CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY TRAINING: EXPLORING THE ANTECEDENTS TO CORPORATE SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

by

CHAD ALLAN JACKSON

B.S., Kansas State University, 1999
M.S., Kansas State University, 2010

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

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Abstract

Leaders of organizations are becoming more aware of their company's potential adverse impact on society and are facing added pressure from stakeholders to find ways to mitigate this impact (Lancey, Cooper, Hayward, & Neuberger, 2010). The field of adult education, through its history in human resource development and social responsibility, can directly influence an organization's corporate social responsibility strategy and thus its impact on society (Garavan, Heraty, Rock, & Dalton, 2010). This study aims to provide insight into the relationship between socially conscious human resource development training programs and the recommendation of new corporate social responsibility ideas for the organization. Furthermore, as many organizations are increasingly using entrepreneurial approaches to enhance their corporate social responsibility strategies (Austin, Leonard, Reficco, & Wei-Skiller, 2006), this study explores the relationship between entrepreneurial and social organizational antecedents perceived by 152 company managers and the development of new corporate social responsibility ideas for the organization. This research utilizes exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression to analyze the results of an online survey. The results of the analysis indicated that a statistically significant relationship existed between the number of socially conscious human resource development training programs attended and the recommendation of new corporate social responsibility ideas. Additionally, this research indicated that a manager's perception of the level of social proactiveness in a firm is a significant organizational antecedent that correlates with the recommendation of new corporate social responsibility ideas.

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Leaders of organizations are becoming more aware of their company's potential adverse impact on society and are facing added pressure from stakeholders to find ways to mitigate this impact (Lancey, Cooper, Hayward, & Neuberger, 2010). The field of adult education, through its history in human resource development and social responsibility, can directly influence an organization's corporate social responsibility strategy and thus its impact on society (Garavan, Heraty, Rock, & Dalton, 2010). This study aims to provide insight into the relationship between socially conscious human resource development training programs and the recommendation of new corporate social responsibility ideas for the organization. Furthermore, as many organizations are increasingly using entrepreneurial approaches to enhance their corporate social responsibility strategies (Austin, Leonard, Reficco, & Wei-Skiller, 2006), this study explores the relationship between entrepreneurial and social organizational antecedents perceived by 152 company managers and the development of new corporate social responsibility ideas for the organization. This research utilizes exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression to analyze the results of an online survey. The results of the analysis indicated that a statistically significant relationship existed between the number of socially conscious human resource development training programs attended and the recommendation of new corporate social responsibility ideas. Additionally, this research indicated that a manager's perception of the level of social proactiveness in a firm is a significant organizational antecedent that correlates with the recommendation of new corporate social responsibility ideas.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

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Dedication

For Katie, Nora, Evan, and Anna.

I love you.

"I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me" (Philippians 4:13).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background

Our global society faces many challenges including environmental degradation and

ecological sustainability (Dean, 2013), and a variety of social issues including population

growth, wealth disparity between developing and developed countries, gender equality, access to

education, and food security (Stead & Stead, 2009, p. 59). As a result, companies are facing

increased demands from stakeholders including customers, suppliers, employees, and community

groups to devote resources to solve some of these challenges (Clark & Hebb, 2004; Davies,

2003; *Economist,* 2005; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Corporate leaders are growing more

aware of their company's potential adverse impacts on society and have an increased focus on

finding a way to positively impact the environment (Lancey, Cooper, Hayward, & Neuberger,

2010). Through its history in human resource development and social responsibility, the adult

education field has a direct connection to the organizations' impact on society (Garavan, Heraty,

Rock, & Dalton, 2010). Specifically, human resource development (HRD) professionals have

been critiqued for their role in supporting corporations' exploitation of employees and the

environment while ignoring the employees' interests and wider community issues (Gilley,

Callahan, & Bierema, 2003). Furthermore, corporate managers recognize that actively

responding to societal challenges positively impacts employee recruitment, retention, and overall

corporate performance (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2012). Each of these factors is

contributing to an increased focus on corporate social responsibility by firm leaders.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a term used to describe a firm's "actions that

appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by

law" (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 117). CSR initiatives by firms may include such actions as

philanthropic giving, local community investments, lessening environmental impact, and changing labor relationships. The practice of CSR involves managers who work to balance an array of stakeholder interests (e.g. employees, suppliers, dealers, local communities, and the nation) with the financial considerations of stockholders (Clarkson, 1995). A study by McKinsey and Company found that 90% of CEOs believe that society has greater expectations of business to assume social responsibilities than it did five years ago, and these expectations will increase in the next five years (Lindgreen, Swaen, & Maon, 2009). According to the international audit, tax and advisory firm KPMG, 52% of the largest 250 global companies issued separate reports on their CSR initiatives in 2005 (KPMG, 2005). CSR has become commonplace in the business press and among business and political leaders and a body of academic literature has also emerged around the topic (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003). This growing focus on CSR motivates this investigation of how firms develop CSR initiatives to meet organizational and social needs.

CSR initiatives are generally focused on mitigating adverse impacts of the firm on stakeholders (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Freeman (1984) defined a stakeholder as any group or individual who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of the organization's objectives. Primary stakeholders include shareholders, employees, customers, and suppliers, while secondary stakeholders include the governments and communities where the firm operates (Freeman, 1984). Moreover, as concerns about climate change and ecological sustainability have become more common, firms have included the environment as a key stakeholder driving additional CSR initiatives related to environmental management and sustainability (Young & Dhanda, 2012).

HRD professionals are well positioned in the organization to use CSR initiatives to help their firm become more socially conscious (Gilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003). The success of CSR programs can be largely dependent on discretionary employee behavior, and HRD is ideally situated to influence the nature of that behavior (Garavan, Heraty, Rock, & Dalton, 2010). Gilley, et al. (2003), call for HRD professionals to use their unique opportunity to "educate organizations about social responsibility and use HRD strategies to integrate social consciousness into the organization's activities that have the potential to affect significant social change" (p. 217). HRD professionals play a major role to help to change organizational values, culture, and employee behavior to influence the adoption of CSR initiatives (Garavan, et al., 2010).

One-way HRD professionals can encourage firms to become more socially aware is to educate employees to become more socially conscious (Gilley, et al., 2003). Fenwick and Bierema (2008) found that HRD professionals played only a marginal role in CSR and argued for an increased engagement in CSR by HRD. CSR activities can provide development opportunities for employees by providing general growth opportunities through learning that is not necessarily job-related (Nadler & Nadler, 1989). Such employee development has been shown to keep the workforce in a learning mode, and employees who are in a state of learning readiness have greater abilities to learn something new (Nadler & Nadler, 1989).

Corporate leaders can effectively create and implement CSR strategies by developing an entrepreneurial mind-set (Austin, Leonard, Reficco, & Wei-Skiller, 2006). Entrepreneurship and innovation have been identified as promising catalysts of positive transformation in both firms (Kuratko, 2009a) and economies (McMullen, 2011). By adapting the same principles that have

been successful in corporate entrepreneurship, leaders may have a similar opportunity to generate transformative, financially sustainable solutions to social problems (Kuratko, 2009b).

In today's increasingly competitive global economy, corporate entrepreneurship (CE) continues to gain attention as a strategy that helps organizations achieve high levels of performance and growth (Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd, & Bott, 2009; Morris, Kuratko, & Covin, 2011). Corporate entrepreneurial strategy is "a vision-directed, organization-wide reliance on entrepreneurial behavior that purposefully and continuously rejuvenates the organization and shapes the scope of its operations through the recognition and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunity" (Ireland, Covin, & Kuratko, 2009, p. 21). Firms use CE strategies to develop and nurture innovation that may contribute to increasing competitive advantage now and in the future (Ireland, Kuratko & Morris, 2006a, 2006b). Established organizations have initiated CE strategies for a variety of purposes, including profitability (Vozikis, Bruton, Prasad & Merikas, 1999), strategic renewal (Guth & Ginsberg, 1990), innovativeness (Baden-Fuller, 1995), development of future revenue streams through knowledge acquisition (McGrath, Venkataraman & MacMillan, 1994), international success (Birkinshaw, 1997), and development of competitive advantage through the effective configuration of resources (Covin, Slevin, & Heeley, 2000; Covin, Ireland, & Kuratko, 2003; Kuratko, Covin & Garrett, 2009).

One-way firms may use CE to further a CSR strategy is through the development of social entrepreneurial ventures. The emerging field of social entrepreneurship (SE) applies entrepreneurship and corporate innovation principles to social and environmental challenges (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Chell, 2007; Hartigan, 2006; Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009). "Social entrepreneurship is as vital to the progress of societies as is entrepreneurship to the progress of economies, and it merits more rigorous, serious attention than

it has attracted so far" (Martin & Osberg, 2007, p. 39). Despite the espoused and observed favorable effects of corporate entrepreneurship strategies, social entrepreneurship has been discussed almost exclusively in terms of creating new organizations with little exploration of how corporate entrepreneurship might be used to support social entrepreneurship within existing organizations (Hemingway, 2005).

Corporate social entrepreneurship (CSE) is one way for firms to further a CSR strategy by utilizing the corporate entrepreneurship model to create social entrepreneurial ventures (Austin, et al., 2006). Austin, et al. (2006), defined CSE as a process of extending a firm's competence and corresponding opportunity set through the leveraging of resources aimed at the simultaneous creation of economic and social value. CSE pursues new opportunities that create social change and economic value through organizational capabilities and resources (Austin, et al., 2006).

Firms may pursue a CSE strategy for several reasons. First, once stakeholders begin to rely on an ongoing CSR initiative abandonment of the project risks stakeholder backlash (Bertels & Peloza, 2008). Therefore, a CSE strategy allows the firm to set an investment threshold and, perhaps more importantly, to communicate to the stakeholders that the CSE initiative is experimental and subject to measurable outcomes.

Second, CSE can serve as a source for new market opportunities and new product or service innovations and will lead to competitive advantage and future financial return (Porter & Kramer, 2006). Corporations can use a CSE strategy as an opportunity to innovate new product and service categories and learn about potential future market opportunities under the premise of generating goodwill or a positive social impact without the need to obtain an internal rate of return (IRR) (Young & Dhanda, 2013).

Third, a CSE strategy may foster employee pride in their companies' social awareness and community support (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2012; Gourville & Rangan, 2004). This form of pride involves more than pleasure in making a social impact; it is an improved self-regard and reputation through association with the company and may lead to higher retention rates of valuable employees.

Conversely, social entrepreneurship may also benefit from corporations because CSR programs are typically backed by large corporate budgets and can provide capital, distribution systems for rapid scaling, recognizable brands, technology infrastructure, and socio-political contacts to create widespread impact. Thus, CSE within CSR programs of existing firms may become a "win-win" situation because the CSE project gains resources, while the CSR program may improve impact with investment and less fear of irreversible commitment.

Problem Statement

The potential influence that human resource development professionals can have on organizations that want to use corporate social responsibility to minimize their negative social and environmental impacts is largely unknown, but in order to pursue a corporate social entrepreneurship strategy, firm leaders must know what influence human resource development professionals have on the implementation of programs and what perceived organizational factors should exist for the strategy to be successful.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between socially conscious human resource development training programs and the development of new corporate social responsibility initiatives, and the relationship between perceived organizational factors related to

corporate social entrepreneurship and the development of new corporate social responsibility initiatives.

Research Methodology

This study utilizes a correlation research design in order to first determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between participation in socially conscious human resource development training programs and development of new corporate social responsibility initiatives, and also to see if a statistically significant relationship exists between perceived corporate social entrepreneurship organizational factors and the development of new corporate social responsibility initiatives.

Many researchers, including Miller (1983), Quinn (1985), Sathe (1989), Zahra (1991), and Damanpour (1991), have contributed to the research to identify organizational antecedents for corporate entrepreneurial behavior; despite the wide-ranging factors that influence corporate entrepreneurship, most contributions emphasize five dimensions of the firm's organizational factors: management support, work discretion, rewards/reinforcement, resources, and organizational structure. To identify the antecedents for corporate social behavior, the following four additional organizational factors were identified through the literature: social proactiveness, stakeholder salience, governance, and transparency.

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were used to guide this research.

H0a: There is no relationship between the participation in socially conscious HRD training programs and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

H1a: The participation in socially conscious HRD training programs training programs correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

H0b: There is no relationship between perceived organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

H1b: The perception of organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Significance of the Study

Human resource development training programs may hold significant promise for organizations to pursue social impact programs (Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003). As firms face increased stakeholder demands to minimize negative impacts of their company's operations on society and the environment and to contribute their financial, intellectual, and resource strengths to help solve society's burgeoning challenges, firms must respond by developing new approaches to satisfy the demands with an entrepreneurial mind-set and by effectively leveraging their resources. This study is the first of its kind to examine the relationship between participation in socially conscious HRD training programs and the proposal of new CSR initiatives and to add empirical data to determine the organizational antecedents that are the most prevalent in organizations seeking to implement a corporate social entrepreneurship strategy.

Study Limitations

This study aims to lend insight into the relationship of corporate social responsibility training activities and organizational antecedents present in companies and the impact of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested. This research was conducted through a self-report online survey of company managers and results in some key limitations.

First, the study is based on self-reported manager perceptions at a single point in time and thus does not reflect changes over time and is subject to the individual manager's perception at the time of completing the survey. The resulting data could be affected by the manager's

awareness of corporate social responsibility activity in the firm and the manager's views toward the role of the company in pursuing a corporate social responsibility strategy.

A second limitation is that because corporate social entrepreneurship is a new and developing approach to corporate social responsibility, the incident rate of corporate social entrepreneurship is low and thus another dependent variable, number of new corporate social responsibility ideas recommended, was used as a proxy for corporate social entrepreneurship. Some survey participants may not be aware of the current corporate social responsibility activities of the firm and this may affect the results of the research.

Another potential limitation of the study is related to the sample from which the data were derived. The data were collected through an online survey primarily sent to managers working in firms in the Kansas City region. Additional studies should be conducted with new samples from other locations to affirm the generalizability of the findings.

This study focused on the participation in socially responsible HRD training programs and did not explore the nature or delivery of the programs. A potential limitation of the study is that without including an assessment of the quality of the training program this research is not able to determine if program quality plays a role in the creation of CSE initiatives.

Definitions

Antecedent – A thing or event that existed before, or logically precedes, another (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009).

Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE): "the development and implementation of new ideas into the organization" (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002, p. 253).

Corporate Governance: "the determination of the broad uses to which organizational resources will be deployed and the resolution of conflicts among the myriad of participants in organizations" (Daily, Dalton, & Cannella, 2003, p. 371).

Corporate Social Entrepreneurship (CSE): the process of extending a firm's competence and corresponding opportunity set through innovative leveraging of resources aimed at the creation of economic and social value (Austin, Leonard, Reficco, & Wei-Skillern, 2006).

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): a firm's "actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 117).

Reactive CSR: the CSR practice of organizations that often deny responsibility on social issues and do less CSR than is required (Carroll, 1979).

Defensive CSR: the CSR practice of organizations that often admit responsibility for social issues but resist creating CSR programs and only the least required actions are done (Carroll, 1979).

Accommodative CSR: the CSR practice of organizations that accept responsibility for social issues and all that is required is done (Carroll, 1979).

Proactive CSR: the CSR practice of organizations that anticipate responsibility and actively search for ways to be leaders on social issues (Carroll, 1979).

Disclosure: a mechanism for companies to build relationships with key stakeholders by raising awareness through the promotion and advertising of the organization's socially responsible behavior (CERES, 2010).

Entrepreneurship: the pursuit of opportunity without regard to resources controlled (Dees, 2001, p. 2).

Human Resource Development: The integrated use of training and development, organization development, and career development to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness (McLagan, 1989).

Management Support: the willingness of managers to facilitate entrepreneurial projects (Horsby, Kuratko, Shepherd, & Bott, 2009).

Organizational Posture: a firm's decision about which markets to enter and the competitive orientation in those markets (Miles & Snow, 1978).

Organizational Structure: the level of support provided by the organization for entrepreneurial behavior by providing administrative tools to evaluate, choose and implement new ideas and the level of clear communication of job duties and expectations (Damanpour, 1991).

Primary Stakeholders: those without whose continuing participation the organization cannot survive (Clarkson, 1988).

Resources: tangible and intangible assets organizations use to further its goals (Sykes, 1986).

> *Emotional resources*: support provided by organizations by enhancing an employee's self-esteem through communicating to them that they are valued (Cohen & Wills, 1985).
>
> *Informational resources*: support provided by organizations which help to define, understand and cope with problems (Cohen & Wills, 1985).
>
> *Companionship*: support provided by organizations through arranging leisure or recreational time to distract employees from difficulties (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

11

Instrumental: support provided by organizations by allocating financial or

material support or additional time to address problems (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Responsive CSR: acting as a good corporate citizen and mitigating existing or

anticipated adverse effects from business activities (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Rewards: an organizational practice to encourage employees to complete certain types of

work in consideration of the organization's goals, feedback, level of individual responsibility,

and results (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002).

Risk-taking: the willingness to take risks and to tolerate failure (Sykes & Block, 1989).

Secondary Stakeholders: those who influence or affect, or are influenced or affected by,

the organization (Clarkson, 1988).

Social Entrepreneurship (SE): an individual or organization that utilizes entrepreneurial

strategies and theories in the pursuit of social change (Drayton, 2005).

Social Proactiveness: an organization's tendency to seek to influence and change social

issues through the deployment of resources and through market decisions (Ozmoyer, Calantone,

& DiBonnetto, 1997).

Socially Conscious HRD: an educative and supportive role to help organizations uphold

implied contracts, promote ethical management and leadership, advocate for stakeholders,

broaden definitions and measures of organization performance, challenge and revise socially

"unconscious" policies and practices, analyze and negotiate power relations, and promote the use

of organization resources to create social benefit and improve social welfare (Bierema &

D'Abundo, 2003, p. 224).

Stakeholder Legitimacy: the perception that the activies of the stakeholder group are desirable, proper, or appropriate within socially constructed norms, values, beliefs, and definitions (Suchman, 1995).

Stakeholder Salience: the level of priority a manager gives to a group's demands (Clarkson, 1988).

Strategic CSR: when the firm centers on a small number of initiatives whose social and business benefits are large and distinctive (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The previous chapter identified key topics that influence the successful implementation of a corporate social entrepreneurship strategy: corporate social responsibility, human resource development, social entrepreneurship, and corporate entrepreneurship. In this chapter scholarly literature is reviewed covering each topic and the organizational factors that are hypothesized to impact corporate social entrepreneurship activity, each of which inform the conceptual and analytic frameworks for the study.

Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is a term used to describe a firm's "actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001, p. 117). Wood (1991) suggests that CSR is based on the idea that business and society are interwoven entities, and therefore society has certain expectations for appropriate business actions and thus business has an obligation to advance society. The CSR concept applies to firms of all sizes, but discussions primarily focus on large organizations because they tend to have more power and visibility (Chand, 2006). Waddock (2011) suggests there are individuals in society who believe that corporations bear responsibility for their societal and ecological impacts because they consume significantly more resources than individuals, they influence public policy in many countries, and they typically have more power than most individual citizens when they participate in civil society and the political process.

One of the earliest definitions of CSR is provided by Bowen (1953), where he states, "it refers to the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our

society" (Carroll, 1999, p. 270). Davis (1973) defines CSR as "the firm's consideration of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical and legal requirements of the firm….to accomplish social benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks" (p. 312-313). In attempting to further define CSR, Dahlsrud (2008) performed a content analysis of existing CSR definitions in the literature. This research identified 37 definitions of CSR by 27 authors. However, Dahlsrud (2008) found these definitions were "predominatly congruent" (p. 7) and consistently refer to five dimensions: stakeholder, social, economic, voluntariness, and environmental (p. 5). The stakeholder dimension refers to how organizations interact with key stakeholders including employees, suppliers, and communities. The social dimension relates to how the company regards its impact on communities. The economic dimension describes CSR in terms of business operation. The voluntariness dimension refers to the firm's acts beyond legal requirements. Finally, the environmental dimension refers to the natural environment and the concern for environmental stewardship in business operations.

Carroll (1991) provides a four-part definition of company responsibilities to society that helps to guide CSR practice. These include: 1) economic responsibility to be profitable, 2) legal responsibility to abide by the laws of the respective society, 3) ethical responsibility to do what is right, just and fair, and 4) philanthropic responsibility to contribute to various kinds of social, educational, recreational, or cultural purposes (p. 42). Carroll's definition includes the firm's economic responsibility as a societal expectation coinciding with, and not separate from, the firm's legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities.

While references to the social responsibility of businesses and managers can be traced back to the 1930s and 1940s (Carroll, 1999), much of the research and practice was developed in the last 50 years. Many researchers (Carroll, 1999; Dahlsrud, 2008) point to Howard Bowen's

1953 text, *Social Responsibilities of the Businessman*, that argues that society drives CSR, as the starting point for modern research into CSR (Carroll, 1999).

In the 1970s, Keith Davis' work introduced "enlightened self-interest", which is the belief that business decisions can produce long-run economic gain, thereby creating a financial return through CSR strategies (Steiner, 1971). In 1971, the Committee for Economic Development published the *Social Responsibilities of Business Corporations* (1971), a report written primarily by businesspeople and educators. The report indicates that the practitioner's view of the social contract between business and society is changing and that society has increasing expectations of business to contribute to the overall quality of life more than simply providing products and services (Committee for Economic Development, 1971).

More recent CSR research focuses on stakeholder management as the primary framework for a firm's CSR strategies (Dahlsrud, 2008). According to Dahlsrud, CSR through stakeholder interaction is one of the most common approaches (2008). Freeman (1984) defines CSR from the stakeholder perspective by describing a stakeholder as any group or individual who can affect, or is affected by, the achievement of the organization's objectives. Breener & Cochran (1991) and Clarkson (1995) suggest that utilizing the stakeholder perspective of CSR serves as a better foundation than other more narrow perspectives.

A key movement in CSR is the belief that CSR can be more than a cost – it can be a source of opportunity, innovation, and competitive advantage - and it may be focused on a variety of activities throughout the firm's value chain (Porter & Kramer, 2006). Moreover, Porter and Kramer (2006) advise that many firms overlook the real benefits of CSR when they do not align their CSR initiatives with corporate strategy. Key strategic advantages of pursuing a CSR strategy include enhanced brand image, increased ability to enter new markets, and

improved risk avoidance (Smalheiser, 2006); competitive advantage, especially in high-growth

industries (Russo & Fouts, 1997); ability to attract and retain quality employees, reduce costs,

and increase operational efficiency (Hart & Ahuja, 1996); and improved market opportunities

(Porter & van der Linde, 1995). Firms that satisfy employee demand for CSR may be rewarded

with elevated worker loyalty, morale, and productivity (Moskowitz, 1972; Parket & Eibert,

1975). Other evidence indicates that firms in industries with skilled labor shortages can use CSR

as a means to recruit and retain workers (Siegel, 1999).

McWilliams and Siegel (2001), in a study to examine the change in consumer demand for

a firm's offerings based on the level of a firm's CSR commitment, argue that "consumers who

value CSR are willing to pay a higher price for a product with an additional social characteristic

than for an identical product without this characteristic" (p. 124). The authors also advise that

CSR can be used as a differentiation strategy to create new demand or to command a premium

price for a product. A differentiation strategy is a competitive strategy that involves the creation

of a product or service that is perceived as unique (Wheelan & Hunger, 2012). The

differentiation strategy for the firm can be done through both product and process innovations;

providing goods with a socially responsible feature and producing the goods in a socially

responsible manner (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

As firms evaluate their CSR initiatives, Porter and Kramer (2006) suggest two

approaches to CSR. Porter and Kramer define responsive CSR as acting as a good corporate

citizen and mitigating existing or anticipated adverse effects from business activities; whereas,

the authors define strategic CSR as when the firm centers on a small number of initiatives whose

social and business benefits are large and distinctive. According to Porter and Kramer (2006), in

a strategic CSR focus, a firm works to identify those social issues that most closely align with the

firm's activities and its value chain, and those issues the firm has the greatest ability to impact. Porter and Kramer recommend that a firm pursue strategic CSR initiatives that will potentially foster economic and social development and that will change how companies and society regard each other. While Lantos (2001) and Doane (2005) argue against strategic CSR, suggesting that companies should not financially profit from doing moral or social good, many researchers see no conflict (Carroll, 2011; Porter & Kramer, 2006). Two examples of strategic CSR initiatives include helping local schools produce a better educated workforce or improving local conditions to facilitate the attraction and retention of quality employees (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Corporate philanthropy is "the practice by companies of giving charitable donations to a wide range of societal institutions…whose goals are to benefit society in some way" (Waddock, 2011, p. 181). According to Waddock, corporate philanthropy has shifted from a voluntary activity to a societal expectation due, in part, to the tradition of corporate giving. Many businesses regularly contribute to local education, arts, and civic activities (Waddock, 2011). An example of corporate philanthropy is Wal-Mart's pledge in 2010 to donate $1.75 billion of food and $250 million in cash grants to support hunger relief organizations (Rooney, 2010). This philanthropic pledge by Wal-Mart does not appear to provide a direct strategic benefit back to the organization, but instead serves as a way for the corporation to support its communities.

Because many firms hope to achieve both social impact and corporate goodwill for their CSR efforts, public reporting of CSR results has become more common (Owen, 2003). Owen defines corporate social reporting as the process of communicating the social and environmental effects of organizations' economic actions to particular interest groups and to society at-large. Corporate social reporting extends beyond traditional financial reporting and suggests that firms are accountable to stakeholders for their performance on a variety of social and environmental

18

factors. Globally, a number of countries already require some form of corporate sustainability

disclosure, and there is growing support for similar requirements in the United States. For

example, in September 2009, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency issued the Mandatory

Reporting of Greenhouse Gases Rule (74 FR 56260) that requires the disclosure of greenhouse

gas emissions by large sources and suppliers in the United States ("United States Environmental

Protection Agency", 2013).

The perspectives of firms and society on the social responsibilities of business have

evolved in the last 50 years from the introduction of the concept by Bowen (1953) as an

obligation to operate the business consistent with the values of society, to Carroll's (1991)

research that CSR includes the firm's economic responsibility to be profitable, to Porter and

Kramer's (2006) proposal that CSR can create opportunity and economic growth. As societal

expectations of business continue to evolve, and as firms continue to look for new opportunities

for competitive advantage, the strategic pursuit and public reporting of innovative CSR

initiatives may be the keys to long-term growth.

Corporate Social Responsibility Critiques

Managers regularly encounter demands from multiple stakeholder groups to devote

resources to CSR (Clark & Hebb, 2004; Davies, 2003; *Economist,* 2005; McWilliams & Siegel,

2001). While many managers agree to allocate resources to enhance CSR activities, other

managers refuse such requests because they believe that CSR efforts are inconsistent with the

mission to maximize profits for their perceived most important stakeholders, the stockholders

(Doane, 2005; Friedman, 1962; Lantos, 2001).

Historically, corporate executives and society disagreed about the responsibilities of

business to society. Many executives focus primarily on profit maximization, while the general

public believes societal aid is also important (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006). Friedman is one of the critics of business' social responsibility role; he argues, "Few trends could so thoroughly undermine the very foundations of our free society as the acceptance by corporate officials of a social responsibility other than to make as much money for their stockholders as possible" (Friedman, 1962, p. 133). Friedman advocates that while firms must act legally, ethically, and honestly, they have no obligation to support societal needs. Furthermore, he suggests that government and social agencies, not businesses, must tackle social problems, and he advises managers to avoid interjecting personal philanthropic values when making decisions that could affect shareholder wealth (Lantos, 2001).

Some observers (Doane, 2005; Lantos, 2001; Signitzer & Anja, 2009) believe that corporations only promote CSR efforts to create a positive public image rather than having a true concern for stakeholders. Another frequent criticism (Friedman, 1962; Lantos, 2001), is that individuals have the primary responsibility to address civil, social, and political concerns since individuals, not companies, have the rights that relate to membership in a nation-state.

CSR opponents often argue that corporate financial performance is hindered by CSR initiatives, and that corporate funds should instead be reinvested into the firm's primary activities or distributed to the firm's stockholders (Lantos, 2001). Due to these concerns, much of the CSR literature centers on determining the relationship between a firm's CSR activities and its financial performance. To date, researchers present mixed results about the link between financial performance and CSR activities (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). However, Orlitzky, Schmidt, and Rynes' (2003) meta-analysis indicated a positive correlation of corporate social/environmental performance on corporate financial performance. Waddock and Graves (1997), found that an increase in corporate financial performance is positively correlated with an

increase in corporate social responsibility. Margolis and Walsh (2003) also found, through their review of 127 studies, a positive correlation, and an absence of a negative correlation, between a firm's social performance and its financial performance.

Human Resource Development

McLagan (1989) defined human resource development (HRD) as the integrated use of training, organizational, and career development to improve individual, group, and organizational effectiveness. While basic elements of human training and development have likely been carried out since primitive times, the theory and practice of the human resource development processes known today continue to be refined (Nadler, 1984).   Leonard Nadler first used the term "human resource development" in 1968 to describe the process of training and developing an organization's employees (Rothwell & Sredl, 1992), but a focused attention toward the management of an organization's employees became more common in the age of the Industrial Revolution with the advent of apprenticeship and job shadowing experiences (Singer, 1990).

A 1923 research study of employees of the Western Electric Company in Hawthorne, Illinois is frequently cited as a pivotal point in the human relations movement (Nadler, 1970). The study aimed to examine the effects of changing lighting on worker productivity. The researchers concluded that worker productivity was more affected by the perceptions of management attitude than by the physical interventions by the researchers. The results of this study were key in developing the fields of organizational psychology and the human relations movement (Nadler, 1970).

The proliferation of human resource training programs can be traced back to the establishment of The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training by the U.S. government in 1934

(Nadler, 1970). The program was designed to provide jobs and workplace skills to the large number of unemployed persons due to the Great Depression. The increased number of training programs resulted in a need for professionals to manage and administer the activities (Nadler, 1970). In 1945, the U.S. government created the Training Within Industry project led by Channing Dooley to utilize professional vocational educators and mangers to help prepare a workforce of older individuals, women, and minorities to support the national defense in World World II (Watkins & Marsick, 2014). As more professionals were hired to lead the training efforts, national organizations were created to support the needs of the professionals and serve as a conduit to advance the profession. In 1942, the American Society of Training Directors, now known as the American Society for Training and Development, was established and continues to serve as a source of support for human resource development professionals (Nadler, 1970).

The term human resource management is used to describe the design of employee positions, benefits and compensation structure, employee recruitment and evaluation, and the development of policies and procedures related to management of employees (Fortunator, Greenberg, & Weaddel, 1987). These roles are distinct from human resource development roles which include identifying employee and organization needs, designing and delivering education programs to support those needs, and evaluating the results (Fortunator, Greenberg, & Weaddel, 1987). The results of the Ontario Society for Training and Development study in 1976 suggest four primary roles of human resource development professionals including instructor, designer, manager, and consultant (Rothwell & Sredl, 1992). These roles include eleven key activity areas including administration, communication, course design, evaluation, group dynamic process, learning theory, human resource planning, person / organization interface, instruction, materials and equipment manager, and needs analysis (Rothwell & Sredl, 1992).

The field of HRD has the unique opportunity and relevant expertise to educate organizations about social responsibility and how to integrate social consciousness into corporate activities that may produce significant social change (Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003). While the HRD literature rarely addresses CSR (Hill, 1999), there is a growing interest in "socially conscious" practices, increasing the number of articles related to ethics, integrity, and sustainability (Swanson, 2001). More HRD researchers have called for further research to support practitioner efforts to help organizations be more socially aware and active (Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003; Korten, 1996; Marquardt, 2003). Sambrook (2003) predicted that HRD professionals will expand their roles to add CSR humanistic and emancipatory activities; HRD professionals may not only support CSE activities, they may become champions of CSE activities within their organizations.

As stockholders pressure corporate leaders to boost performance and profitability, HRD professionals have responded by focusing their goals on performance-driven strategies that maximize employee efficiency and increase firm profitability (Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003). While these are prudent fiscal goals, the HRD field risks losing sight of its human development goals. According to Bierema and D'Abundo (2003), HRD professionals must reconsider how their strategies impact human growth, learning, and development, not just corporate profits, and evaluate the social consciousness aspect of their practice and research. As an HRD activity, development refers to the general growth of the employee through non-job related learning (Nadler & Nadler, 1989). MacLean (2001) and Bates (2002) advised that the HRD profession should promote economic development and workplace learning, and should also be committed to the political, social, environmental, cultural, and spiritual development of people.

HRD researchers have also been criticized for not considering HRD's role in human and social development. In their review of 600 papers presented to the Academy of Human Resource Development from 1996 through 2000, Bierema and Cseh (2003) found little attention on issues of social justice in the workplace and suggested that HRD research had only weakly advocated for change. Furthermore, Fenwick and Bierema (2008) call for research to explore the practical links between CSR and HRD.

The literature uses the term socially conscious HRD to describe HRD's role in the ethical development of employees and to detail the firm's contribution to improve society. Bierema and D'Abundo (2003) define socially conscious HRD as:

> Socially conscious human resource development serves an educative and supportive role to help organizations uphold implied contracts, promote ethical management and leadership, advocate for stakeholders, broaden definitions and measures of organization performance, challenge and revise socially "unconscious" policies and practices, analyze and negotiate power relations, and promote the use of organization resources to create social benefit and improve social welfare. (p. 224)

HRD has two distinct traditions: a functionalist approach with an emphasis on performance and an approach that emphasizes human learning and development (Garavan & McGuire, 2010). Socially conscious HRD moderates the trend toward a performance improvement focus in HRD. Performance improvement philosophy views employee development as important when it generates improved organizational performance (Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003), whereas, socially conscious HRD philosophy is fundamentally concerned with enriching the quality of human life (Marquardt, 2003). Supporters of the socially conscious philosophy believe that social consciousness development itself is a learning process, and

24

because HRD is about growth and learning, social conscious development of employees has long-term benefits for the individual, organization, and society (Bierema, 1996; Dirkx, 1996).

According to the report from the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2005), organizations that want to successfully implement CSR strategies should consider including their HRD professionals in the activity. The report identifies HRD as a necessary component of CSR, and further suggests that without considering HRD, CSR is only public relations. HRD can play an important role in CSR because of its experience and ability to simultaneously balance its business role in the firm while continuing to question the organization's focus on efficiency (Garavan & McGuire, 2010). Becker, Carbo II, and Langella (2010) suggest that by linking employee development strategies to a company's economic, social, and environmental objectives it can create lasting industry advantage and enhance capabilities for social change. If a company decides to undertake a CSR commitment it must acknowledge the importance of education of employees, customers, suppliers and the community at large (Fenwick & Bierema, 2008) which is within the domain of HRD.

Many of the common challenges related to implementation of CSR programs cited in the literature related to education and learning are not significantly different from most issues related to organizational change (Fenwick & Bierema, 2008). Frequently cited problems in the literature include: levels of commitment to CSR principles vary within companies (Hemingway & MacLagan, 2004; McWilliams, Siegel, and Wright, 2006); employee resistance to implementing CSR strategies (L'Etang, 1995); and resistance to investment in CSR activities by shareholders (Bakan, 2004). HRD practitioners should be able to provide insight and assistance in addressing internal and external understanding of CSR through education and the implementation of CSR principles throughout the organization (Fenwick & Bierema, 2008). HRD has specific expertise

in executing change, changing culture, and engaging with organizational stakeholders and can help to develop a culture that supports CSR by raising awareness and developing positive attitudes in employees (Garavan & McGuire, 2010).

HRD has the capability and expertise to educate individuals and foster organizational change, and this knowledge can be applied to teaching ethical management and leadership, and helping to implement such practices (Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003). CSE is one way HRD leaders in firms can use corporate resources to promote social good both internally and externally to the company. Bierema and D'Abundo (2003) describe socially conscious HRD as the use of organization resources to promote social good with the ultimate goal that the organization not only educate internally about socially conscious behaviors, but play an external educative role in the community. Socially conscious HRD mirrors the goals of CSE. HRD can play a significant role in the development and unleashing of human expertise into CSE activities (Gilley, Quatro, & Lynham, 2003).

Social Entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship (SE) applies entrepreneurship and corporate innovation principles to social and environmental challenges (Austin et al., 2006; Hartigan, 2006; Chell, 2007; Short, et al. 2009). SE involves using the practices and processes most generally associated with entrepreneurship to achieve a social mission regardless of the presence or absence of a profit motive (Short, et al., 2009). Thus, a social venture's primary focus is to return value to the broader society as well as a financial return to the shareholder. SE may include entities that are non-profit, for-profit with a social mission, or a hybrid organization that combines both social and entrepreneurial activities. Mair and Marti (2006) define SE as a social

value creation process in which resources are combined in new ways to meet social needs, stimulate social change, or create new organizations.

As a discipline, SE is relatively new, but gaining popularity in the last decade. The field has been greeted with excitement from the private and public sectors as well as academia for its potential to positively impact social concerns through an entrepreneurial mindset. With the creation of national and international organizations such as the Skoll Foundation, the Schwab Foundation, and Ashoka, as well as significant efforts and resources put into academic programs at Harvard, Yale, Duke, Oxford and many other universities, social entrepreneurship is experiencing tremendous growth in both the numbers of new ventures and awareness of those firms in the past ten years (Bornstein & Davis, 2010).

To define social entrepreneurship, many researchers begin by first defining "entrepreneurship" for the word "social" simply modifies "entrepreneurship" (Martin & Osberg, 2007). Based on this understanding, the theoretical background of entrepreneurship should provide common links with the theories of social entrepreneurship. The word "entrepreneur" is of French origin and literally translates as "between-taker," "go-between," or "to undertake" (Dees, 2001). Jean Baptiste Say, a 19th century French economist, is credited with originating the term; defining an entrepreneur as "someone who shifts economic resources from a lower to a higher level of productivity" (Dees, 2001, p.1). The emphasis of this definition is on a person who pursues a project or endeavor of some kind. Most definitions of entrepreneurship in the literature involve a common theme of opportunity recognition, innovation, and the organization of resources to capitalize on the opportunity. Venkataraman (1997) provides a definition of entrepreneurship as the discovery, evaluation, and utilization of future goods and services. Shane (2003) provides another definition of entrepreneurship as an activity that involves the

27

discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities to provide new goods or services, or new ways of organizing markets, processes, and raw materials that did not previously exist. Peter Drucker (1985), the renowned management researcher and consultant, argues that "the entrepreneur always searches for change, responds to it, and exploits it as an opportunity" and that "not every new small business is entrepreneurial or represents entrepreneurship" (as cited in Dees, 2001, p. 2). Stevenson states that the entrepreneurial effort is "the pursuit of opportunity without regard to resources currently controlled" (as cited in Dees, 2001, p. 2). While there is some disagreement on a definition of entrepreneurship, there is agreement in these definitions that entrepreneurship is a mindset and a process of pursuing value creation; which can manifest itself as a startup firm or in existing organizations whether it be for profit or nonprofit, pursuing a financial mission or a social mission.

The word social, which modifies the term entrepreneurship, is derived from the Latin word *socialis*, meaning an associate, ally or companion. The word suggests the grouping of people into an interdependent group that cooperatively lives and works together. Thus, social is anything that concerns a community or society. Utilizing this framework as a definition for social entrepreneurship, a social entrepreneur identifies a problem within society, assembles the necessary resources, and works to address the societal need. Drayton (2005), one of the founders of today's social entrepreneurship movement through Ashoka, his global organization that works to identify and invest in social entrepreneurs, contends that the deliberate and intentional inclusion of entrepreneurial strategies and theories in the pursuit of social change is a defining feature of social entrepreneurship.

While research has yet to yield a consistent broadly agreed-upon definition of SE (Roberts & Woods, 2005), the aim and purpose of social entrepreneurs to work toward systemic

social change is understood (Light, 2008). Dees (2001), working to include key entrepreneurship

theory into the definition of social entrepreneurship, provides the following definition of social

entrepreneurship:

> Social entrepreneurs play the role of change agents in the social sector by adopting a
>
> mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value); recognizing and
>
> relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission; engaging in a process of
>
> continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning; acting boldly without being limited by
>
> resources currently in hand; and exhibiting heightened accountability to the
>
> constituencies served and for the outcomes created. (p. 22)

For social entrepreneurs, the goal is to create a sustainable venture that allows the firm to

generate profit as a by-product of its social improvement, as opposed to generating social

improvement as a by-product of profit. Social entrepreneurial ventures have as the primary

mission of the organization to positively impact a social concern through the use of market based

activities. Historical forms of entrepreneurship generally stem from self-focused desires such as

wealth accumulation; whereas SE today is generally understood to come from a more collective

interest focus, such as community development, thus resulting in the social mission of the

organization taking priority over the profit motivation (Lumpkin, Moss, Gras, Kato, & Amezcua,

2013). Santos (2009) provides further clarification by suggesting the key distinguishing factor of

SE is the emphasis on value created for the benefit of society instead of value appropriation for

individual gain. By adapting the same principles that have been effective in successful

entrepreneurship, business leaders may have similar opportunities to generate transformative,

financially sustainable solutions to social problems that face the nation (Kuratko, 2009b).

"Social entrepreneurship," note Martin and Osberg (2007), "is as vital to the progress of societies

as is entrepreneurship to the progress of economies, and it merits more rigorous, serious attention than it has attracted so far" (p. 39).

Just as corporate entrepreneurs operate within existing organizations to further the company's mission, so do corporate social entrepreneurs operate within existing organizations to further the company's social goals. Furthermore, corporate social entrepreneurs are distinct from social entrepreneurs in that they create and operate ventures within existing organizations. This form of entrepreneurship has increased in popularity in recent years and provides many advantages including increased access to consistent and reliable funding, existing distribution channels, and knowledge of existing markets. The Coca-Cola Company's "5by20" initiative serves as an example of CSE (Coca-Cola Company, 2013). This initiative's goal is to enable the economic empowerment of 5 million women entrepreneurs across Coca-Cola's global value chain by 2020 (Coca-Cola Company, 2013). Through this program, Coca-Cola offers women access to business training, financial services, and connections with peers and mentors to help eliminate the barriers many of these women face when trying to run a business. This program meets the definition of CSR as it goes beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law to help solve a societal concern (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). It also meets the definition of CE as it is an "entrepreneurial behavior that purposefully and continuously rejuvenates the organization and shapes the scope of its operations through the recognition and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunity" (Ireland, Covin, & Kuratko, 2009, p. 21). Thus, the "5by20" initiative serves as an example of CSE.

Social Entrepreneurship Challenges

While the practice of social entrepreneurship is rapidly gaining interest, research in the field is "barely past its infancy" (Light, 2008, p. 2) with no single agreed upon definition by

researchers (Bornstein & Davis, 2010; Davie, 2011). Because the field is new and is experiencing rapid growth, several unique challenges are presented in the literature. The lack of an agreed upon definition results in the literature being very broad and spread across a variety of disciplines and topics (Dorado, 2006). Social entrepreneurship research has been examined from a variety of academic disciplines resulting in an inconsistent approach to moving the field forward (Light, 2008). In social entrepreneurship there are "sharp disagreements about the characteristics of social entrepreneurs, the nature of socially entrepreneurial ideas, the number and timing of socially entrepreneurial opportunities, and the size and shape of socially entrepreneurial organizations" (Light, 2008, p. 11). This results in disparate research in the field to date (Dorado, 2006). There is a need to conceptualize the social entrepreneur construct more clearly in order to help future researchers develop a consistent body of knowledge to advance the field.

Eikenberry and Kluver (2004) caution against the market-based approach to addressing social problems. The authors cite concerns that social entrepreneurs may be motivated to only focus on social needs that have the potential to be profitable, thus avoiding unprofitable yet socially beneficial needs.

While there has been increased interest in the field of social entrepreneurship in the last ten years, much of the academic literature is focused on defining the term. There is little evidence of research in the literature to understand the antecedents to launching a social venture. In addition, implementation of SE is discussed almost exclusively in terms of new organizations or corporate social responsibility with little exploration of how CE might be used as a conduit for SE (Hemingway, 2005).

Organizational Factors in Corporate Social Entrepreneurship
Corporate Entrepreneurship Factors

The importance of macro-level variables (company type, environment, structure, and decision-making with entrepreneurship) has long been acknowledged in corporate entrepreneurial behavior (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002). Miller (1983), for example, found that firm type (i.e., simple, planning, and organic) moderates the relationship of the firm's entrepreneurial behavior and concludes that varying conditions within a firm may affect entrepreneurial strategy. Addressing the issue of organizational antecedents, Quinn (1985) identifies a number of factors for large corporations to consider when seeking innovative entrepreneurial activity including developing the atmosphere and vision for such activity, and structuring the organization for innovation. Similarly, Sathe (1989) concludes that the risk of individual innovation will strongly relate to support, structure, and resources and recommends that large institutions can manage the tension between the need to nurture an atmosphere of entrepreneurial activity and the need to maintain corporate controls by balancing disciplined reporting systems with a strong innovative culture of mutual trust and open communication. Studying Fortune 1000 firms, Hisrich and Peters (1986) define nine characteristics needed for a good environment within which new business units can be created, including management support, resources, experimentation, and multi-disciplined teamwork. In a study of 119 Fortune 500 CEOs, Zahra (1991) developed and tested a model that uses the elements of environment, corporate strategy, and organizational structure as the antecedents to corporate entrepreneurship. Finally, Damanpour (1991) conducted a meta-analysis of a large number of studies on corporate innovation and identifies a number of factors that consistently appear to be related to corporate innovation activities such as specialization, managerial attitude, and excess resources.

Despite the wide variety of factors that may influence corporate entrepreneurship, most contributions emphasize five dimensions of the firm's internal factors, which are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Organizational Factors Influencing Corporate Entrepreneurship

Factor	Research Citations
Top Management Support *Managers' willingness to facilitate entrepreneurial projects*	Quinn, 1985; Hisrich & Peters, 1986; MacMillan, Block, & Narasimha, 1986; Sathe, 1989; Sykes & Block, 1989; Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990; Damanpour, 1991; Kuratko, et al, 1993; Pearce, Kramer, & Robbins, 1997; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Kuratko, et al., 2001; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009.
Risk-Taking *Organizational willingness to take risks and to tolerate failure*	Burgelman, 1983, 1984; Kanter, 1985; Quinn, 1985; Sathe, 1989; MacMillan, Block, & Narasimha, 1986; Ellis & Taylor, 1988; Sykes & Block, 1989; Stopford & Baden-Fuller, 1994; Hornsby et al, 1999; and Hornsby et al, 2002; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009.
Rewards/Reinforcement *Effective and appropriate reward systems for entrepreneurial projects*	Kanter, 1985; Sathe, 1989; Block & Ornati, 1987; Fry, 1987; Sykes, 1992; Barringer & Milkovich, 1998; Kuratko, Ireland, & Hornsby, 2001; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009.
Resources/ Time Availability *Perception of availability of appropriate resources for entrepreneurial projects*	Kanter, 1985; Sathe, 1989; Burgelman & Sayles, 1986; Hisrich & Peters, 1986; Sykes, 1986; Sykes & Block, 1989; Damanpour, 1991; Stopford and Baden-Fuller, 1994; Slevin & Covin, 1997; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009.
Organizational Boundaries *Organizational structure sufficient to support entrepreneurial projects*	Hisrich & Peters, 1986; Schuler, 1986; Sykes & Block,1989; Guth and Ginsberg, 1990; Covin and Slevin, 1991; Damanpour, 1991; Zahra, 1991; Brazeal, 1993; Hornsby, et al, 1993; Hornsby et al, 1999; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Hornsby et al, 2002; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009.

A first element is management support, which relates to the willingness of managers to facilitate entrepreneurial projects (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990; Damanpour, 1991; Kuratko, et al, 1993; Pearce, Kramer, & Robbins, 1997; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Kuratko, et al., 2001; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009). Managerial support can take a variety of forms, including championing ideas or providing resources or expertise (Kuratko & Hornsby, 1998).

A second element is risk-taking that takes the form of a willingness to take risks and to tolerate failure (Sykes & Block, 1989; Stopford & Baden-Fuller, 1994; Hornsby et al, 1999; Hornsby et al, 2002; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009). An individual's self-efficacy may play a key role in willingness to take risks (Bandura, 1986). Gist and Mitchell (1992) define self-efficacy as a person's belief about his or her capacity to succeed at a specific task, or "a judgment about task capability that is not inherently evaluative" (p. 185). Self-efficacy has repeatedly been shown to predict task success (Bandura, 1986; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and thus may be a factor in a person's willingness to take risk.

A third element is the appropriate use of rewards (Fry, 1987; Sykes, 1992; Barringer & Milkovich, 1998; Kuratko, Ireland, & Hornsby, 2001; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009). Researchers stress that, to be effective in encouraging entrepreneurship, a reward system must consider goals, feedback, emphasis on individual responsibility, and results-based rewards (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002). Pinder (2008) notes "reinforcement implies that a behavior is made more probable, or more frequent, by its consequences" (p. 442). According to Kuratko and Hornsby (1998), the use of rewards also increases an employee's inclination to assume risks associated with entrepreneurship.

Resources (including time) and the availability of resources for entrepreneurship activities are a fourth element often recognized (Sykes, 1986; Sykes & Block, 1989; Damanpour,

1991; Stopford & Baden-Fuller, 1994; Slevin & Covin, 1997; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009). Entrepreneurship activities require that employees perceive the availability of resources (Kuratko & Hornsby, 1998). Cohen and Wills (1985) indicate there are four basic types of resources that can be provided for support: emotional, informational, companionship, and instrumental. Emotional support enhances self-esteem by communicating to others that they are valued. Informational support is provided to help define, understand, and cope with problems. Companionship is spending leisure or recreational time with someone to distract them from their difficulties. Finally, instrumental support consists of financial or material support provided to address problems or provide additional time. The availability of excess resources can encourage experimentation and risk taking behavior (Kuratko & Hornsby, 1998).

A final consistent element is the existence of a supportive organizational structure (Damanpour, 1991; Zahra, 1991; Brazeal, 1993; Hornsby, et al, 1993; Hornsby et al, 1999; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Hornsby, et al, 2002; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009). An organizational structure that provides the administrative tools by which ideas are evaluated, chosen, and implemented and clearly communicates expectations and job duties to the individual can play a key role in facilitating corporate entrepreneurship (Hornsby, et al, 2002).

In addition to the five organizational factors that previous literature indicates support a corporate entrepreneurial environment that are summarized in Table 2.1, four additional factors, summarized in Table 2.2, stakeholder salience, social proactiveness, corporate governance, and transparency were identified in the literature that may specifically enhance the social impact of the organization through a corporate entrepreneurial environment. The following sections review the literature for each of these proposed new antecedents.

Stakeholder Salience

Most of the scholarly research on stakeholder theory stems from the research of Freeman (1984), and Donaldson and Preston (1995). According to Freeman (1984), a stakeholder is "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (1984, p 46). Stakeholder theory suggests that other groups, regardless of economic claim, should be considered when decisions are made by firm leaders; as opposed to the more traditional focus of managing firms only for stockholder interests and profit maximization (Freeman, 1984). Research shows that companies tend to concentrate their attention on key stakeholders like shareholders, employees, and customers (Agle, Mitchell, & Sonnenfeld, 1999; Knox, Maklan, & French, 2005). While there are various moral principles proposed to justify stakeholder theory, many scholars agree that firms should recognize the ethical responsibility of firm actions that affect others (Carroll, 2011; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984).

A challenge in stakeholder research is in determining how much priority managers do (or should) give different groups. Clarkson (1988), for example, suggests that companies have different levels of stakeholders. Primary stakeholders are those "without whose continuing participation the corporation cannot survive" and secondary stakeholders are those "who influence or affect, or are influenced or affected by, the corporation" (Clarkson, 1988, p. 259). This is known as stakeholder salience – i.e., how salient is a group to the organization's decisions? Because an organization is unlikely to give each stakeholder equal attention, researchers have sought to identify how managers allocate their attention to related groups (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997) identify three key attributes—legitimacy, urgency, and power—that affect the salience that a group has with the

organization and, consequently, how decision makers attend to stakeholders. A stakeholder's salience is determined by the perception of these combined attributes.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) described a three-part taxonomy of the stakeholder theory, which included descriptive, instrumental and normative categorizations. Descriptive stakeholder theory suggests which stakeholders will be important, why they will be important, and how the firm deals with them (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001). Instrumental theory describes the consequences of managerial action where stakeholder management is an instrument to promote economic objectives (Garriga & Mele, 2004). Normative stakeholder theory describes the moral propriety of managerial behavior (Evan & Freeman, 1983; Freeman, 1994).

Managers place different degrees of significance to the importance of effecting and influencing groups (Carroll, 1979; Waddock & Graves, 1997; Wood, 1991). Agle, Mitchell, and Sonnenfeld (1999) examined stakeholder salience among 80 large U.S. firms, and found a significant relationship existed between salience and corporate social performance. Other research has suggested that managers generally concede to proposals by salient stakeholders (David, Bloom, & Hillman, 2007). Moreover, because salient stakeholders tend to have control over critical resources to a firm's survival, the firm has to be sensitive to their needs and comply with their requests in order to sustain the business (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

Vandekerckhove and Dentchev (2005) suggest that increased understanding of the roles that all stakeholders play can provide entrepreneurial opportunities for the development of new products and services. Specifically, by maintaining relationships with multiple stakeholders, entrepreneurs are exposed to the needs of their constituencies, making it possible to engage in proactive behavior to offer products or services to fill these needs (Vandekerckhove & Dentchev, 2005).

Low (2006) suggests that social entrepreneurs are likely to have a wider array of relevant stakeholders than commercial ventures. In social ventures, the entrepreneur is also likely to give credence to a wider variety of stakeholders. For example, those that are directly afflicted by the social ill, and the primary reason the venture exists, are likely to be given more legitimacy and power as stakeholders (Low, 2006). In commercial ventures, those with a fiduciary stake in the business such as investors, employees, customers and suppliers are the most influential stakeholders (Rutherford, Buller, & Stebbins, 2009); whereas other groups such as local citizens, government agencies, or the local community may have less legitimacy or power for commercial ventures as they are nonfiduciary stakeholders (Lumpkin et al., 2013).

The power of stakeholders refers to their ability to bring about the outcomes they desire due to the dependence of the company on the stakeholders for resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). A stakeholder's urgency is determined by who demands attention within time constraints (Wartick & Mahon, 1994).   Legitimacy is the perception that the activities of the stakeholder group are desirable, proper, or appropriate within socially constructed norms, values, beliefs, and definitions (Suchman, 1995). Legitimacy is "based upon, for example, contract, exchange, legal title, legal right, moral right, at-risk status, or moral interest in the harms and benefits generated by company actions;" power refers to a stakeholder's ability to influence a company's behavior; and urgency is "the degree to which a stakeholder's claim calls for immediate action" (Agle, Mitchell, & Sonnenfeld, 1999 p. 508). Researchers have examined these stakeholder attributes and found that not only do they have a significant relationship with stakeholder salience but also that there is a significant relationship between stakeholder salience and corporate social performance (Waddock & Graves, 1997; Agle, Mitchell, & Sonnenfeld, 1999). In addition,

Mishra & Suar (2010) conducted a study on India-based firms and found that stakeholder salience is a potent antecedent of CSR.

Social Proactiveness

Clarkson (1988, 1991, 1995) suggests that organizational posture impacts the level of stakeholder salience in the firm. The concept of posture is used in management research to assess the overall approach that organizations use to implement their goals, which requires active thought and constant maintenance by decision makers (Freeman & Gilbert, 1988). Posture has an extensive presence within the strategic management literature. Miles and Snow (1978) describe posture as a firm's decision about which markets to enter and the competitive orientation in those markets. Covin and Slevin (1989, p. 77) define strategic posture "as a firm's overall competitive orientation." According to Ozmoyer, Calantone, and DiBonnetto (1997), posture affects how a firm selects and interprets its environment and how it utilizes its resources. The environmental management literature has also employed posture to address ecological issues and sustainable development (Azzone & Bertele, 1994; Buysse & Verbeke, 2003; Hunt & Auster, 1990; Roome, 1992; Schot & Fischer, 1993; Shrivastava, 1995). Especially pertinent is the application of posture to the study of how organizations view and respond to social issues where the construct has been used to capture organizational responses to stakeholders (Clarkson, 1988; 1991).

Researchers have categorized posture in different ways. Miles and Snow (1978) offer a typology of defenders, reactors, analyzers, and prospectors. Covin and Slevin (1989) incorporate the defender term and Mintzberg's (1973) adaptive organizations into an entrepreneurial classification, which focuses on the risks that top management is willing to take to bring change, foster innovation, and gain competitive advantage.

Introduced by Carroll (1979) and modified by Wartick and Cochran (1985), a common corporate social responsibility categorization is reactive, defensive, accommodative, and proactive. Reactive means that less is done than is required; defensive means that the least required actions are done; accommodative means that all that is required is done; and proactive means that doing more than is required is accomplished. Companies in reactive posture deny responsibility on social issues; defensive companies admit responsibility but fight it; accommodative companies accept responsibilities on issues; and proactive companies anticipate responsibility and search for ways to be leaders on the issues. Clarkson (1988; 1991) extended this format to develop an RDAP (Reactive, Defensive, Accommodative, and Proactive) scale to measure company approaches to social issues and stakeholders. Clarkson (1991) then identified four principal areas of analysis (human resources, environmental issues, community relations, and ethics) and made use of historical information obtained in a case study approach to score the companies.

Socially proactive organizations will seek to influence and change environments rather than responding out of necessity or survival. Jauch and Glueck (1988) define a proactive strategy as one in which strategists act before they are forced to react to environmental threats and opportunities. Proactiveness can be resources intensive but aids significantly in maintaining competitiveness because it involves monitoring customers, competitors and other external influences including legislation/regulation, societal values/norms, and economic conditions (Sandberg, 2002). Proactive behaviors include identifying opportunities, challenging the status quo, and creating favorable conditions. These characteristics are similar to the approach taken by corporate entrepreneurs and thus could be a critical component of corporate social entrepreneurship.

41

Corporate Governance

Corporate governance mechanisms are intended to provide some assurance that managers will strive to achieve outcomes that coincide with shareholder interests. Daily, Dalton, and Cannella (2003) define corporate governance as "the determination of the broad uses to which organizational resources will be deployed and the resolution of conflicts among the myriad participants in organizations" (p. 371). Corporate governance mechanisms include compensation contracts that encourage expected activities and behaviors, a properly constructed board of directors, and internal checks and balances for ethical and transparent conduct.

In practice, many governance reforms are enacted to ensure that both legitimate and effective activities are enacted in the organization. Some of the reforms include adding independent outside directors to boards, separating the CEO and Chairman of the Board positions, inserting term limits for directors, and establishing executive compensation packages that depend on closer correspondence between results and goals (Dalton, Daily, Johnson, & Ellstrand, 1999). Even though two meta–analyses of corporate governance have found little connection between governance reforms and the financial performance of firms (Dalton, Daily, Certo, & Roengpitya, 2003; Dalton, Daily, Johnson, & Ellstrand, 1999), the future of governance procedures should not be overlooked in regards to social entrepreneurial activity. Daily, et al. (2003) identify a number of developing themes in governance, such as monitoring by the board of directors of executive activity and results, more active shareholder influence, and the mechanisms in place for periods of crisis (such as the economic, social, and societal issues) (p. 375). As Ghoshal and Moran (1996) state, "the context in which social relations and economic exchange are embedded can induce self aggrandizement or trust, individualism or collectivism, competition or cooperation among participants. Economic progress requires both sets of

behaviors in each set of alternatives, not just one or the other" (p. 41). Sundaramurthy and Lewis (2003) suggest a governance system that balances control and collaboration may be most conducive to activity directed at social impact. As the CERES sustainability roadmap indicates (CERES, 2010), corporate governance should be included as an important antecedent for perceiving an environment conducive to social responsibility activity.

Transparency and Disclosure

Disclosure is a mechanism for companies to build relationships with key groups and is important to the process for identifying new business opportunities (CERES, 2010). Comprehensive transparency and disclosure of performance at all levels (environmental, social and economic) is a critical component of an organization's social responsibility strategy (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

In order for firms to capitalize on CSR as a differentiation strategy, they need to be able to raise awareness through advertising and promotions that the firm provides products with CSR attributes (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Firms may choose to demonstrate socially responsible behaviors by embodying a product with socially responsible attributes, such as labeling products as organic, non-animal-tested, or made from recycled materials. The presumption is that consumers will view the firms that actively support CSR as more reliable and therefore their products of a higher quality.

Mandatory environmental and social disclosure is becoming a standard operating practice. A number of countries already require some form of corporate sustainability disclosure, and there is growing support for similar requirements in the United States. For example the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency issued the Mandatory Reporting of Greenhouse Gases Rule (74 FR 56260) that requires the disclosure of greenhouse gas emissions by large sources and

suppliers in the United States (United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2013). Market

information providers, including Bloomberg, have seen the growing importance of a firm's

social and environmental impact and are taking advantage of this rising interest in corporate

sustainability disclosure. The Bloomberg research organization has launched a new product that

allows clients to search, display, and store sustainability information on over 3,000 publicly

traded companies on their terminals. The growth in social media has also created new

opportunities for dialogue but also new pressure for transparency. As social media enables

internet users to share news and make their opinions about corporate social issues known in real

time, companies have to be prepared for open and honest discussion of social impact

performance issues as they arise (CERES, 2010).

While many firms use internal and voluntary responsibility management standards for

tracking CSR, other firms elect to adhere to a variety of international responsibility assurance

standards designed to demonstrate the firm's commitment to CSR. The following list of codes

and principles was compiled to demonstrate the opportunity firms have to demonstrate their

commitment to CSR and is not meant to be exhaustive. These codes and principles include: UN

Global Compact, OECD Guidelines for Multinational Companies, Marine Stewardship Council's

Principles and Guidelines for Sustainable Fishing, Natural Step's Sustainability Principles,

Global Sullivan Principles of Corporate Social Responsibility, the UN's Norms on the

Responsibilities of Transnational Corporations and Other Enterprises with regard to Human

Rights, the Sustainability Forestry Principles, the Clean Clothes Campaign, the CERES

(Coalition for Environmentally Responsible Economies) Principles, the Workplace Code of

Conduct of the Fair Labor Association, and the Keidanren Charter for Good Corporate Behavior.

Companies are beginning to disclose social impact and performance in a wide variety of new communication techniques. These new techniques are reaching a different set of stakeholders than in the past. The CERES 21st Century Roadmap (2010) provides some examples:

> Dole created a website for their organic program where customers can type in the 3-digit code found on a sticker on their fruit and get information about the farm where the fruit came from, including location, size, relevant certifications, and even photos of the farmers themselves. This deeper look into the value chain also provides companies the opportunity to communicate any challenges or problems that have arisen in a product's life cycle. (p. 40)

> Timberland communicates directly with consumers through its Green Index Labels featured on the company's shoeboxes. The labels highlight the name and location of the factory where products are made. The labels also describe the climate impact, chemicals used, and resource consumption of the product. Timberland is actively engaging its industry peers to create a standardized label that will offer comparability for the consumer. (p. 23)

> Companies are also using social media to reach consumers and employees. Business for Innovative Climate & Energy Policy (BICEP) companies, including eBay, Starbucks, and Symantec, are using Twitter and Facebook to educate consumers and build public support for comprehensive climate legislation. Companies like AEP, McDonald's, and Sun Microsystems are using podcasts and

blogs to communicate internal and external perspectives on their sustainability

programs to employees. (p. 40)

Although transparency and full disclosure will certainly help promote an atmosphere of

trust and willingness to pursue socially entrepreneurial activities, government regulation and

citizen advocacy groups will still be a critical part of the oversight (Karkkainen, 2001).

Table 2: Corporate Social Entrepreneurship Antecedents

Factor	Research Citations
Stakeholder Salience *The degree of significance given to effected and influencing groups*	Vanderkerckhove & Dentchev, 2005; Clarkson, 1988, 1991, 1995; Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997; Waddock and Graves, 1997; Agle, Mitchell, & Sonnenfeld, 1999; Mair & Marti, 2006; Kuratko, Hornsby, and Goldsby, 2007.
Social Proactiveness *The degree to which the firm seeks to influence and change environments rather than responding out of necessity or survival*	Clarkson,1988, 1991, 1995; Freeman & Gilbert, 1988; Miles and Snow, 1978; Porter, 1985; Covin and Slevin, 1989; Ozmoyer, Calantone, & DiBonnetto, 1997; Shrivastava, 1995; Schot and Fischer, 1993; Azzone & Bertele, 1994; Hunt & Auster, 1990; Roome, 1992; Buysse & Verbeke, 2003; Carroll,1979; Wartick and Cochran, 1985; Jauch and Glueck, 1988; Sandberg, 2002.
Governance *The system by which corporations are governed and controlled*	Zahra, 1996; Dalton, Daily, Ellstrand, & Johnson, 1998; Dalton, Daily, Certo, & Roengpitya, 2003; Forbes & Milliken, 1999; Zahra, Neubaum & Huse, 2000; Daily, Dalton, & Cannella, 2003; Certo, 2003; Sundaramurthy & Lewis, 2003.
Transparency *The advertising or promoting of firm activities to the public*	Gray & Collison, 1991; Roberts, 1992; Lowenstein, 1996; Solomon, 2000; Wheeler & Elkington, 2001; Livesay & Kearins, 2002; Lancey et. al. 2010.

Summary of Corporate Social Entrepreneurship Antecedents

In addition to the five organizational factors that previous literature indicates support a corporate entrepreneurial environment (summarized in Table 1), four additional factors (summarized in Table 2) were identified in the literature that may specifically enhance the social impact of the organization through a corporate entrepreneurial environment.

First, stakeholder salience, or the relative importance a firm gives to a particular stakeholder, may impact a firm's corporate social entrepreneurship strategy (Vanderkerckhove & Dentchev, 2005). Research suggests that managers generally concede to proposals by salient stakeholders (David, Bloom, & Hillman, 2007) and further suggests that increased understanding of the roles that stakeholders play can provide entrepreneurial opportunities for the development of new products and services (Vanderkerckhove & Dentchev, 2005).

Next, a firm's level of social proactiveness may impact its ability to pursue corporate social ventures (Ozmoyer, Calantone, & DiBonnetto, 1997). Social proactiveness refers to the firm's posture, or overall orientation, toward impacting social issues. A firm that is socially proactive will seek to influence and change its social environment rather than responding out of necessity or survival (Jauch & Glueck, 1988) and will deploy resources to positively impact social issues (Ozmoyer, Calantone, & DiBonnetto, 1997).

Corporate governance may also play a role in a firm's stance toward corporate social entrepreneurship (Sundaramurthy & Lewis, 2003). Daily, Dalton, and Cannella (2003) define corporate governance as "the determination of the broad uses to which organizational resources will be deployed and the resolution of conflicts among the myriad of participants in organizations" (p. 371). Sundaramurthy and Lewis (2003) suggest a governance system that balances control and collaboration may be most conducive to a culture of social impact.

Finally, a firm's level of transparency may impact its corporate social entrepreneurship programs (CERES, 2010). As environmental and social disclosure is becoming more commonplace, firms have identified transparency in social and environmental impact as a way to build relationships with key stakeholders and as an important step for identifying new business opportunities (CERES, 2010). In order for firms to capitalize on a corporate social entrepreneurship strategy, they will need to be able to raise awareness through advertising and promotions of the firm's CSR initiatives (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

Summary of Literature Review

The review of literature focused on key areas that impact a CSE strategy: corporate social responsibility, human resource development, social entrepreneurship, and the organizational factors that are hypothesized to impact CSE activity. The review provided the context for understanding the role that a business may choose to play in helping to solve today's societal challenges. While society's view of the social responsibility of business has evolved over time, the literature supports the view that pursuing socially responsible activities may be a source of competitive advantage for the firm. Despite the espoused and observed positive effects of CE in the literature, implementation of SE has been discussed almost exclusively in terms of new organizations with little exploration of how CE might be used as a conduit for SE in existing organizations (Hemingway, 2005). A variety of studies have helped to lay the groundwork to understanding the organizational factors that need to be present in order to pursue a corporate entrepreneurship strategy (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002), however, this review reveals a gap in the literature about which organizational factors specifically affect a CSE strategy.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between socially conscious HRD training programs and the development of new CSR initiatives, and the relationship between perceived organizational factors related to CSE and the development of new CSR initiatives. Specifically, the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended, hours in socially conscious HRD training programs, along with the five factors in the Corporate Entrepreneurship Assessment Instrument (CEAI) and additional measures of social proactiveness, stakeholder salience, governance, and transparency were utilized as independent variables in the study.

First, mean values were calculated on demographic variables to describe the data sample. Second, regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between participation in socially conscious HRD training programs and the creation of new CSR initiatives. Third, an exploratory factor analysis was performed to identify the number of factors in the organizational factors data and to identify which items load onto each factor. Fourth, stepwise regression analysis was conducted to assess the relationship of each of the perceived organizational factors determined in the factor analysis and suggestion of new CSR initiatives.

Research Methodology

This study utilized a correlation research design. The study aimed to explore the relationship between socially conscious HRD training programs and the development of new CSR initiatives, and the relationship between perceived organizational factors related to CSE and the development of new CSR initiatives. This research sought to establish whether or not a statistically significant relationship existed between participation in socially conscious HRD

training programs and number of new CSR initiatives and whether or not a statistically significant relationship existed between perceived organizational characteristics and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

The following hypotheses are proposed in the study:

H0a: There is no relationship between the participation in socially conscious HRD training programs and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

H1a: The participation in socially conscious HRD training programs training programs correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

H0b: There is no relationship between perceived organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

H1b: The perception of organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Pilot study

In order to test the content validity and completeness of the survey questions, a pilot study of the survey utilizing a convenience sample of 10 mid and senior level managers in regional businesses was conducted. Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) recommend asking pilot study participants to make comments and suggestions concerning the survey directions, recording procedure and specific items including issues of both commission and omission in the survey questions (p. 181). Participants in the pilot study were asked to complete the survey while documenting areas of concern and suggestions for improvement. All feedback was carefully considered and appropriate revisions to the survey instrument were made.

Based on the pilot study, the following changes were made to the survey instrument.

- Definitions of key terms were added to each page of the survey. Key terms included: corporate social responsibility, corporate social entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, and corporate volunteering; along with corporate examples of each

- The question on "number of new ideas proposed within the past year" was changed to "number of new ideas proposed within the past 12 months"

- The survey questions were separated and more clarity was provided to distinguish questions related to CSR activity from more general corporate environment questions

Sampling Procedures

The data were collected through survey distribution using a convenience sample of mid-level or senior-level managers in firms. An online survey (see appendix A) with randomized questions was distributed through the Qualtrix survey platform to an existing email list of 504 alumni from Kansas State University in firms in the Kansas City region who agreed to receive email communication from the College of Business Administration. Additional requests to complete the survey were sent through CSR LinkedIn groups, to members of the Kansas State University College of Business Administration Management Advisory Board members, and to members of the Kansas State University Center for the Advancement of Entrepreneurship Advisory Board. Following Dillman's (2000) recommendation for conducting online surveys, an email introduction of the study was sent to the population alerting them to the survey that will arrive in a few days. Subsequent reminder emails were sent in five-day intervals encouraging them to complete the survey. A total of three reminder emails were sent. A random drawing for five, $100 Amazon gift cards was provided as an incentive for completing the survey. Upon

successfully completing the survey, participants were automatically forwarded to a separate

survey to enter their email address to enter the random drawing, thereby ensuring the anonymous

nature of the data collection. Through this sampling method, this study attempted to collect data

from a broad group of company leaders. A total of 152 surveys were successfully completed for

a response rate of 30.36%.

Dillman's design principles for web surveys (Dillman, 2000, p. 400) were followed when

developing the online survey tool and requesting participation from the population. This

included:

- Creating an attractive interface through the use of colors, fonts, and formatting

- Designing the survey for a variety of programs and monitor sizes

- Keeping the verbiage brief

- Varying the verbiage with each email contact

- Beginning the survey with an easy question

Green (1991) provides two sets of guidelines for acceptable sample size. When testing

the overall fit of a regression model, Green recommends a sample size of 50 + 8 (k); where k is

the number of predictor variables. For this research, where k=5, the guideline indicates a sample

size of 90 is sufficient. Green's second guideline refers to research testing the individual

predictor variables and provides the formula 104 + k. For this research, where k=5, the guideline

indicates a sample size of 109 is sufficient. Miles and Shevlin (2001) provide sample size

guidelines based on the need to achieve a certain level of power for different effect sizes. The

power of a statistical test refers to the probability that the test will reject the null hypothesis when

the null hypothesis is false; the probability of not committing a Type II error (Field, 2009). As

the power increases, the chances of a Type II error decreases. Utilizing Miles and Shevlin

(2001) guidelines, in order to achieve a high level of power with five predictor variables and a medium effect size, a sample size of 100 is sufficient. Therefore, the 152 surveys collected for this research was considered to be sufficient to meet each of the criterions for acceptable sample size.

Instrument Design

The Corporate Entrepreneurial Assessment Instrument (CEAI) is one of the few research-based tools that attempt to measure an organization's cultural readiness for entrepreneurial activity. The development of the survey items are based on the extensive research (Hornsby, Kuratko & Zahra, 2002; Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd, & Bott, 2009) that have gone through numerous iterations since publication of the original instrument (Kuratko, Montagno & Hornsby, 1990).

Numerous studies have been conducted to assess the reliability and validity of the CEAI. Kuratko, Montagno, and Hornsby (1990) established Top Management Support, Risk-taking, Rewards/Reinforcement, Resource/Time Availability, and Organizational Boundaries as the underlying environmental factors required for individuals to behave entrepreneurially. Their results were reinforced by the findings of a study of 199 CEOs of U.S. based corporations which examined these antecedents and the association between internal entrepreneurship and the financial performance of the firm (Zahra, 1991). Hornsby, Kuratko, and Montagno (1999) supported the existence of these factors in a cross-cultural study of Canadian firms while Hornsby, Kuratko, and Zahra (2002) established sound psychometrical properties measuring factors. Hornsby, Kuratko, and Zahra (2002) research resulted in coefficient α's of .89, .87, .75, .77, and .64 for management support, autonomy, rewards, time availability, and organizational boundaries, respectively. Thus, the validity and use of the CEAI for corporate entrepreneurial

readiness serves as an excellent basis for assessing a firm's readiness for corporate entrepreneurship. This research modified the CEAI by adding additional elements to measure stakeholder salience, social proactiveness, governance, and transparency to work toward an assessment of a firm's readiness for corporate social entrepreneurial activity.

A series of self-report questions were also developed to assess the intensity of corporate social responsibility activities in the firm. These items included:

- Number of corporate social responsibility training programs offered in the last 12 months

- Number of corporate social responsibility training programs attended in the last 12 months

- Number of hours in corporate social responsibility training programs in the last 12 months

- Number of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested

- Number of new corporate social responsibility ideas implemented

- Number of hours per week spent thinking about new corporate social responsibility ideas

- Number of new companies started by firm

- Number of new companies with a social mission started by firm

Conclusion

This research explores the relationship between socially conscious HRD training programs and the development of new CSR initiatives, and the relationship between perceived organizational factors related to CSE and the development of new CSR initiatives. Adapting from the corporate entrepreneurship literature, this research builds on existing models and also

introduces the concepts of social proactiveness, stakeholder salience, governance, and transparence. The research explores the relationship between attending socially conscious HRD training programs and the development of new CSR ideas for the company and suggests that heightened awareness of corporate social responsibility can trigger new corporate social responsibility ideas that allow the firm to be socially responsible and improve the organization's bottom line.

After reviewing the theoretical and empirical research (e.g., Hornsby, Naffziger, Kuratko, & Montagno, 1993; Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002) that underlie the organizational antecedents to corporate entrepreneurial activity (Kuratko, Hornsby, & Goldsby (2004), additional factors of stakeholder salience, social proactiveness, governance, and transparency are suggested that enable extension of CE models to the domain of social entrepreneurial activity. Specifically, an increased focus on CSR will act as a trigger to influence the implementation of new socially responsible initiatives. In addition, this research adapts the Corporate Entrepreneurship Assessment Instrument – CEAI (Hornsby et al. 2002, Kuratko, Ireland, Covin, & Hornsby, 2005, Ireland et al. 2006a; 2006b, and Hornsby, et al. 2009) to incorporate these new dimensions and helps to lay the groundwork to form a new instrument to measure the antecedents to corporate social entrepreneurship.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Analysis Procedures

Data were entered into SPSS Software (version 20, Chicago, IL). First, descriptive statistics were calculated on demographic variables to describe the data sample. Next, a stepwise multiple regression was conducted to determine the relationship between the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended, the number of hours in socially conscious HRD training programs and the number of new CSR ideas suggested. Next, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the perceived organizational factors to identify the number of factors in the data and to identify which items load onto each factor. The use of a factor analysis is exploratory and should be used to guide future hypotheses, or to inform researchers about patterns with data sets (Field, 2009). Through factor analysis, variables that do not significantly load onto a factor are dropped from the model, resulting in a reduction of data and a more parsimonious fit. A stepwise multiple regression was conducted to explore the relationship between the factors and number of new CSR ideas suggested. A final stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted with all of the potential independent variables to assess the relationship among each of the variables in the model.

Of the 152 respondents, 96 (63.16%) were male, and 56 (36.84%) were female. One respondent (.65%) had some college, 92 (60.53%) had a college degree, 53 (34.64%) had a Master's degree, and six (3.92%) had a professional degree. In regards to the respondent's job title, 39 (25.66%) identified themselves as entry-level management, 67 (44.08%) identified as middle-level management, and 46 (30.26%) identified as senior-level management. In regards to whether or not the respondents primary job duties related to corporate social responsibility; 52 (34.12%) were related to corporate social responsibility and 100 (65.79%) were not related to

corporate social responsibility. Since firm size has been found to have potential links to social

performance in previous studies (Deckop, Merriman, & Gupta, 2006; Waddock & Graves, 1997)

it is important to examine the firm size of survey participants for consideration as a control

variable. Of the 152 respondents, 7 (4.61%) had 1 to 4 employees, 6 (3.95%) had 5 to 9

employees, 9 (5.92%) had 10 to 19 employees, 26 (17.11%) had 20 to 99 employees, 24

(15.79%) had 100 to 499 employees, 7 (4.61%) had 500 to 749 employees, 3 (1.97%) had 750 to

999 employees, 7 (4.61%) had 1,000 to 1,499 employees, 3 (1.97%) had 2,000 to 2,499

employees, 12 (7.89%) had 2,500 to 4,999 employees, 12 (7.89%) had 5,000 to 9,999

employees, and 36 (23.68%) had 10,000 or more employees. Firm size was used as a control

variable in each of the regression analyses.

Next, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted using SPSS software to

analyze the survey responses. The number of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested

in the past 12 months was used as the dependent variable and the number of socially conscious

HRD training programs attended in the past 12 months and number of hours in socially

conscious HRD training programs in the last 12 months were used as independent variables for

the analysis. Since firm size has been found to have potential links to social performance in

previous studies (Deckop, Merriman, & Gupta, 2006; Waddock & Graves, 1997) 2012 annual

revenue was used as a control variable. Stepwise regression was chosen for this research because

of its ability to assess the relationship between several independent variables and a single

dependent variable. According to Cohen (1988), this method is designed to select which

independent variable makes the largest contribution to R^2 from a group of independent variables

when previous research does not provide clear evidence of the relative importance of the

independent variables. This is done as an iterative procedure that repeatedly enters independent

variables into the equation until there is no statistically significant improvement in the model. Tables 3 – 6 summarize the results of the analysis. In each of the following tables, Model 1 includes only the control variable, 2012 Annual Revenue, and Model 2 includes both the control variable and independent variable(s).

Table 3: Ha Model Summary

<div align="center">

Model Summary[c]

</div>

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
					Change Statistics					
1	.033[a]	.001	-.006	1.519	.001	.162	1	147	.688	
2	.507[b]	.257	.247	1.314	.256	50.416	1	146	.000	1.838

a. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

b. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended

c. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

In a multiple regression analysis, R is the correlation between the observed values and the value predicted by the multiple regression model. The larger the R value, the larger the correlation between predicted and observed values. An R value of 1 would indicate the model perfectly predicted the observed data. R^2 is the amount of variation in the dependent variable that is accounted for by the model. Table 3 indicates the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months had the greatest effect on the model (R=.474; .507 - .033) and explained 25.6% of the variance (R^2=.256 (.257 - .001); p<.001). These results provide significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis:

H0: There is no relationship between the participation in socially conscious HRD training programs and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Furthermore, this analysis provides support for the alternative hypothesis:

H1: The participation in socially conscious HRD training programs correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Given that the R^2 statistic will increase with an increase in the number of independent variables, adjusted R^2 is used to modify the variance explained by the model given the number of independent variables and observations used in the analysis. The adjusted R^2 value for the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months in model 2 is .241 (.247 - .006) and indicates the variable accounts for 24.1% of the variance in the model.

Table 4: Ha ANOVA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.373	1	.373	.162	.688[b]
	Residual	339.139	147	2.307		
	Total	339.513	148			
2	Regression	87.424	2	43.712	25.316	.000[c]
	Residual	252.089	146	1.727		
	Total	339.513	148			

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

b. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

c. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended

Table 4 contains the results of the ANOVA that tests whether the model predicts the outcome significantly better than simply using the mean. The ANOVA was run on two models. Model 1 is the results from including only the control variable of 2012 annual revenue. Model 2 includes both the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended and the control variable of 2012 annual revenue. The F statistic reports the amount of systematic variance in the data compared to the amount of unsystematic variance. An F statistic greater than 1 indicates the improvement in the model due to fitting the regression model is greater than the inaccuracy

within the model. The F statistic of Model 2 is 25.316 which is significant (p<.001) and

indicates the model significantly improved our ability to predict the outcome variable.

Table 5: Ha Coefficients

<p align="center">Coefficients[a]</p>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.885	.297		6.344	.000	1.298	2.472					
	2012 Annual Revenue:	-.008	.021	-.033	-.402	.688	-.049	.033	-.033	-.033	-.033	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	1.060	.282		3.758	.000	.503	1.618					
	2012 Annual Revenue:	-.043	.019	-.170	-2.302	.023	-.080	-.006	-.033	-.187	-.164	.932	1.073
	CSR Training Attended	.733	.103	.525	7.100	.000	.529	.937	.480	.507	.506	.932	1.073

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

Table 5 shows the parameters of the model; specifically the Beta values indicate the

relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable. Model 1 is the result

based on including only the control variable of 2012 annual revenue as the predictor variable

while Model 2 includes both the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended

and 2012 annual revenue. The standardized Beta value indicates the number of standard

deviations the dependent variable will change as a result of one standard deviation change in the

independent variable. The Beta values are directly comparable because they are measured in

standard deviation units and therefore can indicate the relative importance of each predictor

variable in the model. The standardized Beta value in model 2 (B=.525; p<.001) indicates the

independent variable, number of HRD training programs attended, significantly contributes to the model. Multicollinearity is an incidence when two or more independent variables are highly correlated in a regression model and can be problematic due to the inability of the researcher to determine if independent variables are redundant. Generally, the researcher should look for a VIF value below 10 and a Tolerance value above 0.2 to indicate if assumptions of multicollinearity have been met (Field, 2009). For this research, both the VIF and Tolerance results in Table 5 are well within this range and indicate there is not a problem with multicollinearity within the data.

Table 6 shows the variables that SPSS excluded from the model. In a stepwise regression, SPSS enters the independent variables incrementally based on which variable most significantly contributes to the model. Table 6 shows that the number of hours in socially conscious HRD training programs variable did not significantly contribute to the model (B = -.006) beyond the variable of number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended (B = .525) and thus was excluded from the model in the stepwise regression.

Table 6: Ha Excluded Variables

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	CSR Training Attended	.525[b]	7.027	.000	.507	.932	1.073	.932
	CSR Training Hours	.421[b]	5.460	.000	.415	.971	1.030	.971
2	CSR Training Hours	-.006[c]	-.043	.965	-.004	.313	3.196	.300

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended

Next, a principal component factor analysis was conducted on the 50 items pertaining to the perceived organizational factors. A factor analysis was used to help reduce the data set while retaining as much of the original data as possible. By reducing the data set from a large group of related variables to a smaller number of factors this enabled the researcher to use a smaller number of constructs to explain the maximum amount of variance in the correlation matrix. A factor analysis can also help to reduce the potential for multicollinearity within data by combining variables that are similar. In a factor analysis, factor rotation can be used to help ensure variables load primarily on to one factor. This research utilized orthogonal rotation (varimax) as this method is recommended when there is no theoretical basis that the independent variables could be correlated; orthogonal rotation keeps the independent variables unrelated. The varimax rotation was chosen as it maximizes the dispersion of loadings within factors and Field (2009) recommends varimax rotation in an exploratory study. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures the sampling adequacy for the analysis. A KMO statistic can vary between 0 and 1 with values between 0.8 and 0.9 as "great" (Field, 2009, p. 659). A KMO statistic of 0 would indicate a diffuse pattern of correlations and factor analysis would not be appropriate. A KMO statistic of 1 indicates a compact pattern of correlation and thus factor analysis should reveal distinct factors. The KMO statistic (.826) verifies the sampling adequacy for this analysis. The KMO for the individual variables was examined in the anti-image correlation matrix and found to be acceptable as all variables had values above the minimum of 0.5. In order to perform a factor analysis, the data should contain groups of variables that measure similar items. To determine if the variables had significant correlation with each other, a Bartlett's test was conducted. The Bartlett's test of sphericity ($X^2 = (1225) = 3615.174$), was significant ($p < .001$), indicating the correlations between items were sufficiently large for a principal components

analysis. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data. The eigenvalues represent the amount of variation explained by the item. Twelve components had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of one and in combination explained 66.52% of the variance. In performing a principal component factor analysis, Field (2009) recommends to examine the scree plot inflection points and eigenvalues to determine the number of factors to retain. The scree plot, shown in Figure 1, displayed inflection points that could justify retaining five components. Five components were retained for the final analysis explaining a cumulative of 47.94% of the variance. Table 7 shows the factor loadings after rotation. To enhance the interpretation of the factors, only items with an absolute value of .40 or greater factor loading were retained for a given factor. The survey items that cluster on the same components suggest five components: Transparency, Social Proactiveness, Rewards, Work Discretion, and Time Availability.
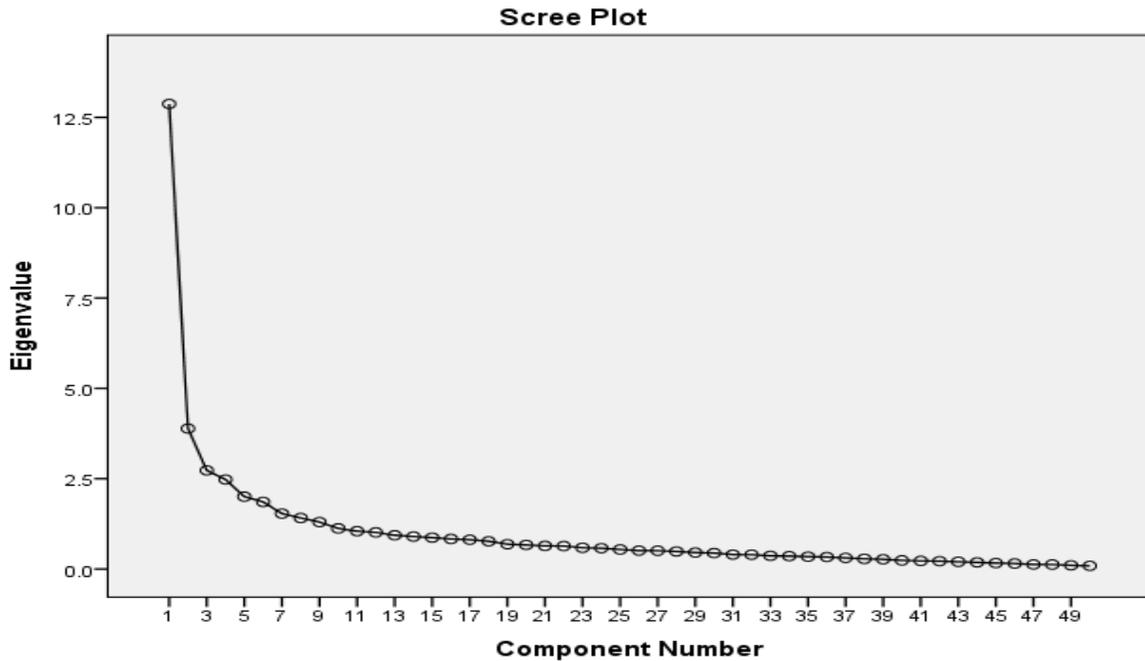
Figure 1: Scree Plot

Table 7: Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix[a]					
	Component				
		Social		Work	Time
	Transparency	Proactiveness	Rewards	Discretion	Availability
During the past year, my company has issued public statements concerning their environmental or social results.	.799				
My company communicates to our customers the social or environmental impact of using our products or services.	.766				
My company promotes its social or environmental certification(s).	.761				
My company actively promotes our social or environmental programs.	.732				
My company is very proactive in how it deploys resources for social or environmental issues.	.716				
My company has partnered with other firms to help social or environmental concerns.	.700				
My company advises our customers how to lessen the social or environmental impact of using our products or services.	.690				
I clearly know that my work results relate to social or environmental issues and it will be communicated to the public by my company.	.664				

65

My company is well structured to pursue opportunities that have a social or environmental impact.	.659	
My company is well structured to be aware of the social or environmental impact of our work.	.629	
My company regularly communicates information regarding the stakeholders important to the firm.	.508	
I clearly know what level of social or environmental impact activity is expected by senior management.	.502	
My company does enough to support social or environmental issues.	.489	
My job description clearly specifies the standards of performance on which my job is evaluated.	.445	
My company determines the stakeholders that are most important to my work.	.226r	
During the past year, I recognized new opportunities for my firm to have a positive social or environmental impact.		.562
My manager's compensation is connected to performance that includes social or environmental impact.		.529
This organization supports many small and experimental projects realizing that some will undoubtedly fail.		.521
Individuals are often recognized for their willingness to champion new projects, whether eventually successful or not.		.521
I determine the social or environmental issues I work on.		.520
The rewards I receive are influenced by my impact on social or environmental issues.		.511
In my organization, developing one's own ideas is encouraged for the improvement of the company.		.508
My company has a positive impact on its stakeholders.		.501
My regular job duties allow me to consider social or environmental impacts of my work.		.494
My job is structured so that I have very little time to think about wider organizational problems.		.490
My job allows me to pursue opportunities that have a positive impact on the company's stakeholders.		.486
During the past year, I recognized new opportunities to positively impact the company's stakeholders.		.409
Resources are often available to get new project ideas off the ground.		.361r
Project leaders are allowed to make decisions without going through elaborate justification and approval procedures.		.349r
During the past year, I could recognize the stakeholders that my company deemed important.		.318r

In the past three months, I have always followed standard operating procedures or practices to do my major tasks.	.316r				
My supervisor will give me special recognition if my work performance is especially good.		.745			
My manager would tell his/her boss if my work was outstanding.		.737			
My supervisor will increase my job responsibilities if I am performing well in my job.		.640			
The rewards I receive are dependent upon my work on the job.		.594			
My manager helps me get my work done by removing obstacles and roadblocks.		.590			
Upper management is receptive to my ideas and suggestions.		.554			
I clearly know what level of work performance is expected from me in terms of amount, quality and timeliness of output.		.454			
I feel that I need to double check all of my decisions with someone else.			.695		
It is basically my own responsibility to decide how my job gets done.			.659		
This organization provides the freedom to use my own judgment.			.619		
I am left on my own to do my own work.			.618		
I almost always get to decide what I do on my job.			.604		
I do not have the freedom to decide what I do on my job.			.528		
On my job I have no doubt of what is expected of me.			.509		
I always seem to have plenty of time to get everything done.					.792
I have the right amount of time and work load to do everything well.					.784
I feel that I am always working with time constraints on my job.					.693
There is little uncertainty in my job.					.562
During the past three months, my work load kept me from spending time on developing new ideas.					.538
Eigenvalues	12.872	3.887	2.730	2.477	2.004
% of Variance	25.743	7.775	5.460	4.955	4.008
α	.924	.854	.814	.786	.742

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

r = item not included in factor

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

The Cronbach's alpha test of reliability was conducted to assess the internal consistency of the items. This statistic indicates how consistently the survey is measuring the intended construct (ex. test-retest reliability). Alphas at .7 or higher indicate a good fit (Field, 2009). Each of the subscales, as shown in Table 7, had high reliabilities, Transparency: α = .924, Social Proactiveness: α = .854, Rewards: α = .814, Work Discretion: α = .786, and Time Availability: α = .742.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was then conducted using SPSS software to analyze the survey responses. The number of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested in the last 12 months was used as the dependent variable and each of the five factors identified in the factor analysis, Transparency, Social Proactiveness, Rewards, Work Discretion, and Time Availability were used as independent variables for the analysis. Since firm size has been found to have potential links to social performance in previous studies (Deckop, Merriman, & Gupta, 2006; Waddock & Graves, 1997) 2012 annual revenue was used as a control variable. Stepwise regression was chosen for this research because of its ability to assess the relationship between several independent variables and a single dependent variable when previous research does not provide guidance to the relative significance of the independent variables. According to Cohen (1988), this method is designed to select which independent variable makes the largest contribution to R^2 from a group of independent variables. This is done as an iterative procedure that repeatedly enters independent variables into the equation until there is no improvement in the model. Tables 8 - 11 summarize the results of the analysis.

Table 8: Hb Model Summary

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.033[a]	.001	-.006	1.519	.001	.149	1	135	.700	
2	.440[b]	.194	.182	1.370	.193	32.014	1	134	.000	1.914

a. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

b. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, Social Proactiveness

c. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

In a multiple regression analysis, R is the correlation between the observed values and the value predicted by the multiple regression model. The larger the R value, the larger the correlation between predicted and observed values. An R value of 1 would indicate the model perfectly predicted the observed data. R^2 is the amount of variation in the dependent variable that is accounted for by the model. Table 8 indicates only Social Proactiveness was found to have a significant effect on the model (R=.407; .440 - .033) and explained 19.3% of the variance (R^2=.193 (.194 - .001); p<.001). The remaining organizational factors (Transparency, Rewards, Work Discretion, and Time Availability) did not significantly impact the model and were thus not included in the model. This analysis provides support to reject the null hypothesis:

H0b: There is no relationship between perceived organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Furthermore, this analysis provides support for the alternative hypothesis:

H1b: The perception of organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Given that the R^2 statistic will increase with an increase in the number of independent variables, adjusted R^2 is used to modify the variance explained by the model given the number of

independent variables and observations used in the analysis. The adjusted R^2 value for the

number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months in model 2

is .176 (.182 - .006) and indicates the variable accounts for 17.6% of the variance in the model.

Table 9: Hb ANOVA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.343	1	.343	.149	.700[b]
	Residual	311.642	135	2.308		
	Total	311.985	136			
2	Regression	60.440	2	30.220	16.098	.000[c]
	Residual	251.545	134	1.877		
	Total	311.985	136			

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

b. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

c. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, Social Proactiveness

Table 9 contains the results of the ANOVA that tests whether the model predicts the

outcome significantly better than simply using the mean. The ANOVA was run on two models.

Model 1 is the results from including only the control variable, 2012 annual revenue, in the

analysis. Model 2 was run with all five factors as independent variables in a stepwise regression.

The stepwise regression includes the independent variables one at a time until no significant

contribution can be made to the model. Model 2 shows the results from the Social Proactiveness

factor and the control variable of 2012 annual revenue. The F statistic reports the amount of

systematic variance in the data compared to the amount of unsystematic variance. An F statistic

greater than 1 indicates the improvement in the model due to fitting the regression model is

greater than the inaccuracy within the model. The F statistic of Model 2 is 16.098 which is

significant (p<.001) and indicates the model significantly improved our ability to predict the

outcome variable.

70

Table 10: Hb Coefficients

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.885	.310		6.080	.000	1.272	2.498					
	2012 Annual Revenue:	-.008	.022	-.033	-.386	.700	-.051	.034	-.033	-.033	-.033	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	1.671	.282		5.921	.000	1.113	2.228					
	2012 Annual Revenue:	.008	.020	.032	.412	.681	-.031	.047	-.033	.036	.032	.978	1.022
	Social Proactiveness	.672	.119	.444	5.658	.000	.437	.907	.439	.439	.439	.978	1.022

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

Table 10 shows the parameters of the model; specifically the Beta values indicate the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable. Model 1 is the results based on including only the control variable, 2012 annual revenue, while Model 2 includes both the Social Proactiveness factor and 2012 annual revenue. The standardized Beta value indicates the number of standard deviations the dependent variable will change as a result of one standard deviation change in the independent variable. The Beta values are directly comparable because they are measured in standard deviation units and therefore can indicate the relative importance of each predictor variable in the model. The standardized Beta value in model 2 (B=.444; p<.001) indicates the independent variable, Social Proactiveness, significantly contributes to the model. Multicollinearity is an incidence when two or more independent variables are highly correlated in a regression model and can be problematic due to the inability of the researcher to determine if independent variables are redundant. Generally, the researcher should look for a VIF value below 10 and a Tolerance value above 0.2 to indicate if assumptions of

multicollinearity have been met. For this research, the VIF and Tolerance results in Table 10 are

well within range and indicate there is not a problem with multicollinearity within the data.

Table 11: Hb Excluded Variables

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Transparency	.129[b]	1.450	.149	.124	.920	1.087	.920
	Social Proactiveness	.444[b]	5.658	.000	.439	.978	1.022	.978
	Rewards	-.125[b]	-1.428	.155	-.122	.959	1.042	.959
	Work Discretion	-.119[b]	-1.359	.176	-.117	.967	1.034	.967
	Time Availability	-.042[b]	-.484	.629	-.042	.979	1.021	.979
2	Transparency	.110[c]	1.358	.177	.117	.918	1.089	.898
	Rewards	-.139[c]	-1.766	.080	-.151	.959	1.043	.938
	Work Discretion	-.106[c]	-1.352	.179	-.116	.966	1.035	.945
	Time Availability	-.033[c]	-.414	.680	-.036	.979	1.022	.957

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, Social Proactiveness

Table 11 shows the variables that SPSS excluded from the model. In a stepwise multiple

regression, SPSS enters the independent variables incrementally until there is no significant

increase in the model. Table 11 shows that the Transparency (B = .129), Rewards (B = -.125),

Work Discretion (B = -.119), Time Available (B = -.042) factors did not significantly contribute

to the model beyond the Social Proactiveness factor (B = .444) and thus were excluded from the

model in the stepwise regression.

Finally, in order to analyze the relationship of all of the potential independent variables to

dependent variable in the model, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted using all

of the potential independent variables (Transparency, Social Proactiveness, Rewards, Work

Discretion, Time Availability, and number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended the last 12 months), with the number of new CSR ideas suggested in the last 12 months as the dependent variable and 2012 annual revenue as the control variable. Stepwise regression was chosen for this research because of its ability to assess the relationship between several independent variables and a single dependent variable when previous research does not provide guidance to the potential significance of the independent variables. Tables 12 - 14 show the results of this analysis.

Table 12: Correlations

	New CSR Ideas Suggested	2012 Annual Revenue:	Transparency	Social Proactiveness	Rewards	Work Discretion	Time Availability	CSR Training Attended
New CSR Ideas Suggested	1.000							
2012 Annual Revenue:	-.033	1.000						
Transparency	.110	.282	1.000					
Social Proactiveness	.439	-.148	.000	1.000				
Rewards	-.127	.201	.000	.000	1.000			
Work Discretion	-.109	-.181	.000	.000	.000	1.000		
Time Availability	-.037	-.145	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.000	
CSR Training Attended	.480	.261	.376	.333	.011	-.169	.037	1.000

Table 12 shows the correlations of each of the variables. In a multiple regression analysis, R is the correlation between the observed values and the value predicted by the multiple regression model. The larger the R value, the larger the correlation between predicted and observed values. An R value of 1 would indicate the model perfectly predicted the observed data. The table shows the variables with the highest degree of correlation are number of social

conscious HRD training programs attended and number of new CSR ideas suggested (R = .480),

and social proactivness and number of new CSR ideas suggested (R = .439). These results are

consistent with the previous analysis performed in the study. The table also shows very low

correlations among the other variables and provides additional support that multicollinearity is

not a concern in the data.

Table 13: Model Summary

Model Summary[d]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.033[a]	.001	-.006	1.519	.001	.149	1	135	.700	
2	.507[b]	.257	.246	1.315	.256	46.272	1	134	.000	
3	.571[c]	.326	.311	1.257	.069	13.605	1	133	.000	1.932

a. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

b. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended

c. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended, Social Proactiveness

d. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

Table 13 provides a summary of the stepwise multiple regression analysis. In the table,

Model 1 shows the results of the analysis with the control variable, 2012 annual revenue while

Models 2 and 3 show the results of analysis using the independent variables that most

significantly contribute to the model. The results of this analysis are consistent with the previous

results and indicate that the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the

last 12 months most significantly contributes to the model (R^2 = .256 (.257 - .001); p<.001) and

the level of perceived social proactiveness also significantly contributed to the model (R^2 = .069

(.326 - .257); p<.001).

Table 14: ANOVA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.343	1	.343	.149	.700[b]
	Residual	311.642	135	2.308		
	Total	311.985	136			
2	Regression	80.335	2	40.168	23.235	.000[c]
	Residual	231.649	134	1.729		
	Total	311.985	136			
3	Regression	101.832	3	33.944	21.482	.000[d]
	Residual	210.152	133	1.580		
	Total	311.985	136			

a. Dependent Variable: New CSR Ideas Suggested

b. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:

c. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended

d. Predictors: (Constant), 2012 Annual Revenue:, CSR Training Attended, Social Proactiveness

Table 14 contains the results of the ANOVA that tests whether the model predicts the outcome significantly better than simply using the mean. The ANOVA shows the results of three models. Model 1 is the results from including only the control variable, 2012 annual revenue, in the analysis. Model 2 shows the results of using the control variable, 2012 annual revenue, and the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months. Model 3 shows the results of using the control variable, 2012 annual revenue, the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months, and the social proactiveness factor. While the analysis was run with all six independent variables, the stepwise regression includes the independent variables one at a time until no significant contribution can be made to the model. The F statistic reports the amount of systematic variance in the data compared to the amount of unsystematic variance. An F statistic greater than 1 indicates the improvement in the model due to fitting the regression model is greater than the inaccuracy within the model. The F

statistic of Model 2 (23.235) and Model 3 (21.482) were each highly significant (p<.001) and

indicates the model significantly improved our ability to predict the outcome variable.

In summary, descriptive statistics on demographic variables were calculated to describe

the data sample. A stepwise multiple regression was then conducted to explore the relationship

between independent variables (number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended

and the number of hours in socially conscious HRD training programs) and dependent variable

(the number of new CSR ideas suggested). Next, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted

on the perceived organizational factors to identify the number of factors in the data and to

identify which items load onto each factor. Through factor analysis, variables that do not

significantly load onto a factor are dropped from the model, resulting in a reduction of data and a

more parsimonious fit. A stepwise multiple regression was then conducted to explore the

relationship between the independent variables (identified factors in the factor analysis) and

dependent variables (number of new CSR ideas suggested). A final stepwise multiple regression

analysis was conducted with all of the potential independent variables to assess the relationship

among all of the variables in the model.

Summary

The study utilizes a correlational research design to determine if a statistically significant

relationship exists between the participation in socially conscious human resource development

training programs and the development of new corporate social responsibility initiatives, and to

determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between perceived corporate social

entrepreneurship organizational factors and the development of new corporate social

responsibility initiatives.   To conduct the analysis, data were collected via an online survey

resulting in a total sample size of 152.

76

To test the first set of hypotheses, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the number of HRD training programs related to CSR attended, the number of hours in socially conscious HRD training programs and their relationship to the suggestion of new CSR ideas. The stepwise multiple regression method incrementally enters the variable that most contributes to the relationship until there is no significant increase in the model. The results indicate that the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months had the greatest relationship with the number of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested (B=.525) and explained 25.6% of the variance (R^2=.256; p<.001). This result provides significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis of the first set of hypotheses:

H0a: There is no relationship between the participation in socially conscious HRD training programs and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Furthermore, the analysis provides support for the alternative hypothesis:

H1a: The participation in socially conscious HRD training programs correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

This analysis suggests there is a statistically significant relationship between the attendance of socially conscious HRD training programs and the number of new CSR initiatives suggested. While the number of hours in socially conscious HRD training programs appears to have some relationship with the suggestion of new CSR ideas, the impact is not significantly beyond that of the number of programs attended.

The survey included a 50-item segment aimed to better understand the organizational factors that need to be present in order to stimulate the suggestion of new corporate social responsibility ideas. The questions were derived from the Corporate Entrepreneurship Assessment Instrument (Hornsby et al. 2002, Kuratko, Ireland, Covin, & Hornsby, 2005, Ireland

et al. 2006a; 2006b, and Hornsby, et al. 2009) with additional factors of social proactiveness, stakeholder salience, governance, and transparency identified through the literature.

An exploratory factor analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax) was conducted on the 50-item segment of the survey in order to identify and remove variables that do not significantly load onto a factor, resulting in a reduction of data and a more parsimonious fit. The factor analysis revealed a five factor solution for the study: firm transparency (E = 12.872; α = .924), social proactiveness (E = 3.887; α = .854), rewards (E = 2.730; α = .814), work discretion (E = 2.477; α = .786), and time availability (E = 2.004; α = .742).

In order to test the second set of hypotheses, a stepwise multiple regression was conducted to explore the relationship between the five-factor solution and number of new CSR ideas suggested. Stepwise regression is used to assess the relationship between several independent variables and a single dependent variable when previous research does not provide guidance as to which variable most significantly contributes to the model. This process analyzes which factor most significantly contributes to the model in an iterative procedure until there is no statistically significant increase in R^2. The analysis indicates that the social proactiveness factor most significantly contributed to the solution (R^2=.193, B=.444).

Through this research, significant evidence was found to reject the null hypothesis:

H0b: There is no relationship between perceived organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship and the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

Furthermore, the analysis provides support for the alternative hypothesis:

H1b: The perception of organizational factors related to corporate social entrepreneurship correlates with the proposal of new CSR initiatives.

The result of this analysis suggests there is a statistically significant relationship between the perception of the firm's level of social proactiveness and the suggestion of new CSR initiatives. While additional perceived factors of transparency, rewards, work discretion and time availability also correlate with the number of new CSR ideas suggested, this research indicates the impact of these additional factors is not statistically significant to the model beyond the perception of social proactiveness factor.

A final stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted on the data in order to analyze the relationship of all of the potential independent variables (transparency, social proactiveness, rewards, work discretion, time availability, and number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended the last 12 months) to the dependent variable (number of new CSR ideas suggested in the last 12 months) in the model, with 2012 annual revenue as the control variable. The results of this analysis confirm the earlier results and indicate the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months most significantly contributes to the model ($R^2 = .256$; $p<.001$) and the level of perceived social proactiveness also significantly contributed to the model ($R^2 = .069$; $p<.001$).

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter will review the purpose of the study, provide a summary of the research findings including a discussion and interpretation of the findings, note the limitations of the study, and offer recommendation for future studies.

Study Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between socially conscious HRD training programs and the development of new CSR initiatives, and the relationship between perceived organizational factors related to CSE and the development of new CSR initiatives.

Discussion of Findings

As our global society faces key challenges of environmental degradation and ecological sustainability (Dean, 2013), and social issues such as population growth, the disparity of wealth between developing and developed countries, gender equity, access to education, and food security (Stead & Stead, 2009, p. 59), organizations are facing increased demands from stakeholders to devote resources to help solve these challenges (Clark & Hebb, 2004; Davies, 2003; *Economist,* 2005; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). As a result, company leaders have an increased focus on corporate social responsibility. Through its history in human resource development and social responsibility, the adult education field has a direct connection to organizations' impact on society (Garavan, Heraty, Rock, & Dalton, 2010). For their part, human resource development professionals have been critiqued for their role in supporting corporations' exploitation of employees and the environment while ignoring the interests of employees and wider community issues (Gilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003). However, little is known today about how human resource development professionals can impact social

proactiveness among employees. This study explored the relationship of human resource

development training programs related to corporate social responsibility and the development of

new corporate social responsibility ideas for the organization. Furthermore, the study explored

the organizational antecedents that must be perceived by company managers in order to

encourage the development of new corporate social responsibility ideas for the organization.

The goal of this study was to collect and analyze data to explore the relationship between human

resource development activities and the implementation of new social initiatives in order to

provide support for human resource development professionals as they work to enhance the

organizational culture and development of corporate training programs for their organization's

corporate social responsibility strategies.

The literature review in Chapter 2 provides a context for understanding the role that a

business may choose to play in helping to solve today's societal challenges. While society's

view of the social responsibility of business has evolved over time, the literature supports the

view that pursuing socially responsible activities can be a source of competitive advantage for

the firm through an enhanced brand image and increased ability to enter new markets

(Smallheiser, 2006); improved market opportunities (Porter & van der Linde, 1995); and the

ability to attract and retain quality employees (Hart & Ahuja, 1996). However, there is a void in

the literature of practical solutions to help organizational leaders create the environment to

develop new socially responsible initiatives. HRD researchers frequently call for further research

to support HRD practitioner efforts to help organizations be more socially aware and active

(Bierema & D'Abundo, 2003; Korten, 1996; Marquardt, 2003). This research sought to provide

additional insight into the relationship between socially conscious human resource development

activities, perceived social and entrepreneurial organizational factors, and the development of new socially responsible initiatives.

HRD has two distinct traditions: a functionalist approach with an emphasis on performance and a development approach that emphasizes human learning and development (Garavan & McGuire, 2010); socially conscious HRD training programs related to CSR have the potential to satisfy both approaches through CSR's potential to positively impact a firm's competitive advantage and the impact through human learning and development which has long-term benefits for the individual, organization, and society (Bierema, 1996; Dirkx, 1996). Becker, Carbo II, and Langella (2010) suggest that by linking employee development strategies to a company's economic, social, and environmental objectives it can create lasting industry advantage and growth of the employee through non-job related learning. The report from the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2005) identifies HRD as a necessary component of CSR, and further suggests that without considering HRD, CSR is only public relations.

If a company decides to undertake a genuine CSR commitment it must acknowledge the importance of education of employees, customers, suppliers and the community at large (Fenwick & Bierema, 2008) which is within the domain of HRD. HRD practitioners should be able to provide insight and assistance in addressing internal and external understanding of CSR through education and the implementation of CSR principles throughout the organization (Fenwick & Bierema, 2008). Bierema and D'Abundo (2003) describe socially conscious HRD as the use of organization resources to promote social good with the ultimate goal that the organization not only educate internally about socially conscious behaviors, but also play an external educative role in the community. HRD has specific expertise in executing change,

changing culture, and engaging with organizational stakeholders and can help to develop a culture that supports CSR by raising awareness and developing positive attitudes in employees (Garavan & McGuire, 2010).

The results of this research provide further support of the role socially conscious HRD professionals play in the development of new CSR initiatives. The number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended in the last 12 months had the greatest relationship with the number of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested ($R=.474$) and explained 25.6% of the variance ($R^2=.256$; $p<.001$). These results indicated there is a statistically significant relationship between attending socially conscious HRD training programs and developing new social conscious ideas and provides support for the role of HRD professionals in enhancing the social consciousness of the organization. While further research is needed to validate these results and to further determine the extent and direction of the relationship, these initial findings help to provide evidence of the importance of socially conscious HRD training programs in organizations and of the role socially conscious HRD professionals can play in supporting socially responsible initiatives.

Another key area for this research was to explore the organizational antecedents that help to lead organizations to pursue a corporate social entrepreneurial strategy. While there has been increased interest in the field of social entrepreneurship, much of the academic literature is focused on defining the term. There is little evidence of research in the literature to understand the antecedents to launching a social venture within an existing organization. In addition, implementation of social entrepreneurship is discussed almost exclusively in terms of new organizations with little exploration of how corporate entrepreneurship might be used as a conduit for social entrepreneurship (Hemingway, 2005). A variety of studies have helped to lay

the groundwork to understanding the organizational factors that need to be present in order to pursue a corporate entrepreneurship strategy (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002), however little is known about the organizational factors that specifically affect a corporate social entrepreneurship strategy. This research appears to be the first of its kind to examine the relationship between perceived social and entrepreneurial organizational factors and the development of new social responsibility initiatives.

This research aimed to better understand the organizational factors that need to be present in order to stimulate the suggestion of new corporate social responsibility ideas. The survey questions were derived from the Corporate Entrepreneurship Assessment Instrument (Hornsby et al. 2002, Kuratko, Ireland, Covin, & Hornsby, 2005, Ireland et al. 2006a; 2006b, and Hornsby, et al. 2009) with additional factors of social proactiveness, stakeholder salience, governance, and transparency identified through the literature.

Through an exploratory factor analysis with orthogonal rotation (varimax) on a 50-item segment of the survey, the analysis revealed a five factor solution for the study: firm transparency (E = 12.872; α = .924), social proactiveness (E = 3.887; α = .854), rewards (E = 2.730; α = .814), work discretion (E = 2.477; α = .786), and time availability (E = 2.004; α = .742). These factors were then used in a stepwise multiple regression to explore the relationship between the five factor solution and number of new CSR ideas suggested. The analysis indicated that the social proactiveness factor most significantly contributed to the solution (R=.407) and explained 19.3% of the variance (R^2=.193; p<.001).

The result of this analysis suggests there is a statistically significant relationship between the perception of the firm's level of social proactiveness and the suggestion of new CSR initiatives. While additional perceived factors of transparency, rewards, work discretion and

time availability also correlate with the number of new CSR ideas suggested, this research indicates the impact of these additional factors is not statistically significant beyond the perception of social proactiveness factor. While this research is exploratory in nature, the results provide support for conducting additional research into the perceived organizational factors that may help to lead an organization to implement a corporate social entrepreneurship strategy.

Study Limitations

This study aims to lend insight into the relationship of corporate social responsibility training activities and organizational antecedents present in companies and the impact of new corporate social responsibility ideas suggested. This research was conducted through a self-report online survey of company managers and results in some key limitations. These limitations include that the data does not reflect changes in manager perception over time and is subject to the individual manager's perception at the time of completing the survey, a proxy for corporate social entrepreneurship was used due to the low incident rate of corporate social entrepreneurship, the limited geographic distribution of the sample, and the inability to assess the quality of the training program.

Future Research

This study suggested there is a statistically significant relationship between the attendance of socially conscious HRD training programs and the recommendation of new CSR initiatives; furthermore there is a statistically significant relationship between the perception of the firm's social proactiveness and the recommendation of new CSR initiatives. Previous studies have also shown proactiveness aids in maintaining firm competitiveness because it involves monitoring customers, and other external influences including legislation / regulation, societal

values / norms, and economic conditions (Sandberg, 2002). Proactive behaviors include identifying opportunities, challenging the status quo, and creating favorable conditions. However, this study provides insight into a relatively small portion of the variance explained in the suggestion of new CSR ideas. Future research should be conducted to help guide human resource development practitioners in their efforts to make organizations more socially aware and proactive.

The study examined the nature of the relationship between the number of socially conscious HRD training programs attended and the number of hours in socially conscious HRD training programs, but did not explore the design, delivery, or quality of the HRD training programs. Future research should explore if additional variance can be explained by examining the differences in delivery of HRD training programs in online vs. in-person sessions, or if the training was delivered by corporate trainers or outside industry experts. Additional research should be conducted to determine how socially focused training programs are different from job-specific training programs and if certain types of training programs result in greater effectiveness and impact from the social initiatives.

Previous research suggests that social entrepreneurs may have a different motivational profile than profit-driven entrepreneurs (Kickul & Lyons, 2012). Future research should be conducted to determine if corporate social entrepreneurs have a different motivational profile from profit-driven corporate entrepreneurs or social entrepreneurs who have independently started a new venture and if there is a relationship between the corporate social entrepreneur's motivation profile and the suggestion of new corporate social responsibility ideas.

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Appendix A - Corporate Social Entrepreneurship Survey

This survey is being used to learn more about your company's corporate social responsibility activities. Please read and provide a response for each of the following items. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions so please be as honest and thoughtful as possible in your responses. All responses are completely anonymous. Thank you for your cooperation! Following the successful completion of the survey, you will have the opportunity to enter a random drawing to win one of five $100 Amazon.com gift cards.

Your Gender:

❍ Male
❍ Female

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

❍ Less than high school
❍ High school / GED
❍ Some college
❍ 2-year college degree (Associates or technical degree)
❍ 4-year college degree (BS / BA)
❍ Master's degree
❍ Doctoral degree
❍ Professional degree (MD / JD)

How would you classify your position?

❍ Entry Level Management
❍ Middle Level Management
❍ Senior Level Management

Do your primary job duties in the organization relate to Corporate Social Responsibility?

❍ Yes
❍ No

Company Postal code:

Company Industry:

- ❍ Forestry, Fishing, Hunting, and Agriculture Support
- ❍ Mining
- ❍ Utilities
- ❍ Construction
- ❍ Manufacturing
- ❍ Wholesale Trade
- ❍ Retail Trade
- ❍ Transportation and Warehousing
- ❍ Information
- ❍ Finance and Insurance
- ❍ Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
- ❍ Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
- ❍ Management of Companies and Enterprises
- ❍ Administrative and Support
- ❍ Educational Services
- ❍ Health Care and Social Assistance
- ❍ Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
- ❍ Accommodation and Food Services
- ❍ Other Services (except Public Administration)
- ❍ Unclassified
- ❍ Government
- ❍ Other (use field below)
- ❍ Waste Management and Remediation Services

Company Industry (Other)

2012 Annual Revenue:

❍ Less than $100,000
❍ $100,000-499,999
❍ $500,000-999,999
❍ $1,000,000-2,499,999
❍ $2,500,000-4,999,999
❍ $5,000,000-7,499,999
❍ $7,500,000-9,999,999
❍ $10,000,000-14,999,999
❍ $15,000,000-19,999,999
❍ $20,000,000-24,999,999
❍ $25,000,000-29,999,999
❍ $30,000,000-34,999,999
❍ $35,000,000-39,999,999
❍ $40,000,000-44,999,999
❍ $45,000,000-49,999,999
❍ $50,000,000-74,999,999
❍ $75,000,000-99,999,999
❍ $100,000,000 or more

Number of employees:

❍ 1 to 4 employees
❍ 5 to 9 employees
❍ 10 to 19 employees
❍ 20 to 99 employees
❍ 100 to 499 employees
❍ 500 employees or more
❍ 500 to 749 employees
❍ 750 to 999 employees
❍ 1,000 to 1,499 employees
❍ 1,500 to 1,999 employees
❍ 2,000 to 2,499 employees
❍ 2,500 to 4,999 employees
❍ 5,000 employees or more
❍ 5,000 to 9,999 employees
❍ 10,000 employees or more

The following section will collect information about your company's initiatives related to corporate social responsibility.

Does your company currently engage in Corporate Social Responsibility related activities?

❍ Yes
❍ No

If Yes, please list some of the Corporate Social Responsibility activities. If No, please describe why you believe your company does not do these kinds of activities.

Which of the following activities and behaviors do you think apply to your company? (select all that apply)

❑ We go beyond statutory requirements in our treatment of employees (e.g. paying more than minimum wage, implementing target on diversity)
❑ Our decision-making process explicitly considers the views of and impact on external stakeholders
❑ We actively require our suppliers to meet certain standards of behavior
❑ We produce socially and environmentally responsible products
❑ We reward employees for their social impact as well as their financial performance
❑ We donate money and/or time to support a variety of social causes
❑ We encourage employees to volunteer their time
❑ We are aware of the environmental footprint from our company activities and actively take steps to reduce it
❑ Our company supports employees who want to create new initiatives to help address social challenges
❑ Other: _____

 In the last 12 months, how many company sponsored training programs related to social responsibility were offered?

❍ None
❍ One
❍ Two
❍ Three
❍ More than three

In the last 12 months, how many company sponsored training programs related to social responsibility did you attend?

❍ None
❍ One
❍ Two
❍ Three
❍ More than three

In the last 12 months, approximately how many hours did you spend in company sponsored training programs related to social responsibility?

❍ 1 hour
❍ 2 hours
❍ 3 hours
❍ 4 hours
❍ 5 hours
❍ More than 5 hours
❍ None

In the last 12 months, how many new corporate social responsibility ideas did you suggest to your organizational management team?

❍ None
❍ One
❍ Two
❍ Three
❍ Four
❍ Five
❍ More than five

Within the last 12 months, how many of your corporate social responsibility ideas are being implemented by your company?

○ None
○ One
○ Two
○ Three
○ Four
○ Five
○ More than Five

How many hours per week do you spend thinking about new corporate social responsibility ideas that your firm should consider?

○ None
○ One
○ Two
○ Three
○ Four
○ Five
○ More than five

Since your tenure within your current organization how many times have you been recognized for outstanding corporate responsibility decisions / changes?

○ None
○ One
○ Two
○ Three
○ Four
○ Five
○ More than five

What was the method of recognition?

○ pay raise
○ bonus
○ promotion
○ other: _____

How satisfied were you with the level of recognition?

❍ Dissatisfied
❍ Neutral
❍ Satisfied

Does your company dedicate a regular budget for corporate social responsibility projects?

❍ Yes
❍ No
❍ Not Sure

In 2012, what was your firm's total amount spent of corporate responsibility programs?

❍ $0 - $49,999
❍ $50,000 - $99,999
❍ $100,000 - $199,999
❍ $200,000 - $499,999
❍ $500,000 - $999,999
❍ $1,000,000 - $4,999,999
❍ $5,000,000 - $9,999,999
❍ $10,000,000 - $14,999,999
❍ $15,000,000 - $19,999,999
❍ more than $20,000,000
❍ Not Sure

In 2012, how many new companies, spinoffs, organizations, etc. were started by your firm?

❍ 0
❍ 1
❍ 2
❍ 3
❍ 4
❍ 5
❍ more than 5
❍ Not Sure

In 2012, how many new companies with a social mission were started by your firm?

- ○ 0
- ○ 1
- ○ 2
- ○ 3
- ○ 4
- ○ 5
- ○ more than 5
- ○ Not Sure

This final section of the survey asks you a series of questions about your organization's culture and management style.

In my organization, developing one's own ideas is encouraged for the improvement of the company.

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

Upper management is receptive to my ideas and suggestions.

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

Project leaders are allowed to make decisions without going through elaborate justification and approval procedures.

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

Resources are often available to get new project ideas off the ground.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

Individuals are often recognized for their willingness to champion new projects, whether eventually successful or not.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

This organization supports many small and experimental projects realizing that some will undoubtedly fail.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

I feel that I need to double check all of my decisions with someone else.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

This organization provides the freedom to use my own judgment.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

I do not have the freedom to decide what I do on my job.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

It is basically my own responsibility to decide how my job gets done.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

I am left on my own to do my own work.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

I almost always get to decide what I do on my job.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

My manager helps me get my work done by removing obstacles and roadblocks.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

The rewards I receive are dependent upon my work on the job.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

My supervisor will increase my job responsibilities if I am performing well in my job.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

My supervisor will give me special recognition if my work performance is especially good.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

My manager would tell his/her boss if my work was outstanding.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

During the past three months, my work load kept me from spending time on developing new ideas.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

I always seem to have plenty of time to get everything done.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

I have the right amount of time and work load to do everything well.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

My job is structured so that I have very little time to think about wider organizational problems.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

I feel that I am always working with time constraints on my job.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

In the past three months, I have always followed standard operating procedures or practices to do my major tasks.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

On my job I have no doubt of what is expected of me.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

There is little uncertainty in my job.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

My job description clearly specifies the standards of performance on which my job is evaluated.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

I clearly know what level of work performance is expected from me in terms of amount, quality

and timeliness of output.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

My company is very proactive in how it deploys resources for social or environmental issues.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

My company does enough to support social or environmental issues.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

My regular job duties allow me to consider social or environmental impacts of my work.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

During the past year, I recognized new opportunities for my firm to have a positive social or environmental impact.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

I determine the social or environmental issues I work on.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

My company determines the stakeholders that are most important to my work.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

During the past year, I could recognize the stakeholders that my company deemed important.

- ⭘ Strongly Disagree
- ⭘ Disagree
- ⭘ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ⭘ Agree
- ⭘ Strongly Agree

My company regularly communicates information regarding the stakeholders important to the firm.

- ⭘ Strongly Disagree
- ⭘ Disagree
- ⭘ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ⭘ Agree
- ⭘ Strongly Agree

My company has a positive impact on its stakeholders.

- ⭘ Strongly Disagree
- ⭘ Disagree
- ⭘ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ⭘ Agree
- ⭘ Strongly Agree

During the past year, I recognized new opportunities to positively impact the company's stakeholders.

- ⭘ Strongly Disagree
- ⭘ Disagree
- ⭘ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ⭘ Agree
- ⭘ Strongly Agree

My job allows me to pursue opportunities that have a positive impact on the company's stakeholders.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

My manager's compensation is connected to performance that includes social or environmental impact.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

The rewards I receive are influenced by my impact on social or environmental issues.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

I clearly know what level of social or environmental impact activity is expected by senior management.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

My company is well structured to be aware of the social or environmental impact of our work.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

My company is well structured to pursue opportunities that have a social or environmental impact.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

My company has partnered with other firms to help social or environmental concerns.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

During the past year, my company has issued public statements concerning their environmental or social results.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

I clearly know that my work results relate to social or environmental issues and it will be communicated to the public by my company.

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

My company promotes its social or environmental certification(s).

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

My company communicates to our customers the social or environmental impact of using our products or services.

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

My company advises our customers how to lessen the social or environmental impact of using our products or services.

- ○ Strongly Disagree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Strongly Agree

My company actively promotes our social or environmental programs.

❍ Strongly Disagree
❍ Disagree
❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
❍ Agree
❍ Strongly Agree

Appendix B – Kansas State University IRB Application and Approval Letter

KANSAS STATE
U N I V E R S I T Y | University Research Compliance Office

TO: Jeff Zacharakis   Proposal Number: 6900
           Educational Leadership
           326 Bluemont

FROM: Rick Scheidt, Chair
           Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: 10/22/2013

RE: Proposal Entitled, "CORPORATE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITH A PURPOSE: EXPLORING THE ANTECEDENTS TO CORPORATE SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP"

The Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects / Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Kansas State University has reviewed the proposal identified above and has determined that it is EXEMPT from further IRB review. This exemption applies only to the proposal - as written – and currently on file with the IRB. Any change potentially affecting human subjects must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation and may disqualify the proposal from exemption.

Based upon information provided to the IRB, this activity is exempt under the criteria set forth in the Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects, **45 CFR §46.101, paragraph b, category: 2, subsection: ii.**

Certain research is exempt from the requirements of HHS/OHRP regulations. A determination that research is exempt does not imply that investigators have no ethical responsibilities to subjects in such research; it means only that the regulatory requirements related to IRB review, informed consent, and assurance of compliance do not apply to the research.

Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or to others must be reported immediately to the Chair of the Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, the University Research Compliance Office, and if the subjects are KSU students, to the Director of the Student Health Center.

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150

Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB)
Application for Approval Form
Last revised on January 2011

ADMINISTRATIVE INFORMATION:

- **Title of Project:** (if applicable, use the exact title listed in the grant/contract application)
  CORPORATE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITH A PURPOSE:
  EXPLORING THE ANTECEDENTS TO CORPORATE SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

- **Type of Application:**
  ☒ New/Renewal   ☐ Revision (to a pending new application)
  ☐ Modification (to an existing #_____ approved application)

- **Principal Investigator:** (must be a KSU faculty member)
  Name: Jeff Zacharakis   Degree/Title: Ed.D.
  Department: Educational Leadership   Campus Phone: 785.532.5872
  Campus Address: 326 Bluemont Hall   Fax #:
  E-mail   jzachara@k-state.edu

- **Contact Name/Email/Phone for**   Jeff Zacharakis / jzachara@k-state.edu / 785.532.5872
  Questions/Problems with Form:

- **Does this project involve any collaborators not part of the faculty/staff at KSU?** (projects with non-KSU
  collaborators may require additional coordination and approvals):
  ☒ No
  ☐ Yes

- **Project Classification** (Is this project part of one of the following?):
  ☐ Thesis
  ☒ Dissertation
  ☐ Faculty Research
  ☐ Other: _____
  Note: Class Projects should use the short form application for class projects.

- **Please attach a copy of the Consent Form:**
  ☐ Copy attached
  ☒ Consent form not used

- **Funding Source:** ☐ Internal   ☐ External (identify source
  and attach a copy of the sponsor's grant application or
  contract as submitted to the funding agency)
          ☐ Copy attached   ☒ Not applicable   _____

- **Based upon criteria found in 45 CFR 46 – and the overview of projects that may qualify for exemption
  explained at** http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/checklists/decisioncharts.html **, I believe that my project using
  human subjects should be determined by the IRB to be exempt from IRB review:**
  ☐ No
  ☒ Yes   (If yes, please complete application including Section XII. C. 'Exempt Projects'; remember
          that only the IRB has the authority to determine that a project is exempt from IRB review)

| If you have questions, please call the University Research Compliance Office (URCO) at 532-3224, or comply@ksu.edu |

Human Subjects Research Protocol Application Form

The KSU IRB is required by law to ensure that all research involving human subjects is adequately reviewed for specific information and is approved prior to inception of any proposed activity. Consequently, it is important that you answer all questions accurately. If you need help or have questions about how to complete this application, please call the Research Compliance Office at 532-3224, or e-mail us at **comply@ksu.edu**.

Please provide the requested information in the shaded text boxes. The shaded text boxes are designed to accommodate responses within the body of the application. As you type your answers, the text boxes will expand as needed. After completion, print the form and send the original and one photocopy to the Institutional Review Board, Room 203, Fairchild Hall.

Principal Investigator:	Jeff Zacharakis
Project Title:	CORPORATE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITH A PURPOSE: EXPLORING THE ANTECEDENTS TO CORPORATE SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP
Date:	10-1-2013

MODIFICATION

Is this a modification of an approved protocol? ☐ Yes ☒ No If yes, please comply with the following:
If you are requesting a modification or a change to an IRB approved protocol, please provide a concise description of all of the changes that you are proposing in the following block. Additionally, please highlight or bold the proposed changes in the body of the protocol where appropriate, so that it is clearly discernable to the IRB reviewers what and where the proposed changes are. This will greatly help the committee and facilitate the review.

NON-TECHNICAL SYNOPSIS (brief narrative description of proposal easily understood by nonscientists):

The objective of this research is to establish whether or not a statistically significant relationship exists between perceived organizational characteristics and the implementation of Corporate Social Entrepreneurship strategies.

I. **BACKGROUND** (concise narrative review of the literature and basis for the study):

One way firms may use Corporate Entrepreneurship to further a Corporate Social Responsibility strategy is through the development of social entrepreneurial ventures. The emerging field of social entrepreneurship applies entrepreneurship and corporate innovation principles to social and environmental challenges (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Chell, 2007; Hartigan, 2006; Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009). By adapting the same principles that have been effective in successful corporate entrepreneurship, leaders may have a similar opportunity to generate transformative, financially sustainable solutions to global social problems (Kuratko, 2009b). "Social entrepreneurship," note Martin and Osberg (2007,), "is as vital to the progress of societies as is entrepreneurship to the progress of economies, and it merits more rigorous, serious attention than it has attracted so far" (p. 39). Despite the espoused and observed positive effects of Corporate Entrepreneurship, implementation of Social Entrepreneurship has been discussed almost exclusively in terms of new organizations with little exploration of how Corporate Entrepreneurship might be used as a conduit for Social Entrepreneurship (Hemingway, 2005), or Coporate Social Entrepreneurship.

II. **PROJECT/STUDY DESCRIPTION** (please provide a concise narrative description of the proposed activity in terms that will allow the IRB or other interested parties to clearly understand what it is that you propose to do that involves human subjects. This description must be in enough detail so that IRB members can make an informed decision about proposal).

This study utilizes a correlation research design. The study aims to identify the key organizational antecedents present in organizations that practice a Corporate Social Entrepreneurship strategy. The objective of this research is to establish whether or not a statistically significant relationship exists between perceived organizational characteristics and the implementation of Corporate Social Entrepreneurship strategies. In order to meet this objective, an anonymous online survey will be sent using a convenience sample of mid-level or sr-level managers in firms to collect information about the perception of the presence of entrepreneurial and social characteristics of the firm.

III. **OBJECTIVE** (briefly state the objective of the research – what you hope to learn from the study):
Is there a statistically significant relationship between the nine independent variables studied and corporate social entrepreneurship activity in firms.

IV. **DESIGN AND PROCEDURES** (succinctly outline formal plan for study):
A. Location of study: Online
B. Variables to be studied: Nine independent variables will be utilized in this research; perception of management support, work discretion, rewards/reinforcement, resources, organizational structure, social proactiveness, stakeholder salience, governance, and transparency. The single dependent variable is the level of corporate social entrepreneurship activity.
C. Data collection methods: (surveys, instruments, etc –   Survey
   PLEASE ATTACH)
D. List any factors that might lead to a   Inconvenience
subject dropping out or withdrawing from a study. These might include, but are not limited to emotional or physical stress, pain, inconvenience, etc.:
E. List all biological samples taken: (if   N/A
any)
F. Debriefing procedures for participants: None

V. **RESEARCH SUBJECTS:**
A. Source: Convenience sample
B. Number: approximately 120
C. Characteristics: (list any   mid-level or senior-level managers in organizations
unique qualifiers desirable for research subject participation)
D. Recruitment procedures: (Explain how   email to alumni, email to corporate social responsibility
do you plan to recruit your subjects?   listservs and linkedin user groups. Participants will have
Attach any fliers, posters, etc. used in the opportunity to enter a drawing for one of five $100
recruitment. If you plan to use any   Amazon.com gift cards; following survey completion,
inducements, ie. cash, gifts, prizes, etc., participants will be redirected to a separate survey
please list them here.)   instrument for the option to enter their email address to
   enter the drawing.

VI. **RISK – PROTECTION – BENEFITS:** The answers for the three questions below are central to human subjects research. You must demonstrate a reasonable balance between anticipated risks to research participants, protection strategies, and anticipated benefits to participants or others.

A. **Risks for Subjects:** (Identify any reasonably foreseeable physical, psychological, or social risks for participants. State that there are "no known risks" if appropriate.)
no known risks
B. **Minimizing Risk:** (Describe specific measures used to minimize or protect subjects from anticipated risks.)
no known risks
C. **Benefits:** (Describe any reasonably expected benefits for research participants, a class of participants, or to society as a whole.)
a better understanding of company strategies to encourage corporate social entrepreneurship activities will help to further research in the field and potentially benefit society

In your opinion, does the research involve **more than minimal risk** to subjects? ("Minimal risk" means that "the risks of

harm anticipated in the proposed research are not greater, considering probability and magnitude, than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests.")

☐ Yes   ☒ No

VII.   **CONFIDENTIALITY:** Confidentiality is the formal treatment of information that an individual has disclosed to you in a relationship of trust and with the expectation that it will not be divulged to others without permission in ways that are inconsistent with the understanding of the original disclosure. Consequently, it is your responsibility to protect information that you gather from human research subjects in a way that is consistent with your agreement with the volunteer and with their expectations.   If possible, it is best if research subjects' identity and linkage to information or data remains unknown.

Explain how you are going to protect confidentiality of research subjects and/or data or records. Include plans for maintaining records after completion.

No personal identifying information will be collected

VIII. INFORMED CONSENT: Informed consent is a critical component of human subjects research – it is your responsibility to make sure that any potential subject knows exactly what the project that you are planning is about, and what his/her potential role is. (There may be projects where some forms of "deception" of the subject is necessary for the execution of the study, but it must be carefully justified to and approved by the IRB). A schematic for determining when a waiver or alteration of informed consent may be considered by the IRB is found at

http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/consentckls.html
 Even if your proposed activity does qualify for a waiver of informed consent, you must still provide potential participants with basic information that informs them of their rights as subjects, i.e. explanation that the project is research and the purpose of the research, length of study, study procedures, debriefing issues to include anticipated benefits, study and administrative contact information, confidentiality strategy, and the fact that participation is entirely voluntary and can be terminated at any time without penalty, etc.   Even if your potential subjects are completely anonymous, you are obliged to provide them (and the IRB) with basic information about your project. See informed consent example on the URCO website. It is a federal requirement to maintain informed consent forms for 3 years after the study completion.

Yes	No		Answer the following questions about the informed consent procedures.
☐	☒	A.	Are you using a written informed consent form? If "yes," include a copy with this application. If "no" see b.
☒	☐	B.	In accordance with guidance in 45 CFR 46, I am requesting a waiver or alteration of informed consent elements (See Section VII above). If "yes," provide a basis and/or justification for your request. The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects, and involves no procedures, for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.
☐	☒	C.	Are you using the online Consent Form Template provided by the URCO? If "no," does your Informed Consent document has all the minimum required elements of informed consent found in the Consent Form Template? (Please explain)
☒	☐	D.	Are your research subjects anonymous? If they are anonymous, you will not have access to any information that will allow you to determine the identity of the research subjects in your study, or to link research data to a specific individual in any way. Anonymity is a powerful protection for potential research subjects. (An anonymous subject is one whose identity is unknown even to the researcher, or the data or information collected cannot be linked in any way to a specific person).
☐	☒	E.	Are subjects debriefed about the purposes, consequences, and benefits of the research? Debriefing refers to a mechanism for informing the research subjects of the results or conclusions, after the data is collected and analyzed, and the study is over. (If "no" explain why.) Attach copy of debriefing statement to be utilized.

132

*It is a requirement that you maintain all signed copies of informed consent documents for at least 3 years following the completion of your study. These documents must be available for examination and review by federal compliance officials.**

IX. **PROJECT INFORMATION:** (If you answer yes to any of the questions below, you should explain them in one of the paragraphs above)

Yes	No		Does the project involve any of the following?
☐	☒	a.	Deception of subjects
☐	☒	b.	Shock or other forms of punishment
☐	☒	c.	Sexually explicit materials or questions about sexual orientation, sexual experience or sexual abuse
☐	☒	d.	Handling of money or other valuable commodities
☐	☒	e.	Extraction or use of blood, other bodily fluids, or tissues
☐	☒	f.	Questions about any kind of illegal or illicit activity
☐	☒	g.	Purposeful creation of anxiety
☐	☒	h.	Any procedure that might be viewed as invasion of privacy
☐	☒	i.	Physical exercise or stress
☐	☒	j.	Administration of substances (food, drugs, etc.) to subjects
☐	☒	k.	Any procedure that might place subjects at risk
☐	☒	l.	Any form of potential abuse; i.e., psychological, physical, sexual
☒	☐	m.	Is there potential for the data from this project to be published in a journal, presented at a conference, etc?
☒	☐	n.	Use of surveys or questionnaires for data collection **IF YES, PLEASE ATTACH!!**

X. **SUBJECT INFORMATION:** (If you answer yes to any of the questions below, you should explain them in one of the paragraphs above)

Yes	No		Does the research involve subjects from any of the following categories?
☐	☒	a.	Under 18 years of age (these subjects require parental or guardian consent)
☐	☒	b.	Over 65 years of age
☐	☒	c.	Physically or mentally disabled
☐	☒	d.	Economically or educationally disadvantaged
☐	☒	e.	Unable to provide their own legal informed consent
☐	☒	f.	Pregnant females as target population
☐	☒	g.	Victims
☐	☒	h.	Subjects in institutions (e.g., prisons, nursing homes, halfway houses)
☐	☒	i.	Are research subjects in this activity students recruited from university classes or volunteer pools? If so, do you have a reasonable alternative(s) to participation as a research subject in your project, i.e., another activity such as writing or reading that would serve to protect students from unfair pressure or coercion to participate in this project? If you answered this question "Yes," explain any <u>alternatives options</u> for class credit for potential human subject volunteers in your study. (It is also important to remember that: Students must be free to choose **not** to participate in research that they have signed up for **at any time** without penalty. Communication of their decision can be conveyed in any manner, to include **simply not showing up** for the research.)
☐	☒	j.	Are research subjects **audio** taped? If yes, how do you plan to protect the recorded information and mitigate any additional risks?
☐	☒	k.	Are research subjects' images being recorded (video taped, photographed)? If yes, how do you plan to protect the recorded information and mitigate any additional risks?

XI. **CONFLICT OF INTEREST:** Concerns have been growing that financial interests in research may threaten the safety and rights of human research subjects. Financial interests are not in them selves prohibited and may well be appropriate and legitimate. Not all financial interests cause Conflict of Interest (COI) or harm to human subjects. However, to the extent that financial interests may affect the welfare of human subjects in research, IRB's, institutions, and investigators must consider what actions regarding financial interests may be necessary to protect human subjects. Please answer the following questions:

Yes	No		
☐	☒	a.	Do you or the institution have any proprietary interest in a potential product of this research, including patents, trademarks, copyrights, or licensing agreements?
☐	☒	b.	Do you have an equity interest in the research sponsor (publicly held or a non-publicly held company)?
☐	☒	c.	Do you receive significant payments of other sorts, eg., grants, equipment, retainers for consultation and/or honoraria from the sponsor of this research?
☐	☒	d.	Do you receive payment per participant or incentive payments?
☐	☐	e.	If you answered yes on any of the above questions, please provide adequate explanatory information so the IRB can assess any potential COI indicated above.

XII. PROJECT COLLABORATORS:

A. KSU Collaborators – list anyone affiliated with KSU who is collecting or analyzing data: (list all collaborators on the project, including co-principal investigators, undergraduate and graduate students)

Name:	Department:	Campus Phone:	Campus Email:
Chad Jackson	Adult & Continuing Education	785.532.6282	cjackson@k-state.edu

B. Non-KSU Collaborators: (List all collaborators on your human subjects research project **not** affiliated with KSU in the spaces below. KSU has negotiated an Assurance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP), the federal office responsible for oversight of research involving human subjects. When research involving human subjects includes collaborators who are not employees or agents of KSU the activities of those unaffiliated individuals may be covered under the KSU Assurance only in accordance with a formal, written agreement of commitment to relevant human subject protection policies and IRB oversight. The Unaffiliated Investigators Agreement can be found and downloaded at http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/forms/Unaffiliated%20Investigator%20Agreement.doc

C.

The URCO must have a copy of the Unaffiliated Investigator Agreement on file for each non-KSU collaborator who is not covered by their own IRB and assurance with OHRP. Consequently, it is critical that you identify non-KSU collaborators, and initiate any coordination and/or approval process early, to minimize delays caused by administrative requirements.)

Name:	Organization:	Phone:	Institutional Email:

134

Does your non-KSU collaborator's organization have an Assurance with OHRP? (for Federalwide Assurance and Multiple Project Assurance (MPA) listings of other institutions, please reference the OHRP website under Assurance Information at: http://ohrp.cit.nih.gov/search).

☐   No
☐   Yes   If yes, Collaborator's FWA or MPA # _____

Is your non-KSU collaborator's IRB reviewing this proposal?
☐   No
☐   Yes   If yes, IRB approval # _____

C. **Exempt Projects:** 45 CFR 46 identifies six categories of research involving human subjects that may be exempt from IRB review. The categories for exemption are listed here: http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/policy/checklists/decisioncharts.html. If you believe that your project qualifies for exemption, please indicate which exemption category applies (1-6). Please remember that only the IRB can make the final determination whether a project is exempt from IRB review, or not.

    Exemption Category: 45 CFR 46.101 (b)(2) _____

XIII. CLINICAL TRIAL ☐Yes ☒No
    (If so, please give product.)

Export Controls Training:
-The Provost has mandated that all KSU faculty/staff with a full-time appointment participate in the Export Control Program.
-If you are not in our database as having completed the Export Control training, this proposal will not be approved until your participation is verified.
-To complete the Export Control training, follow the instructions below:
Click on:

    http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/ecp/index.htm

    1. After signing into K-State Online, you will be taken to the Export Control Homepage
    2. Read the directions and click on the video link to begin the program
    3. Make sure you enter your name / email when prompted so that participation is verified

    If you click on the link and are not taken to K-State Online, this means that you have already completed the Export Control training and have been removed from the roster. If this is the case, no further action is required.

-Can't recall if you have completed this training? Contact the URCO at 785-532-3224 or comply@ksu.edu and we will be happy to look it up for you.

Post Approval Monitoring: The URCO has a Post-Approval Monitoring (PAM) program to help assure that activities are performed in accordance with provisions or procedures approved by the IRB. Accordingly, the URCO staff will arrange a PAM visit as appropriate; to assess compliance with approved activities.

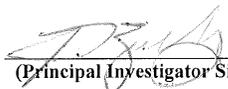| If you have questions, please call the University Research Compliance Office (URCO) at 532-3224, or comply@ksu.edu |

INVESTIGATOR ASSURANCE FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS
(Print this page separately because it requires a signature by the PI.)
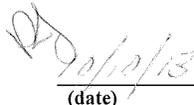
P.I. Name: Jeff Zacharakis

Title of Project: CORPORATE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITH A PURPOSE:
EXPLORING THE ANTECEDENTS TO CORPORATE SOCIAL
ENTREPRENEURSHIP

XIV. ASSURANCES: As the Principal Investigator on this protocol, I provide assurances for the following:

A.   **Research Involving Human Subjects:** This project will be performed in the manner described in this proposal, and in accordance with the Federalwide Assurance FWA00000865 approved for Kansas State University available at http://ohrp.osophs.dhhs.gov/polasur.htm#FWA, applicable laws, regulations, and guidelines. Any proposed deviation or modification from the procedures detailed herein must be submitted to the IRB, and be approved by the Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB) prior to implementation.

B.   **Training:** I assure that all personnel working with human subjects described in this protocol are technically competent for the role described for them, and have completed the required IRB training modules found on the URCO website at: http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/training/index.htm. I understand that no proposals will receive final IRB approval until the URCO has documentation of completion of training by all appropriate personnel.

C.   **Extramural Funding:** If funded by an extramural source, I assure that this application accurately reflects all procedures involving human subjects as described in the grant/contract proposal to the funding agency. I also assure that I will notify the IRB/URCO, the KSU PreAward Services, and the funding/contract entity if there are modifications or changes made to the protocol after the initial submission to the funding agency.

D.   **Study Duration:** I understand that it is the responsibility of the Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB) to perform continuing reviews of human subjects research as necessary. I also understand that as continuing reviews are conducted, it is my responsibility to provide timely and accurate review or update information when requested, to include notification of the IRB/URCO when my study is changed or completed.

E.   **Conflict of Interest:** I assure that I have accurately described (in this application) any potential Conflict of Interest that my collaborators, the University, or I may have in association with this proposed research activity.

F.   **Adverse Event Reporting:** I assure that I will promptly report to the IRB / URCO any <u>unanticipated</u> problems involving risks to subjects or others that involve the protocol as approved. Unanticipated or Adverse Event Form is located on the URCO website at: http://www.k-state.edu/research/comply/irb/forms/index.htm. In the case of a serious event, the Unanticipated or Adverse Events Form may follow a phone call or email contact with the URCO.

G.   **Accuracy:** I assure that the information herein provided to the Committee for Human Subjects Research is to the best of my knowledge complete and accurate.

URCO

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(Principal Investigator Signature)   (date)