechanisms, and public consultations. This engagement not only informs the content of CSR reports but also demonstrates the company's responsiveness to stakeholder concerns (Unerman & Bennett, 2004). Active stakeholder engagement helps build a sense of inclusivity and collaboration.

Deconstructing CSR Discourses

Critical analysis of CSR reporting and disclosure practices

Critical analysis of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) reporting and disclosure practices reveals significant gaps and challenges that question the authenticity and effectiveness of these initiatives.

Despite the growing adoption of CSR reporting frameworks, such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) and Integrated Reporting (IR), there is often a lack of standardization and comparability across reports, making it difficult for stakeholders to assess and compare organizational performance accurately (Boiral, 2013). Additionally, CSR reports can sometimes serve as a tool for corporate image management rather than genuine transparency, with companies selectively disclosing favorable information while omitting negative impacts or controversies (Cho, Guidry, Hageman, & Patten, 2012). This practice, known as "greenwashing," undermines the credibility of CSR efforts and can lead to stakeholder skepticism.

The voluntary nature of most CSR reporting means that not all companies participate, and those that do may not fully comply with reporting guidelines or provide comprehensive data. Critical analysis also highlights the limited engagement of external stakeholders in the reporting process, which can result in reports that reflect the interests and perspectives of the organization rather than a balanced view of all stakeholders' concerns (Michelon, Pilonato, & Ricceri, 2015). Overall, while CSR reporting is a step toward greater corporate accountability, its current practices require significant improvements to ensure they genuinely contribute to sustainable and ethical business conduct.

Identifying dominant ideologies and power relations

Identifying dominant ideologies and power relations in CSR reporting involves analyzing how these elements shape the content and presentation of corporate disclosures. Dominant ideologies refer to the prevailing beliefs and values that guide organizational behavior and reporting practices, while power relations pertain to the dynamics between various stakeholders and how these dynamics influence reporting outcomes.

Dominant Ideologies

1. **Capitalist Ideology:** The capitalist framework often prioritizes profit maximization and shareholder value, which can influence CSR reporting to emphasize economic performance and financial returns. This ideological bias may result in CSR reports that focus more on showcasing positive impacts and financial benefits rather than addressing deeper social and environmental issues (Tinker, 1985).
2. **Market Efficiency:** The belief in market efficiency underpins many CSR reporting practices, where transparency and accountability are seen as tools for enhancing corporate reputation and gaining

competitive advantage. This ideology can drive organizations to highlight their CSR efforts as strategic assets, potentially overshadowing more substantive and systemic issues (Gray, 1992).

3. **Corporate Social Responsibility as a Tool for Legitimacy:** The notion that CSR can be used primarily as a legitimacy tool reflects an ideological stance that views CSR reporting as a means of gaining social approval and avoiding criticism. This can lead to "window dressing" practices where reports are designed to meet minimal expectations rather than genuinely addressing stakeholder concerns (Suchman, 1995).

Power Relations

1. **Corporate Power:** Corporations often have substantial control over the content and scope of their CSR reports. This power allows them to highlight favorable information and downplay or omit issues that could damage their reputation or reveal inconsistencies between their practices and stated values (Deegan, 2002). This power imbalance can limit the effectiveness of CSR reporting in holding organizations accountable.
2. **Regulatory Influence:** Regulatory bodies and standards organizations exert power by setting reporting requirements and frameworks, such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) or the Integrated Reporting Framework. While these frameworks aim to standardize and enhance transparency, their effectiveness can be limited by their voluntary nature and the varying levels of compliance among companies (Adams, 2004).
3. **Stakeholder Influence:** Different stakeholder groups, including investors, customers, and activists, wield varying degrees of power in influencing CSR practices and reporting. Powerful stakeholders can press companies to improve their CSR performance and disclosures, while less influential groups may struggle to make their voices heard (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). The extent to which organizations respond to these stakeholders can reflect underlying power dynamics.

The role of accounting in reproducing social inequalities

Accounting plays a significant role in reproducing social inequalities through its influence on resource allocation, economic representation, and regulatory compliance. Traditional accounting practices often prioritize financial

metrics that favor wealth accumulation and profit maximization, which can perpetuate existing economic disparities. For example, financial statements and reporting practices predominantly serve the interests of shareholders and investors, often neglecting the needs and concerns of other stakeholders such as employees, communities, and marginalized groups (Tinker, 1985). By focusing on metrics like shareholder value and return on investment, accounting can contribute to wealth concentration among the economically advantaged while failing to address or even exacerbating socioeconomic inequalities (Gray, 1992). This focus reinforces a capitalist ideology that values profit over equitable distribution of resources, thus perpetuating social stratification.

Accounting practices can reproduce social inequalities through their role in regulatory compliance and tax avoidance strategies. Organizations often exploit accounting methods and loopholes to minimize tax liabilities, which can result in reduced public revenue for social services and infrastructure that benefit broader society (Sikka, 2011). This strategic use of accounting to shift financial burdens away from wealthy corporations and individuals exacerbates social inequalities by limiting the resources available for public goods and services.

The complexity and opacity of accounting standards can disadvantage smaller firms and individuals who lack the resources to navigate intricate tax regulations and financial reporting requirements, further entrenching economic disparities (Power, 1997). Thus, while accounting aims to provide a neutral representation of financial performance, its practices can inadvertently sustain and deepen social inequalities.

Challenges to traditional accounting assumptions

Traditional accounting assumptions, such as the concept of a stable monetary unit, the going concern principle, and the historical cost convention, face significant challenges in the modern business environment. These assumptions are fundamental to traditional accounting practices but have been increasingly scrutinized for their relevance and effectiveness in reflecting contemporary economic realities.

1. Stable Monetary Unit Assumption

The stable monetary unit assumption posits that the value of money remains constant over time, which allows for the use of historical cost as a basis for financial reporting. However, this assumption is challenged by economic fluctuations, inflation, and currency devaluation. In an environment of high inflation or economic instability, the value of money can fluctuate significantly, rendering historical cost accounting

less relevant and potentially misleading (Zhang & Wang, 2015). For instance, companies may report profits that are not reflective of real economic performance if inflation significantly erodes the purchasing power of revenue and assets. This challenge highlights the need for adjustments in financial reporting to better reflect current economic conditions, such as incorporating inflation-adjusted measures or fair value accounting (Penman, 2007).

2. Going Concern Principle

The going concern principle assumes that an entity will continue to operate indefinitely and not be forced into liquidation or cessation of operations. This assumption is increasingly questioned in light of financial crises, rapid technological changes, and market volatility, which can threaten the viability of businesses (Higgins, 2012). Companies facing significant financial distress or undergoing major restructuring may not be able to continue as going concerns, yet traditional accounting practices may not adequately reflect these risks in financial statements. This disconnect can lead to misleading financial information for stakeholders, necessitating more robust disclosures and risk assessments to provide a clearer picture of a company's potential for continuity (Barker & Muscatelli, 2000).

3. Historical Cost Convention

The historical cost convention values assets and liabilities at their original purchase price, which can become problematic when market values diverge significantly from historical costs. This convention often fails to reflect the current value of assets and liabilities, particularly in volatile markets or for rapidly depreciating assets (Nobes & Parker, 2012). For example, real estate and investment portfolios may experience significant changes in value that are not captured by historical cost accounting. This limitation has led to calls for adopting fair value accounting, which provides a more current valuation of assets and liabilities, thereby offering a more accurate and timely representation of an organization's financial position (Barth, 2007).

Potential for alternative accounting models

These models aim to enhance transparency, relevance, and accountability by incorporating broader considerations beyond financial performance.

1. Fair Value Accounting

Fair value accounting measures assets and liabilities at their current market value rather than historical cost. This approach provides a more accurate reflection of an organization's financial position and performance, particularly in volatile

markets or for assets with fluctuating values (Barth, 2007). For example, fair value accounting can offer a more realistic picture of investment portfolios and real estate holdings. While it can enhance transparency and relevance, it also introduces challenges related to valuation subjectivity and market volatility, which require careful consideration and robust valuation techniques (Laux & Leuz, 2009).

2. Integrated Reporting

Integrated reporting combines financial and non-financial information to present a holistic view of an organization's performance. This model emphasizes the connectivity between financial results and environmental, social, and governance (ESG) factors (Eccles & Krzus, 2010). By integrating these dimensions, integrated reporting aims to provide stakeholders with a comprehensive understanding of how an organization creates value over the short, medium, and long term. This approach can improve the relevance of reporting by addressing the broader impacts of business activities and aligning reporting with stakeholder expectations. However, its effectiveness depends on the quality of the disclosures and the organization's commitment to transparency (Stubbs & Higgins, 2014).

3. Sustainability Accounting

Sustainability accounting focuses on measuring and reporting an organization's environmental and social impacts in addition to financial performance. This model includes practices such as triple bottom line (TBL) reporting, which assesses economic, social, and environmental performance (Elkington, 1997). Sustainability accounting helps organizations address issues like carbon emissions, resource usage, and social responsibility, providing a more comprehensive view of their overall impact. While it can drive positive changes and enhance stakeholder trust, the model also faces challenges related to standardization, measurement, and reporting consistency (Gray, Adams, & Owen, 2014).

4. Social and Environmental Accounting

Social and environmental accounting extends the scope of traditional accounting to include the social and environmental consequences of business activities. This model aims to account for externalities and societal impacts that are not captured by financial accounting alone (Bebbington & Thomson, 1996). It involves the development of metrics and reporting practices that highlight how organizations contribute to or mitigate social and environmental issues. While this approach can foster greater corporate

accountability and sustainability, it requires significant advancements in measurement techniques and the development of widely accepted reporting standards (Tilt, 2009).

Conclusion

Summary of key findings

1. Theoretical Foundations and Critiques

Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) provides a framework for understanding how accounting practices and narratives are influenced by power structures and ideological forces. The theory critiques traditional accounting practices for their role in perpetuating social inequalities and masking power imbalances (Tinker, 1985). In the context of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), CAT reveals that CSR reporting often functions more as a legitimizing tool rather than a genuine effort to address social and environmental issues (Gray, 1992). This critical perspective highlights how CSR disclosures can be manipulated to reinforce existing power dynamics and corporate interests while obscuring more fundamental societal problems (O'Dwyer, 2003).

2. Legitimacy and Ideological Functions of CSR

CSR reporting, when viewed through the lens of CAT, is often seen as a strategy for managing corporate legitimacy rather than a genuine commitment to social responsibility (Suchman, 1995). This perspective suggests that organizations use CSR as a discursive tool to align with prevailing social norms and expectations, thereby securing their legitimacy and mitigating criticism. The theory critiques the performative nature of CSR disclosures, noting that they frequently emphasize positive impacts while downplaying or omitting adverse consequences (Higgins, 2012). This selective reporting reinforces dominant ideologies and power structures, as it allows corporations to project an image of social responsibility while continuing practices that may contradict their stated values.

3. Power Relations and Reporting Practices

CAT underscores how power relations shape CSR reporting and accounting practices. Corporations, due to their significant economic power, often can control the narrative around their CSR efforts. This control extends to how they report and disclose information, which can be selectively managed to favor their interests (Deegan, 2002). Additionally, regulatory frameworks and standards for CSR reporting, while intended to promote transparency, can be

influenced by corporate lobbying and interests, leading to regulatory capture and standards that may not fully address societal concerns (Adams, 2004). CAT highlights the need for more robust and participatory approaches to CSR reporting that include diverse stakeholder perspectives and address underlying power imbalances.

4. Implications for Policy and Practice

The application of CAT to CSR suggests several implications for improving accounting and reporting practices. There is a need for enhanced transparency and accountability in CSR disclosures to ensure that they genuinely reflect corporate impacts and practices. CAT advocates for the development of alternative reporting frameworks that go beyond traditional financial metrics to include social and environmental performance in a more meaningful way (Bebbington & Thomson, 1996). Additionally, engaging stakeholders in the reporting process can help mitigate power imbalances and ensure that CSR efforts align with broader societal values and expectations (Tregidga, Milne, & Kearins, 2014).

Contributions of the research

The research on Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) offers several valuable contributions to the understanding of how accounting practices intersect with social and environmental issues. Here are the key contributions:

1. Enhanced Understanding of Ideological Influences

The research contributes to a deeper understanding of how dominant ideologies shape accounting and CSR practices. Applying CAT reveals how traditional accounting practices and CSR reporting can be influenced by underlying power dynamics and ideological forces. This perspective helps to uncover how accounting serves not only as a technical tool but also as a mechanism for reproducing and legitimizing prevailing social and economic structures (Tinker, 1985; Gray, 1992). It challenges the notion that accounting and CSR are neutral or objective, highlighting how they can be used to reinforce existing power relations and corporate interests.

2. Critique of CSR as a Legitimizing Tool

The research offers critical insights into the role of CSR reporting as a strategy for managing corporate legitimacy rather than a genuine commitment to social responsibility. It demonstrates how organizations may use CSR disclosures to align with societal norms and expectations while potentially masking less favorable aspects of their operations (Suchman, 1995). This critique encourages a re-evaluation of CSR practices and reporting, urging companies to go beyond superficial compliance and adopt more substantive and

transparent approaches to addressing social and environmental issues (Higgins, 2012).

3. Identification of Power Dynamics in Reporting

By focusing on the power relations that influence CSR reporting and accounting practices, the research highlights how corporate power can shape the narrative and content of disclosures. It points out how corporations often control the reporting process to favor their interests, and how regulatory frameworks can be influenced by corporate lobbying (Deegan, 2002). This contribution underscores the need for more equitable and participatory approaches to reporting, where diverse stakeholder perspectives are included and power imbalances are addressed (Adams, 2004).

4. Implications for Policy and Practice

The research provides practical implications for improving accounting and CSR practices. It advocates for the development of alternative reporting frameworks that incorporate broader social and environmental considerations beyond traditional financial metrics (Bebbington & Thomson, 1996). It also suggests enhancing transparency and accountability in CSR disclosures and involving stakeholders more actively in the reporting process (Tregidga, Milne, & Kearins, 2014). These contributions offer actionable insights for policymakers, practitioners, and researchers aiming to foster more meaningful and effective CSR reporting.

5. Advancement of Critical Perspectives

Finally, the research advances critical perspectives within accounting and CSR studies by applying CAT to these fields. It challenges conventional views and opens up new avenues for exploring how accounting practices can contribute to or mitigate social and environmental inequalities. This advancement encourages ongoing critical examination and reform of accounting and reporting practices to better align with societal values and expectations (O'Dwyer, 2003).

Limitations of the study

The study on Critical Accounting Theory (CAT) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) presents valuable insights but also has certain limitations. These limitations can impact the generalizability and applicability of the findings.

1. Scope of Analysis

The study's focus on CAT and CSR may limit its scope by emphasizing theoretical perspectives and critiques. While it provides a critical analysis of how accounting practices influence and are influenced by power dynamics and ideologies, it may not fully account for practical challenges

and variations in CSR reporting practices across different industries or regions (Deegan, 2002). This limited scope might restrict the applicability of the findings to specific contexts or types of organizations.

2. Theoretical Bias

The reliance on CAT introduces a specific theoretical bias that frames CSR reporting as primarily a tool for managing legitimacy and reinforcing power structures (Gray, 1992). While this perspective is valuable for understanding certain aspects of CSR, it may overlook other motivations for CSR practices, such as genuine corporate commitment to sustainability or community engagement. Theoretical bias can limit the study's ability to capture the full spectrum of CSR practices and their impacts.

3. Challenges in Empirical Validation

The study's theoretical exploration may face challenges in empirical validation. CAT provides a critical framework for understanding accounting and CSR, but empirical research is needed to validate and test these theoretical claims in real-world settings (Tinker, 1985). The study may rely on qualitative or theoretical analysis without sufficient empirical evidence to support its conclusions, which can affect the robustness and generalizability of the findings.

4. Variability in Reporting Standards

The study may not fully address the variability in CSR reporting standards and practices across different countries and industries. While it critiques the legitimacy and power dynamics in CSR reporting, the diversity of reporting frameworks and regulatory environments can impact the consistency and comparability of CSR disclosures (Adams, 2004). This variability can complicate the assessment of CSR effectiveness and the applicability of the study's conclusions to different contexts.

5. Potential for Overgeneralization

There is a risk of overgeneralizing the findings from CAT to all CSR reporting practices. The study's conclusions about the use of CSR as a legitimizing tool may not apply uniformly across all organizations, particularly those with different levels of commitment to social and environmental responsibility. Overgeneralization can limit the nuanced understanding of how different organizations approach CSR and manage their reporting practices (Suchman, 1995).

6. Evolving Nature of CSR

CSR practices and reporting frameworks are continuously evolving in response to changing societal expectations and regulatory requirements. The study's findings may reflect the state of CSR reporting at a particular point in time and may not fully account for recent developments or emerging trends in CSR practices (Tregidga, Milne, & Kearins, 2014). This limitation can impact the relevance of the study's conclusions in a rapidly changing field.

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